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[*Teachers, etc., continued on page v.*]

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 6, 1893.

## The Week.

THE proclamation of the President convening Congress in extra session a little over a month hence, meets with universal approval. The new Congress ought to have assembled when the new President was inaugurated, just as all the Legislatures which were chosen on the day of the Presidential election began the discharge of their duties simultaneously with the incoming of the new Governors. Nevertheless, as things have turned out, it will undoubtedly be easier to secure right action on the financial question in August than it might have been in April, and the object-lessons which both our own country and India have furnished during the past four months were perhaps necessary to cure the victims of the silver craze. Meanwhile, the friends of sound money, without distinction of party, should devote all their efforts towards creating a public sentiment which will tolerate no more "fooling" with our financial system. What is needed is the repeal of the Sherman Act, without a substitution in its place of something else nearly as bad in the way of a "temporary expedient," as was done three years ago. One such experience as we have had with "temporary expedients" ought to suffice. We are glad to observe that the New York *Tribune* has seen light on this question. Not long ago it expressed doubt whether the "naked repeal" of the Sherman Act would be "for the best interests of the country," and whether the Republicans in Congress ought to help a Democratic President to bring it about. On Saturday, however, it changed its position and said: "The repeal of the act with which Senator Sherman's name is unfortunately associated is imperatively demanded. *It should be repealed unconditionally.*"

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A good part of the soreness of Republicans over the present politico-financial situation is no doubt due to the remorseful consciousness that they threw away in 1890 a great opportunity for leadership and party success. When Speaker Reed was moving heaven and earth to "hang up" the Free-Coinage Bill in committee, and keep it at all hazards from going to a Presidential veto, he was really dooming his party to defeat. It is easy enough to see now that if he and the party leaders had boldly thrown down the gauntlet to the free-silver men, and had hailed the chance of a strong veto and a defiant campaign on the issue of honest money, they would have driven the halting Democrats into alliance with the silverites and into inevitable defeat. The Republican party seemed almost predestined for such a work as that; and if the old clear moral sense had not gone out of it, it is inconceivable that it would not have seized the opportunity of doing it. But the long years of jobbing and bargaining over the tariff and of seeking power through shrewd intrigue had done their fatal work, and so, instead of a bold and resolute attitude in which would have been safety and triumph, the best wisdom of the party could agree upon nothing better than that miserable dangling between the devil and the deep sea known as the Sherman Law. The chance for leadership which Republican cowardice and oversmartness threw away was seized by Mr. Cleveland in his letter to the Reform Club in February, 1891, pronouncing against free coinage. By that he not only saved his party from going to everlasting smash, but also put himself virtually at the head of the sound-money Republicans. They were forced to approve his course then, and they will be forced to vote in favor of his recommendations when Congress meets.

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"Unwise" the President calls the Sherman Law in his proclamation. Immoral he might have called it, on the strength of confessions made by Congressman Walker of Massachusetts, who, in Saturday's *Tribune*, unblushingly unfolds a tale of political baseness almost unparalleled. He was a member of the conference committee which finally concocted the Sherman Law, and he admits that the Republicans were guilty of the most shameless betrayal of their constituents and their convictions. All but Jones were convinced, he now says, that, "aside from political considerations," the Sherman Law was "the most stupendous financial folly sane men ever engaged in." Of their conduct in engaging in it, nevertheless, he says, "The moralist may condemn this state of things as he will," and goes on to show how "the average Congressman justifies himself." The time has been when a Republican Congressman, especially from Massachusetts, would know if he was publicly putting the brand of infamy upon himself. Mr. Walker seems to be cheerfully unconscious of his own disgrace, of which he is himself the historian. His frank narrative of the degradation and danger involved in all such cowardly compromises as the Sherman Law may, however, help, as an awful warning, to save us from any more such debauchery of the conscience by Congressmen who now confess that they were willing to bring the country to the verge of financial ruin for "political considerations."

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It is no wonder that Senator Sherman has protested against giving his name to the Silver Law of 1890, which is now the most roundly and universally cursed measure of recent history. Yet there is a poetic fitness in having that law go into the books bearing the name of the man whose fatal turn for trimming in politics was finally carried over into finance. If this last effort of his constructive genius as a financier serves to eclipse the reputation gained by his earlier achievements, he has only himself to thank for it. If there is any sphere of politics in which "tricking short-cuts and little fallacious facilities" are absolutely deadly, both to the general well-being and to the repute of the man guilty of them, it is the sphere of financial legislation. How dangerously versatile Mr. Sherman has been in such matters is forcibly shown by a writer in the last *Journal of Political Economy*, who collates the three different and conflicting reasons given by the Ohio Senator in public debate for the dropping of the silver dollar in the Coinage Act of 1873. On March 30, 1876, he said it was dropped "simply because it is inconvenient in size and form for ordinary coinage and ordinary business." Less than a month later, on April 25, he gave as the reason that the silver dollar, in 1873, "was worth more than a dollar in gold," and "there was no use then in issuing it." Still later, in 1892, he said that it had been omitted because "it had practically been obsolete for a long period of years."

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With the spread of the money stringency, the New York banks have been confronted with fresh problems of policy, and their method of meeting such problems has furnished further and very important precedents for the financial future. Last week the money troubles, which had hitherto centred in the mercantile trade, descended suddenly on Wall Street. The currency movement to the West had indeed virtually ceased the week before, but the relief thus gained was offset by the "tying-up" of local funds. The 1st of July is one of the great "disbursement days" in corporation finance. It has been estimated that the interest and dividend payments due in this country in July aggregate not less than $100,000,000. Of this the greater part is payable in New York, and the holding of such money subject to draft temporarily withdraws much of that amount from the money market. The Federal Treasury wisely anticipated by nearly two weeks the payment of Government bond interest, and numerous wealthy corporations have followed its example. But in the strained condition of the market, and with scores of private lenders holding back for exorbitant rates, the relief was felt but slowly. On Thursday the strain became so violent as to threaten imminent disaster. Stock-market prices fell, and money rose to the exceptional rate of 73 per cent. Hitherto the city banks have properly held aloof from free accommodation to the security market;

for, of all things, speculation for a rise, in such a situation, is most to be avoided. But the possibility of demoralizing failures was too dangerous an alternative, and five of the strongest banks accordingly, having increased their resources through the use of Clearing-house certificates, appeared on Thursday as free lenders of money on the Stock Exchange. The effect was instantaneous. Money rates broke at once, and the stock market returned to equilibrium. The action, though almost unprecedented, was wise and timely, and probably averted serious trouble.

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It has been observed that the $3,000,000 thus loaned for the banks was put out almost at the day's highest rate, and this has evoked some criticism. A moment's consideration will, however, show the wisdom of that policy. Had the bankers offered this sum at 6 per cent., there was a chance that most of it would be snapped up by brokers anxious to enter on new ventures. But no such broker would pay 50 or 60 per cent. for his accommodation. The people who borrowed this money at the abnormal rate demanded were necessarily people whose present needs were very pressing, and the rate was a fair measure of their emergency. Nor was the moral effect of the bank experiment lost by the high rate, for money promptly fell again to 6 per cent., and the critical strain of the day was over.

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The immunity of London during the present generation from so critical a money stringency as has existed in New York in the past week is explained by the soundness of the English currency system. The trouble throughout this country has been aggravated by two causes: first, the actual hoarding of money by local capitalists fearful of a lapse to a silver basis; and, second, our inability to get relief from abroad, owing to a similar distrust on the part of foreign capitalists. A month ago, when the Australian banks went down, London was threatened with precisely such a crisis. It found relief in drawing instantly, and to enormous amounts, on Paris. London's credit being high, the accommodation was readily granted. Our situation has been such that, with sterling exchange far below the gold-importing point, we could not get the requisite gold in England. In other words, this week's experience is only a continuance, in a highly intensified form, of the symptoms reflected ever since the passage of our Law of 1890, through the withdrawal of foreign capital from this country.

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We think the Colorado mine-owners will have a fine time of it cutting off the world's supply of silver. They may shut down if they choose, but Mexico will hardly go out of the business at the very moment when dangerous competitors shut up shop. Indeed, Mexican despatches show that the Mexican mines and mints are prepared to keep right on at the old stand, having all the facilities requisite for supplying any number of new customers. There is no sentiment about the Mexicans in this matter, as they have to pay for more than half of their foreign purchases by silver exports, and the bigger the foreign demand the better they will be suited and the more new mines they will open. Further than this, the outraged Colorado men who propose to bring the world to its senses by letting it see if it can get on without their silver, ought to reflect that their action, if really serious and persisted in, would furnish just the chance the country is aching for to get rid of the accumulation in the Treasury. There are stored up about 150,000,000 ounces, or three years' product, and it would be the easiest thing in the world to let that dribble out upon the market while the angry miners were taking a rest.

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The Treasury has turned the corner of the fiscal year with a nominal surplus of about $2,000,000. We call this surplus a nominal one for two reasons. If the Treasury operations on the score of the National Bank Deposit and Redemption Fund were reckoned in, as they should be in strictness, the surplus would be turned into a deficit of $4,000,000, as the outlay on that account was $6,000,000 more than the income. Secretary Carlisle, however, has adhered to Mr. Foster's form of statement, leaving this account out altogether, and so making an apparent surplus. The other reason why the surplus is rather nominal than real is, that the appropriations have not been paid as provided by law. This is another imitation of the practice of the late Administration, made necessary by lack of funds, the only difference being that Mr. Carlisle has made no secret of his embarrassments and has not prevaricated about his enforced retrenchments, as Secretary Foster did. The customs revenue turned out to be $6,000,000 larger than the estimates, but the internal revenue $5,000,000 smaller. The fiscal year closed with the gold reserve at $95,485,413, and the net cash balance at $26,976,877. These figures show that the country will be forced to the virtue of economy for some time to come.

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In the published records of failures for the first half of this disastrous year, the most remarkable feature is the large percentage of assets to liabilities. The number of individual failures during the six months of 1893 exceeds the record of any corresponding period since the resumption of specie payments. The amount of liabilities also breaks the record, surpassing by $56,000,000 the total of 1884, in which the business panic was similarly concentrated in the early spring and summer months. But the percentage of assets to liabilities, which reached 56 in 1884, and only 48 in 1890, rose to 61 this year—a proportion, we believe, quite without precedent. From the most obvious point of view, this is a highly reassuring fact. It proves beyond question that there has been no general rottenness in business enterprises, and that the trouble was not aggravated by universally inflated values. Indeed, one of the most impressive facts in this year's business collapse has been the generally reasonable level of prices at which the break began. In a few cases, such as the industrial stocks on our own market and some of Chicago's local securities, there had been reckless expansion; but in the great majority of commodities and investments no such process had taken place. In stocks, indeed, the June collapse followed a long season of liquidation; in wheat, the manipulators for the rise had in effect been already beaten before the money stringency. As these facts testify to the unparalleled severity of the money "squeeze," so they furnish promise of a recovery more speedy than is apt to follow panic. Not less significant is the fact that out of the 284 failures running up to $100,000 or more, 79 were those of banks and bankers alone, and 49 confined to three trades already paralyzed by dulness and overproduction—lumber, leather and shoes, and iron and steel. In the dry-goods business proper only six failures of any note have been recorded, with total liabilities barely exceeding a million and a half.

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Trade journals are noting the fact that the price of wool is the lowest in its history. In fact, one of them says: "Medium wools have reached free-trade prices, and fine wools are getting there." The causes of this condition of the wool market are given by the paper in question as lack of mercantile confidence, monetary stringency, apprehension of tariff legislation, and the backward spring. But no tariff legislation can do any worse than make wool free, and if it is already at "free-trade prices," despite McKinley, what is there to be afraid of? It looks as if the farmers could not be terrified by a prospect worse than the worst. It is conceivable, though, that a lot more dire might yet be theirs. If McKinley were to have his way and get higher duties on wool, it might sink even below free-trade prices.

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Surveyor Lyon has followed Appraiser Cooper's example and refused to give the Custom-house Commission any information about the workings of his office, basing his refusal upon technical objections to the Commission's legal standing. This is a most short-sighted policy, even from a partisan point of view. Only a little while ago the party organs were inviting the Commission to "come on," asserting that there was "nothing to conceal" and that "everything would

be thrown open." After all that, it will have a bad effect to see chief of division after chief of division run away at the first fire and act like an accused person who refuses to incriminate himself or speak at all except by advice of counsel. One of the requests made of Surveyor Lyon was directed to the "qualifications" of the men in his division. We suspect it was this inquiry which aroused his grave doubts about the legality of the Commission. From his standpoint, we admit, if there is no law against compelling him to exhibit the absurd incompetence of his subordinates, after the fashion of the Appraiser's office, there ought to be one in short order.

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Gov. Flower's address at the alumni dinner of St. Lawrence University last week was a frank approval of education. He boldly admitted that he believed in it, provided it did not "encourage socialism and anarchy, undermine patriotism, and bring republican institutions into scorn." Moreover, he was in favor of the scholar in politics. He wanted the graduating class to "be good citizens," to "take an interest in public affairs," although not to be "impatient of attaining the millennium." Even while the Governor was speaking, a lot of college men in Albany were taking him at his word and showing their interest in public affairs. The particular affair to which they addressed themselves was the scandalous manner in which the Governor of this State had allowed the civil-service laws to be violated or evaded. They discovered that over 100 persons were holding office illegally, and that a great number of arbitrary transfers had been made from the competitive to the non-competitive schedules. Is it being impatient of the millennium to call for the enforcement of the law? And will the Governor tell us in his next address whether it is education or something else that brings republican institutions into scorn in the way pointed out by the Civil-Service Reform League?

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One of the worst blunders committed by President Harrison was his abuse of the appointing power by the conferring of office upon editors. We greatly regret that Mr. Cleveland has imitated Mr. Harrison's pernicious example. He has already appointed a large number of editors to office, and the list grows longer every week. While there has been no single nomination so important as that of Whitelaw Reid for Minister to France or Murat Halstead to Russia, there have been many of the same grade as those of John C. New for Consul-General at London and Ellis H. Roberts for Assistant United States Treasurer. The editors of such leading Democratic organs in their respective States as the Indianapolis *Sentinel* in Indiana, the Montgomery *Advertiser* in Alabama, the Detroit *Free Press* in Michigan, and the St. Paul *Globe* in Minnesota have been thus rewarded with rich "plums," while a host of less conspicuous editors have been given minor places; four out of eight consulates in one recent list going into the offices of the Graham (Va.) *Headlight*, the Columbus (O.) *Westvolk*, the Plainfield (N. Y.) *Press*, and the Louisville (Ky.) *Truth*. If there were any ground for believing that the editors thus picked out were "the fittest men," it would not be so bad, but no evidence to this effect is offered, while some of Cleveland's appointments have been quite as ridiculous as any of Harrison's.

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Complaints about the mail service during the past four months have been far fewer than during the corresponding period after the change of Administration in either 1889 or 1885. The reason is that the railway mail service is now under the Civil-Service Law, as it was not in 1885, nor in 1889 until after Mr. Harrison had suspended Cleveland's order to that effect long enough to allow a host of changes for political reasons. Formerly the service was demoralized by the turning out of old and trained men to make room for new and ignorant ones, who must learn at the expense of the public convenience. Under the new régime no changes are made except for cause, and the work goes on as smoothly as in any well-regulated business establishment.

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The several official accounts of the loss of the *Victoria* are now before the public, and seem to leave no doubt that the disaster was due to a blunder of Vice-Admiral Tryon's. Capt. Bourke's testimony is almost decisive on this point, as he represents the Admiral as having agreed that the distance between the two divisions should be eight cables instead of six, and yet as having, for some unexplained reason, given the order for six, and left it so even after being remonstrated with by the staff commander. One can understand something of the feelings which drove a brave officer to the determination to go to the bottom with his ship and men rather than to try to escape from the effects of his own carelessness. The official account also explains what has hitherto seemed unaccountable, namely, Admiral Tryon's refusal to accept aid, and actually ordering the other ships not to send out boats. It seems that all the water-tight doors were closed before the collision, when it was seen to be inevitable, and it was reported to the Admiral that "all was tight."

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The success of the Belgians in wresting universal suffrage from the fears of the ruling classes seems to have inspired the Austrian workingmen to labor for a similar result in a similar way. The suffrage in Austria is now given to all who pay a minimum of five florins in direct taxes. To make it universal is now the avowed object of the leaders of the workingman's party, who, three weeks after the May Day demonstrations in the Prater, issued a sort of appeal to the country, and particularly to the laboring classes, on the subject. The design is to foment an agitation which will have assumed huge proportions by the time Parliament meets in the fall, when, it is hoped, the course of events in Brussels may be repeated in Vienna. Every few weeks inflammatory pamphlets and proclamations are to be distributed broadcast, and the workingmen's newspapers are to have "Universal Suffrage" printed on them in large type. Great meetings are also to be held — in fact, are already being held, as on June 13 at Reichenberg, when 15,000 workingmen passed resolutions in favor of the right of suffrage for every man and woman over twenty years of age. Gatherings of Socialists have also been held at Budapest, at Prague, and elsewhere, at which motions in favor of universal suffrage were enthusiastically voted. It would be rash to assume that the methods which were triumphant in Belgium will be equally so in Austria, yet there seems to be every promise of a vigorous attempt to put them to the proof.

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The propriety of the use of real names in works of fiction was lately under discussion in Paris, on occasion of the report that Edmond de Goncourt was about to dramatize his novel published a dozen years ago and entitled 'La Faustin.' He received a letter from a certain M. Faustin warning him against giving that name to a play, and threatening him with legal proceedings in case he did. The author replied that he had not yet written the play, and did not know that he ever should write it, but that he should not be deterred by the threat of a law-suit from using the name of the heroine of his novel. He protested that if such claims as that of M. Faustin were to be allowed to be valid, writers would be compelled to go back to the practice of the morality plays, and name their characters Chastity, Diligence, Good-Sense, and the like. It was, in fact, the contention of one French writer some years ago that such a method should be observed so far as to omit the names of the hero and heroine of all novels, simply designating them the Lover and the Beloved. The law of the matter was laid down by the Tribunal of the Seine in February, 1882, in a suit brought against Zola, in which the Court decided that an author could be held liable for the use of a particular name in a work of fiction only when such use tended to "render odious or ridiculous" the person or persons who bore it. Under this decision it is difficult to see how M. Faustin could recover damages, even if he should yet have to endure seeing his name in great letters on the bill-boards.

### *THE GREAT "CONSPIRACY."*

MUCH of the talk of the silverites during the last twenty years not only discredited the national intelligence, but the human mind itself. Their account of the divinely appointed place of silver in human society, their ascription to it of human virtues—such as fidelity, local attachment, and sympathy with poverty and misfortune—and, above all, their contention that 15 to 1 was the ratio between it and gold appointed by the Creator in the interest of permanent bimetallism, have been a sore trial for those who cared not simply for the intellectual reputation of the American people, but for the fair fame of democracy as a rational system of government. The conversion of silver into a fetish and an object of half-worship seemed an exploit better fitted for the denizens of the African forests than for the "heirs of all the ages" who know and utter and argue freely under the American flag.

But we doubt whether even these earlier aberrations were, on the whole, as queer as the latest one, which makes the fall of silver and its demonetization by the leading nations of the world the result of a "conspiracy" against silver and bimetallism. "Conspiracy" has been until now a term applied to small knots or combinations of men compelled by their weakness to rely on secrecy for the accomplishment of their designs. A public conspiracy, or a conspiracy of such numbers as to make secrecy impossible, or, in short, a conspiracy of the majority against the minority, has hitherto been considered a contradiction in terms. But the silver-men have introduced the practice of treating everybody who differs from them as a "conspirator," even if the term should thus be made to cover the whole human race except the few thousands in this country and Europe who are afflicted with the bimetallic or silver delusion. All the more highly civilized nations of the earth, including the democratic ones, such as England, France, Italy, Holland, Switzerland, and Belgium, and the more monarchical, such as Germany and Austria, have for nearly twenty years been slowly discarding silver as a standard of value, owing to the great increase in its production; the chief use of money being, in their estimation, the supply of a measure of value for commodities and contracts. This has been done with the utmost publicity, after much discussion, by men who have devoted their lives to the study of financial questions, and with absolute calm.

Furious monometallists are, we think, as little known in the leading European countries as passionate or hysterical bankers or dry-goods men are here. Questions of currency are discussed there as business simply, and signs of enthusiasm about a metal would injure the credit of a business man. Consequently there has been no more popular excitement over the question of the standard of value in England, France, or Germany than over the standard of time. The question is left to experts, with the general understanding that Government is not to supply people with money, but with a legal-tender as nearly stable as a measure of value as the nature of the materials within our reach for such purposes will permit. No European monometallist has appeared to announce that gold is a perfectly stable standard which never has risen or fallen, and never will rise or fall in relation to other commodities, or to pretend that he knows of anything of the kind "on God's footstool," as Jerry Simpson would say. The provision of a perfect measure of value, which will under no circumstances expand or contract, is, like the squaring of the circle and the discovery of perpetual motion, left to charlatans and visionaries. What rational business men do is to search for the nearest approach to such a standard which the constitution of the globe and the nature of the human mind will permit; but they carry on the search without emotion of any description, just as if they were working at a mathematical problem.

Under these circumstances, the theory that the scientists and business men of the Old World who are engaged in the search for the standard, and have discarded silver after full examination, and the two or three hundred millions of people who know what they are about and approve of their labors, are engaged in a "conspiracy" against Jones, and Bland, and Peffer, and Simpson, and Warner, and the like, and the numerous voters in the Southern and Western States who would like more money, helps more and more to bring us into disrepute as an honest business people. The irrationality of our talk, in fact, does us nearly as much damage as the confusion of our currency. When 200,000,000 are accused of conspiring to cheat 1,000 through hatred of a white metal, far from wishing to trade with them, they want to lock them up and send for a doctor. When a United States Senator says—

> "The suspension of silver coinage in India shows, in the first place, that the millionaires and money sharks of the Old World are in copartnership with the money-lenders and monopolists of Wall Street, and that there is a combined effort on the part of the wealthy and influential elements of the Old and New World to grind the poor classes down to the lowest notch."

no sane person likes to argue with him, or lend him money, or invite him to his house, or consult him about anything whatever. It is true that it is Peffer of Kansas who talks in this way, and we know Peffer, but foreign investors do not. They think he fairly represents the American Senate, and they resolve to get their capital away from under him and his kind.

The term "silver lunacy," has been treated as a term of vituperation, but it is nothing of the kind. It is strictly descriptive. It denotes a wave of popular hallucination, such as in past ages usually arose in the field of religion and dealt with the supernatural, or expended itself on the infidels or the witches or the Jews. Had we alone had to deal with it, there is no knowing into what slough it would have plunged us before passing away. Happily, some power over the object of the superstition remained in the hands of the sane portion of mankind in other countries. The Latin Union, England, and now India had the fortunes of the idol more or less in their hands, and have, mercifully for us, used their power to rip him open and exhibit his fraudulent insides to his dupes.

### *CIVIC DUTY.*

MR. JAMES BRYCE, in an article on the "Teaching of Civic Duty" in the July *Forum*, points out with characteristic clearness and accuracy some of the chief reasons why popular government in this country and elsewhere is so often misgovernment. He divides patriotism into two kinds, one which concerns itself with services and sacrifices to protect one's fatherland against external enemies, and the other with devotion to all that can subserve its inner welfare. The latter, or "home side of patriotism, this sober and quiet sense of what a man owes to the community into which he is born, and which he helps to govern," has been found, Mr. Bryce truly says, specially hard to maintain in modern times and in large countries. In regard to our large cities, and especially the city of New York, nothing is more notable than the almost total lack of this home patriotism. Our citizens are capable of working themselves into a fury of Jingo patriotism over some trifling international incident, like that of a row among drunken sailors in the streets of Valparaiso, or like the unthinking hullaballoo over a proposal to annex Hawaii, but they bear with complete indifference the constant scandal of an ignorant and corrupt municipal administration which brings disgrace upon the name of popular government the world over.

So, too, in regard to State and national affairs. The low estate to which our legislative bodies have sunk is spoken of almost universally with contempt and ridicule, but seldom with any sign of consciousness that their condition is a reflection upon our capacity for self-government, which injures the good name of the nation more seriously than any international question that has arisen for many years, or is likely to arise for many more, is capable of doing. All this is due to the absence of the "home side of patriotism," among our people, the lack of that habit of civic duty which Mr. Bryce defines as the willingness "to take trouble, personal and even tedious trouble, for the well governing of every public community one belongs to, be it a township or parish, a ward or a city, or the nation as a whole." The chief reason for this lack is that nearly everybody is so much absorbed in the pursuit of wealth that he is not willing to give any

time or thought to public affairs. It makes little impression upon the merchants and professional men of this city to call their attention to the ignorance, extravagance, and corruption of the government under which they are living; they admit the facts, but decline to make any personal effort towards removing or even lessening the evils. "We have no time for politics," they say. "Things are disgracefully bad, undoubtedly, but they have always been so, and you can't make them any better by calling attention to them." As for a sense of patriotic obligation as American citizens to make the city government intelligent, economical, and thus beneficial to the whole people, the citizens who feel that deeply enough to have their conduct influenced by it are hard to find.

One excuse heard very often is that, with our large ignorant foreign population, nothing better is possible. The answer to that is that there is not a large city in the United States in which the native-born element, representing its intelligence and property, is not in a majority if it be united. The trouble is that this element, by dividing into two nearly equal portions under party names which have no meaning in local affairs, completely nullify their own power. This is brought about again by the lack of that habit of civic duty which Mr. Bryce defines as striving to know what is best for one's country or community as a whole, placing that above party feeling, or class feeling, or any other sectional passion or motive. The real foe of good government is not ignorance, but the indolence and partisan blindness of the intelligence of the community. Every man who has given the subject close observation is forced to that conclusion very early in his investigations. Mr. Bryce's words on this point are well worth quoting:

"It is common to talk of ignorance as the chief peril of democracies. That it is a peril no one denies, and we are all, I hope, agreed that it has become more than ever the duty of the State to insist not only on a more penetrating and stimulative instruction, but upon the inclusion of the elements of constitutional knowledge among the subjects to be taught in the higher standards of our schools. Democracy has, however, another foe not less pernicious. This is indolence. Indifference to public affairs shows itself not merely in a neglect to study them, and fit one's self to give a judicious vote, but in the apathy which does not care to give a vote when the time arrives. It is a serious evil already in some countries—serious in London, very serious in Italy; serious enough in the United States (not, indeed, at Presidential, but at city and other local elections) for some reformer to have proposed to punish with a fine the citizen who neglects to vote, as in some old Greek city the law proclaimed penalties against the citizen who in a sedition stood aloof, taking neither one side nor the other. For, unhappily, it is the respectable, well-meaning, easy-going citizen, as well as the merely ignorant citizen, who is apt to be listless. Those who have their private ends to serve, their axes to grind and logs to roll, are not indolent. Private interest spurs them on, and if the so-called 'good citizen,' who has no desire or aim except that good government which benefits him no more than every one else, does not bestir himself, the public funds may become the plunder, and the public interests the sport, of unscrupulous adventurers."

In this and many other American cities, this stage was reached years ago. The result is that in most of them popular government exists only in name, and that a class of politicians have been bred who have made the business of plundering cities a profession in which not only are great fortunes accumulated swiftly, but their accumulation, even when visible to the public which is robbed to supply them, excites no especial attention. It is surely time that a comprehensive plan for the propagation of correct ideas in home patriotism or civic duty was started in every city in the land.

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### *THE GERMAN PARLIAMENT.*

CHANCELLOR CAPRIVI, since he took office in 1890, has been confronted with the same parliamentary problems which Bismarck had to face between 1881 and 1887. The Government has had to be carried on without a governmental majority, and Caprivi, like Bismarck, has attempted to do this by a series of bargains with one or another group of the heterogeneous Opposition.

In 1887 Bismarck obtained a good majority, but in 1890 he lost it again, and at once opened new negotiations with the Ultramontanes. While these were in progress the young Emperor discharged him and put Caprivi in his place. It was in every respect a change of persons without change of policy: in internal as in external affairs Caprivi followed almost slavishly in Bismarck's footsteps, but with less clearness of aim and much less consistency. He took up the negotiations with the Ultramontanes, and succeeded for a time in purchasing their support. Bismarck had so wisely husbanded his concessions to that party that something was still left to compromise on—just enough to carry Caprivi through two of the following three years. Then it became necessary to offer the Clericals something positive, and the Government introduced in the Prussian Diet a primary-education bill, which practically substituted confessional for secular schools. This bill might perhaps have been carried, against the opposition of all shades of Liberals, by Conservative, Clerical, and Polish votes, but the outcry throughout the kingdom so alarmed the Emperor and his Chancellor that the bill was withdrawn. The Ultramontanes turned promptly against the Government, and in the decisive votes on the late Army Bill the party was almost solidly arrayed in opposition.

Caprivi had indeed other strings to his bow, but they were weak ones. Slight concessions were made to the Poles in administrative and church matters, and were gratefully received; but the Poles had only sixteen votes. More important was the attempted conciliation of the free-trade Liberals. In 1891 and 1892 commercial treaties were negotiated with a number of Germany's neighbors, which reduced the tariff on grain, and thus largely nullified the protection given to the agrarian interest. The German Liberal party welcomed this change of policy; but its radical wing, under the leadership of Eugene Richter, refused, in accordance with its unbroken tradition, to render any aid to the Government in return. Only a few of the more recent recruits—those who had seceded from the National Liberal party on the tariff issue—emancipated themselves from Richter's domination and voted for the Army Bill. The net gain which Caprivi derived from his commercial treaties was therefore slight. On the other hand, those treaties offended a large section of the Conservatives, and made them lukewarm in their allegiance to the Government.

After the defeat of the Army Bill, Caprivi, still following in Bismarck's track, attempted to secure a more docile Reichstag by a dissolution and an appeal to the patriotism of the Empire. But, as the old adage has it, when two persons do the same thing it is not the same thing. Bismarck was backed in 1887 by the old Emperor and Moltke and his own triumphant past. Germany's allies were held well in hand, and the wires of European diplomacy were skilfully pulled to play upon the fears of the German electors. Caprivi's position in the electoral campaign which has just closed was in every respect weaker. William II.'s name is not one to conjure with; military opinion is understood to be divided on the expediency of many of the proposed changes in the army; the utterances of Germany's allies have been maliciously optimistic as regards the chance of a prolonged European peace; and Caprivi's own brief career has convinced every one of his honesty and good intentions, but no one of his ability. Under the circumstances it is rather surprising that the elections have resulted so favorably for him. Aided by a split in the Clerical party, and in the secondary ballots by the consternation felt at the Social Democratic gains, the Government appears to have secured a slight majority, not necessarily for the proposed law, but for some increase of the army. But this majority is a very composite one, with little suggestion of stability. The Conservatives and National Liberals have made gains, but have not obtained a majority of the seats; and the next Army Bill will be carried by the aid of free-trade Liberals, dissentient Clericals, Anti-Semites, and Poles. This is not a majority on which the Government can count for other purposes, and it is not easy to see how a stable majority is to be constructed.

It is not impossible that the free-traders who left the National Liberal party in 1879, and who have now abandoned the German Liberals, may again swing back into the National Liberal party. But even then the Conservatives and Moderate Liberals would not be in the majority; nor could they, under existing conditions, act in harmony. The tariff question, which Caprivi's commercial treaties have brought to the front again, makes this impossible; for even if Caprivi were willing to go fur-

ther in breaking down the protective system, he could not carry the Conservatives with him. As long as Bismarck was at the helm, the Conservatives were an absolutely reliable governmental party. They followed him through years of liberal and anti-clerical legislation; they gave their votes for the destruction of feudal jurisdictions and for the free migration of the laboring classes, for the complete emancipation of the Jews, and for civil marriage. They followed him with the same dismay with which the English Tories often followed Disraeli, but they followed *quand même* because he was their leader as well as the chosen representative of the Crown. But the Conservatives feel no such allegiance to Caprivi. They do not see now why they should not compel the Government to follow them. They have been educated, during the past few years, to the *do ut des* view of politics. They are not likely to support the Government unless it becomes again frankly and thoroughly protectionist—and that will alienate a section of the Moderate Liberals.

It seems certain, therefore, that Caprivi, or any other Chancellor whom the Emperor may put in his place, will be forced to make terms with the Ultramontanes, and that during the next few years German parliamentary politics will be dominated by a Conservative-Clerical alliance. This outlook is a discouraging one. It means the continued supremacy of protectionism, and it may well mean reactionary legislation in many directions. The anti-Semitic wing of the Conservative party will demand laws against usury and stock-exchange gambling, which the Clericals will gladly support, and, as against the secular schools, orthodox Lutherans and Roman Catholics will readily join hands again.

Against such a coalition the Liberals, Radicals, and Social Democrats will be found united in opposition, but in this opposition there will be negative harmony only. It is not the sort of opposition which, even in a strictly parliamentary monarchy, could conceivably become a governmental party. As the lines are now drawn in the Reichstag, the increase of the Social Democratic vote is unimportant. It means simply the shifting of votes from one opposition party to another. Richter and his friends, who have lost more than the Social Democrats have gained, have always been as *intransigeant* as Liebknecht and his associates. The chief difference between the two parties is this: that the Social Democrats have a positive programme, while the Richter Radicals have never been anything but a party of pure negation.

## JOHN DICKINSON AND THE PENNSYLVANIA CONSTITUTION OF 1776.

BROOKLYN, July 1, 1893.

IT has been the fashion of our historical writers, first introduced by Bancroft, to treat the conduct of John Dickinson in relation to the Pennsylvania Constitution of 1776 as that of an "irreconcilable." If their judgment be accepted, he continued to worship the old royal charter long after it had been replaced by a republican and democratic Constitution; refused the oath of allegiance, resigned his commission, and withdrew from the State, rather than give free institutions even tacit support. In proof of this view, little evidence has been given; to that which has been available I can now add what I trust will cause a stay of judgment, if not a reversal of it.

The Constitution of 1776 was prepared under conditions and circumstances which made opposition to it almost certain. In 1776, the controlling party of the Assembly was a coalition formed of the Quaker-German-commercial interests, led by John Dickinson. In the face of this conservative majority, the Opposition or "popular" minority were unable successfully to fight, and they therefore withdrew or seceded, leaving the Assembly without a quorum, and thus not able to act. Then, trumpeting forth that the legal authority would not take the steps necessary for the support of the Continental Congress and the war, they gathered with others in what they called a "provincial conference," and not merely passed several laws, but issued a call for a convention to frame a Constitution. Without a quorum to vote measures, without an executive (for the King's Governor had withdrawn), and with the "Associators" or militia (who were naturally almost wholly enlisted from the "popular" party) refusing to obey their orders, the Assembly was powerless to prevent this Convention from assembling. And though the majority of the people (if we take the recent vote of the whole province for Assemblymen as evidencing the public opinion) refused to vote for delegates, the Convention met, framed a Constitution, and, without giving either Assembly or people a chance to consider the plan, declared it established, required an oath of allegiance to it, and ordered a new Assembly elected under it.

On this the conservatives split into two camps. A large section refused either to stand for or to vote at this election, while the remainder, under Dickinson, though refusing to acknowledge the legality of this Government, held that the collapse of the legal Assembly left them no alternative but resigning all share in the Government, or endeavoring to gain possession of the new Assembly. They accordingly offered themselves as candidates, and, in spite of this split, secured seats enough to make them a formidable minority, and emboldened Dickinson to formulate a demand for a new Convention. Refused this, the minority played the same tactics before employed by the popular party, of withdrawing from the Assembly; and only the stress of war and the pressure of the Continental Congress induced enough of the conservatives to attend to give it a quorum and enable it to act. Dickinson himself resigned and withdrew from the State, though more from other motives than on account of his disapproval of these proceedings.

This outline of events hardly proves him an "irreconcilable," and some recently discovered evidence goes to show that Dickinson was quite ready, not merely to aid in forming a new Constitution, but even to accept that of the Convention, if it was amended so as to be equally fair to all parties in the State. For many years there has been in the possession of the Library Company of Philadelphia a rare broadside, entitled 'An Essay of a Declaration of Rights,' of which ninety-six copies were secretly printed for the use of members of the Convention of 1776. In examining this recently, I found that it had MS. notes and corrections which special familiarity with Dickinson's handwriting enabled me at once to fix upon him as the annotater. How he obtained this secret draft of the Convention, it is difficult to say; but it gives us some important light on his objections, not to the illegality of the drafting body, but to the draft itself, and serves as an index finger to mark certain points of friction between the two parties. Thus, in the second clause, the following change is made:

| ESSAY. | DICKINSON'S MS. |
|---|---|
| Nor can any Man be justly deprived or abridged of any Civil Right as a Citizen on account of his peculiar Mode of Religious Worship. | Nor can any Man *who acknowledges the Being of a God*, be justly deprived or abridged of any Civil Right as a Citizen on account of his *religious sentiments* or Mode of religious Worship. |

More curious still, in the light of his recent experience with majorities and minorities, is his change in the fifth clause:

| ESSAY. | DICKINSON'S MS. |
|---|---|
| That Government is or ought to be instituted for the common Benefit, Protection and Security of the People, Nation or Community, and that a Majority of the Community hath an indubitable, unalienable, and indefeasible Right to reform, alter or abolish it in such a Manner as shall be by that Majority judged most conducive to the Public Weal. | That Government is or ought to be instituted for the common Benefit, Protection and Security of the People, Nation or Community, and that the Community hath an indubitable, unalienable and indefeasible Right to reform, alter or abolish, Government in such a Manner as shall be by that *Community* judged most conducive to the Public Weal. |

There are several other amendments not so obvious in their import, besides many merely verbal changes. One more is of interest, however, as apparently intended to make the clause slightly more favorable to the Penn proprietors:

| ESSAY. | DICKINSON'S MS. |
|---|---|
| That all Men have a natural inherent Right of Emigration from one State to any other that will receive them, or for the Forming a new State in vacant or purchased Countries, whenever they find that thereby they may promote their own Happiness. | That all Men have a natural inherent Right to Emigrate from one State to any other that will receive them, or to Form a new State in vacant Countries or such Countries as they can purchase whenever they find that thereby they may promote their own Happiness. |

What makes the changes of real importance, however, is the fact that all these amendments were accepted by the Convention, and embodied in the Declaration of Rights as finally adopted, indicating that, directly or indirectly, Dickinson had a shaping hand in the work of the Convention.*

From this preliminary paper, it is interesting to turn to a copy of the Constitution as adopted, which is crowded with Dickinson's notes, to see how far the acceptance of his amendments had removed his dislike of the compact. After Clause III. he inserts:

"That all persons professing the Christian Religion [illegible] honestly scrupulous of taking an oath, ought not to be obliged by any Law to take an oath in order to be admitted into any offices, or to be examined as a witness in any cause or in any Court."

All who have studied the partisan and shameful abuse of test-laws in Pennsylvania will ap-

*Lest it should be concluded that Dickinson merely noted on this copy the changes made by the Convention in the draft, it should be stated that a number of the alterations on his copy were not made in the final instrument.

preciate the effect this clause would have had in defeating the "popular" party had it been adopted. That Dickinson was hardly prepared, however, to do without oaths is indicated by a further clause:

"That no other Oath, Affirmation, Test, or Qualification ought to be required on or in order to admission into any Office of Trust or profit, than an Oath of Allegiance to this State, an oath of Office, and a Declaration of a Belief in the Christian Religion exclusive of the articles disputed between the several sects thereof."

An even more important clause was one which he substitutes for the fourth:

| CONSTITUTION AS ADOPTED. | DICKINSON'S CHANGE. |
|---|---|
| That all power being originally inherent in and consequently derived from the people, therefore all officers of Government, whether legislative or executive, are their trustees and servants, and at all times accountable. | That all power being originally inherent in the people, therefore all officers of Government, whether legislative, executive or judicial are their trustees and servants, and at all times accountable to them; and whenever the ends of Government are perverted and manifestly endangered by any magistrate or a treacherous combination of several, or whenever a Government shall be found inadequate to the purposes for which it was framed, the People have a Right and ought to establish a new form or reform the old Government in such manner as shall by the Community be judged most conducive to the public Weal. |

That this hardly indicates a fixed determination to cling to the old charter is obvious.

Still further proofs exist, besides these two documents, to prove that Dickinson was willing to see a new Constitution for Pennsylvania framed. On July 18, or but three days after the Convention met, and long before it had begun constitution-making, a pamphlet entitled 'An Essay of a Frame of Government for Pennsylvania' was published in Philadelphia. It does not purport to be a complete instrument, but it outlines a new Constitution, and was clearly intended as a working basis for the Convention. Yet this pamphlet was written by John Dickinson, who "deserted his State in the hour of its most deadly peril rather than surrender an antiquated and undemocratic charter."

One more piece of evidence on his position exists in an almost unknown broadside, being "instructions" for the Representatives of Philadelphia, drafted by Dickinson, and adopted by a mass-meeting held just before the new Assembly met. As it was almost his last act in Pennsylvania politics, until recalled to assume the Governorship, five years later, it probably represents his final opinion:

"We require of you, therefore, to propose to the Assembly, as soon as it is convened, to make such alterations and amendment in the constitution formed by the late Convention as are necessary to render it a safe, rational and consistent frame of government, and we require your particular attention to the following instructions relative to that important business.

"You are to be careful to adopt such parts of the constitution formed by the late Convention as secure to the people annual elections, suitable division and rotation of offices, liberty of conscience, freedom of the press, and trial by juries.

"You are to use your endeavours to divide the supreme legislative power in such a manner as shall produce wise, just, and well digested counsels, and thus secure the State from the fatal influence of hasty, incorrect, passionate and prejudiced determinations."

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

## CARDUCCI AND HIS CRITICS.

BOLOGNA, June 16, 1893.

DURING the last fifteen years, no Italian writer has occupied the attention of the public, the pen of friendly and of hostile critics, as has and still does Giosuè Carducci; and even as I write he is engaged in a pitched battle with the sentimental opponents of war, who, alas! cry, Peace, peace! where there is no peace. Four separate poems were the fruits of the poet's hardly earned vacation in the Alps last summer—"La Bicocca," "Piedmont," "Cadore," "La Guerra." As a motto for this last poem, he took a sentence from the works of Carlo Cattaneo in which the natural history of war (not its apology) is given, and later quoted a letter of Alberto Mario, whose political writings Carducci is now editing with a preface, in which he will sum up and probably criticise the doctrines of the Federal Republicans. These quotations irritated the nerves of the peace-at-any-price school, and Napoleon Colajani (who, by the way, would be the first to shoulder his musket and climb to the summit of Castrogiovanni if the French from Biserta should invade the island sacred to the Vespers) attacked the poet with all the fierceness of the modern champions of peace. Fair play so far; but when he calls Carducci the "Poeta Cesarea," this striking below the belt is unworthy of the Sicilian patriot who has done and is doing so much for the purification of Italy morally and politically. I should not refer to this stupid accusation were it not repeated in Mr. Frank Sewall's excellent essay, "Giosuè Carducci and the Hellenic Reaction in Italy," prefixed to his recent American translation of the Poems.

"Without a formal coronation, Carducci occupies the position of poet-laureate of Italy," says Mr. Sewall. Quite other is Carducci's position. He refused to commemorate Cialdini because that general ordered "the fratricidal shot"

"Onde Aspromonte è infame";

and, on being asked by the democrat Ettore Ferrari, Italy's great sculptor, to write an ode or dedication for the album presented to Queen Margaret for the silver wedding, answered: "Why? When have I ever written to order?" and remained working hard as ever at Bologna throughout the senseless official jubilations. It is this independence that irritates the "Puritans" of all creeds and classes. The fine and exhaustive study of the political poetry of Giosuè Carducci by Prof. Domenico Zanichelli,* brother of the publishers of his works, sets in their true light the poet's opinions and aims, Italian to the core. Italian glory is his pride, Italian shame his cross. Hence, from 1860 to 1870, all his poems are revolutionary, but in none does he instigate his countrymen to upset monarchy and inaugurate a republic. Like Crispi, his one surviving Benjamin, he deems that "monarchy unites, a republic would separate us"; and Italian unity is the cornerstone of his creed. Hence his worship of Mazzini, "greatest after Dante." For his commemoration of the apostle of Italian unity at his death he was suspended by Messer Bonghi for eight months from his chair and stipend. Garibaldi has an entire volume of poems, which will live for ever.

From Aspromonte to Mentana, thence to the breach in Porta Pia, King, court, ministers, generals, quondam "revolutionists calmed down" are anathematized impartially by Carducci. When the servile municipality of Florence abolishes the commemoration of the heroes who fell at Curtatone and decrees funeral rites for the anniversary of the death of Charles Albert, the poet flagellates Tuscany entire. The sonnets during the Dante centenary seem inspired by the Ghibelline himself, especially the second, ending:

"Su, ribelli e spergiuri, a Roma, a Roma!"

During Mentana we have "Meminisse horret," the miserere in which Dante and Macchiavelli in Santa Croce tell harder truths to Italy than even they spoke in life. In "Heu pudor," after the tobacco jobbery, when loftiest personages and the vulgar herd were implicated, Vanni Fucci is held up as a model to the "puny, bastard pilferers of modern Italy." Still more scathing the satire when official Italy sat silent under Napoleon's insults to the King, and Rouher's *jamais* was left unchallenged. When Giovanni, the fourth of the Cairoli, dies of his wounds received at Villa Glori (Mentana), the poet vows to break his lyre on the gravestone of the dead. But all these poems, if revolutionary, are not republican: their alpha and omega is, "To Rome! to Rome!" When that goal was attained, when monarchy was compelled to choose between the "sacrilegious act" and abdication, when reluctantly the "devoted son of the Holy Father" ordered the breach in Porta Pia, when Rome was proclaimed capital of United Italy, the fiery invectives ceased, but no hymn of triumph heralded the entry into the Quirinal.

"*L'art pour l'art*" is not for our poet, neither revolution for revolution. There is a long pause; then we have the "Ripresa" in 1873, and at last in 1877 the "Odi Barbare," wherein no politics intrude. True, in 1879, after the attempt of Passanante on the King's life, which called forth indignant protests from Alberto Mario and the entire Republican party (the assassin's insanity being proved only later), we have the famous ode to the Queen, very tedious, very erudite, but quite other than "fulsome." Merely as a Queen, I doubt if a poem would have been dedicated to her; but Margaret is the daughter of the Duke of Genoa, the warrior prince who died in his prime. As such, she has two odes dedicated to her—just two too many is the utmost one can say. But neither is dictated by a courtier's pen, for flattery is an element unknown to Giosuè Carducci, as witness his discourse five years ago here in Bologna commemorating the eighth anniversary of the Bolognese University in presence of the King and Queen whose grandfather, father, and uncle had condemned to perpetual exile and to "ignominious death that great son of our fathers, Giuseppe Mazzini."

In his exposition of Carducci's crusade against "the lie enthroned in the Vatican," Mr. Sewall has excelled all Carducci's critics because he has seized the underlying thought and conviction that permeates the utterances of the poet; namely, that Christianity (or, as he puts it deftly, the *habit of Christianity*) imposed on the Italians has ever been antagonistic to the ancient national instinct, both religious and civil, and that the time has come to speak frankly, to act courageously—to say: "This surface life is false; these gorgeous processions and spectacles, these joyous festivals and picturesque rites, this sacrificial and vicarious theory of worship," are not religion, are not morality. Away with these mummeries and baubles; down with these airless, sunless tem-

* 'Studi Politici e Storici di Domenico Zanichelli: Le Poesie Politiche di Giosuè Carducci.' Bologna, 1893.

ples, these charnel-houses. Disperse this army of priests and friars, monks and nuns, sounding to heaven the cruel oppressor's praise, while God, and King, and Fatherland denying. Protestants, and American Puritans especially, will be less shocked at this treatment of Christianity so called "as a mere passing episode in the life of a nation," when they retrace the phases of Catholicism in Italy, where the Bible is still an unknown book, still forbidden (by the way, after Dante, it is the best-thumbed volume in Carducci's library).

The problems that troubled Dante are not those of his worshipper; neither, it seems to us, does any question of other worlds or immortality of the mortal individual torment him. Every now and then there comes a poetical allusion to a question or wonderment anent the "After."

"Superstito ai fati è Amor"

—Love outlives the fates—he exclaims, bidding the gods, "when justice and liberty shall possess the earth, to bring the glad tidings to his grave," when, in virtue of that love surviving death, he shall "hear their voices, and the ashes of the *vate* who on earth believed in and foretold the triumph of right and goodness will exult." Again, in "Innanzi," which should be read with the poem in which Carducci tells of his one only dead boy "Dante"; of his brother taken young; of his mother, idolized in life, never absent from his heart in death—of them "that thought, shipwrecked, again draws breath, and cries to heaven: O night, O winter, say, what are the dead doing down there in their graves?" It is the love lost, not the fear, that troubles him, and soon he says, in snow-deep winter: "Birds that homeless wander, peck at the darkened window, souls of the lost ones returning, they watch me and call me to them. Shortly, O dear ones, shortly! (Heart, tame thy restless rebelling!) Down to your silence, down to your peaceful shades, will I come."

Catholicism is dead, though its skeleton is kept above ground, as in the hideous stinking cemetery of the Capuchins in Palermo. "The rebellion that moved from the cloister," led by Savonarola, Luther, Calvin, "shattered the fetters that bound human thought," but the new religious faith has not yet dawned. This it is that creates "the aching void," tempers the enjoyment of sunshine, beauty, sensuous delights. The sun may "never set for the gods of Greece"; they may "still sleep in ancient woods, in flowers and mountain streams and the eternal seas," but they do not answer the lofty hope that cries, "O when shall labor be happy, and faithful love secure from harm? When shall a mighty nation of freemen say in the face of the sun, 'Shine no more on the idle ease and the selfish wars of tyrants, but on the pious justice of labor?'" The poems entitled "Carnival," most exquisitely rendered by Mr. Sewall, show how deeply this problem affects the poet. But in Carducci's prose and poetry not a shadow of sentimentalism, not a morbid line is found. His remedy lies in work and in research after truth. This is the age of destruction, of clearing away all the rubbish, dust, and débris of long centuries of superstition, ignorance, violence, and fraud.

"Or distruggiam. Dei Secoli
Lo strato è sul pensiero:
O pochi e forti, all' opera,
Che nei profundi è il vero."

In his translation Mr. Sewall is not as happy as usual:

"Now we destroy. Of the ages
The highway is built upon thinking:
O few and strong, to the work!
For truth's at the bottom."

The fundamental idea is: Let us destroy. The stratum (refuse) of ages weighs upon or has overcrusted thought: few but strong, to the task (of removing the ruins)! For truth lies beneath in the deepest depths (*profundi*).

I make no attempt to versify. Translation is an art that Americans possess in a most enviable degree; and if Mr. Sewall follow up his little book with other translations of poetry and prose, he will do good service to America, and to Italy also, in making known her "greatest" (*sommo*). If only another "few" worked as does Carducci, the excavations would go on speedily. Never does he miss a lesson at the University save when at Rome on educational business or to record his vote in the Senate. While his past works, which will fill twenty volumes, are going through the press, he is preparing new ones—just now a collection of 'Rime Antiche Italiane'—songs of all provinces before Dante's time, beginning with Pier delle Vigne and the Emperor Frederick. Hard as he works, he certainly is not "ashamed of human delights and human comforts, and refuses none of the paths that lead to these." First of all he has a delightful home, for wife "a perfect woman nobly planned"; then he adores his grandchildren. Bice (see Mr. Sewall's translation of "My Daughter's Marriage," xxxi.) was

"born when over my poor roof did pass
Hope like a homeless, wandering nightingale."

Elvira (the grandmother's name) and Giosuè, the eldest, are both studious, and when time passes without a sight of them Carducci will dash off to Leghorn and "bring them home"; but the studies go on, and Elvira has to give daily account of her progress in Latin, which does not prevent her being one of the healthiest and jolliest of young mortals. Then in the holiday, when lectures, Senate, printers' devils are left behind, the poet rushes to the Alps, and there revels in nature, setting himself no special task, working or not as the spirit moves him—and it never fails to move him. Will Mr. Sewall not translate last autumn's inspiration on "Cadore"? Not to Titian does Cadore owe her greatest glory, but to her braves who defied the German Army during the league of Cambray, thus saving Venice; and again to Pietro Calvi, who, in 1848, led the forlorn hope, lived conspiring and leading expeditions against the Austrians, till, the companion of Orsini in the dungeons of Mantua, he was shot to death at Belfiore, a republican hero and martyr.

This year, if the muse does not suggest some aerial flight, a soberer theme is to be "thought out" during the autumn holiday. Carducci is set on writing the history of the Italian Renaissance between 1789 and 1870—Italy's political, artistic, literary reawakening—to show how Italian thought has evolved and formed itself. This will be a most valuable contribution to the story of modern Italy, for, saving Foscolo's lectures on literature and the scattered monographs on revolutionary attempts, we have no key to the inner life which transformed the seven provinces of struggling slaves into the one independent and united Nation.

J. W. M.

# Correspondence.

## CONSULAR INVOICES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to offer a few considerations in confirmation of your recent article entitled "Our Consular System," touching that portion of our tariff regulations which requires that every importation of foreign goods beyond a nominal value must be accompanied by an invoice bearing the certificate of the consular officer nearest to the place where the goods were purchased. As you correctly observe, the consular certificate is useless, because to be of value it would need to be the consul's certification that the goods shipped were identical with those billed, and this he could determine only after an examination of the goods. Such an examination is impracticable for many reasons. Sometimes, indeed, the goods are bought in places where no consular agent is resident, and then the only feasible way is to send the invoices by post to the nearest consul, to be returned after the consular seal has been attached. But even if a consul should examine the goods at the time of sale and before they were packed, it would still be of little or no benefit, for he could not control the handling of them from that time until they were shipped, during which interval his certificate might be rendered invalid; and this seems to be understood at our custom-houses, for the American importer is himself required to take oath to the correctness of the invoices presented by him, and not unreasonably, because what is really desired is a bona-fide invoice for the goods actually delivered to the custom-house. But this would seem to render the previous consular certification a work of supererogation.

You did not exaggerate the trouble and vexation caused the foreign dealer by this regulation. The several copies required of the invoice must be made out upon special blanks furnished at the consulate, and they must therefore be sent for from time to time, and not too infrequently, because the forms are liable to be changed, and if an old one has been used, the three or four copies must be made over again. Information must also be secured as to the charges for packing and shipping, insurance, etc., before the invoice can be completed, and the forwarders must be communicated with in order to learn the name of the ship by which the proposed shipment is to be made, and the date of her sailing. This last requirement is often the cause of much embarrassment in the case of large shipments, because foreign dealers, with the very limited space at their command, as compared with American merchants, are necessarily anxious to get the goods out of the way, and their detention even for the time required to communicate with the shipping agents in Liverpool, for example, has sometimes been found so inconvenient as to result in the adoption of the expedient of sending the cases to a storage warehouse until the necessary information could be obtained, thus involving both trouble and expense. Finally, the foreign merchant must make a personal visit, or send a properly qualified clerk, to the consular office to swear to the invoice, and thus lose several hours, probably, of valuable time. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that complaint is general and persistent among business men abroad at these burdensome regulations.

In estimating the average cost of each set of invoices at $5, you were probably much below the actual expenditure. The direct consular fees of 10s. 6d. and 2s. 6d. amount to about $3.25 for each separate invoice; and when it is remembered that the numerous distinctions of our tariff law of necessity require these invoices to be made out with unusual and excessive detail, and take into account the cost involved because of the reasons set forth above, it is probable that the total for last year's invoices would be nearer

five million than two million dollars as stated. That the American purchaser must ultimately pay all of this tax I think incontrovertible. Why should the foreigner pay it any more than he now pays the cost of packing or shipping, or any other expense involved in the removal of the goods which a customer has purchased? He would be short-sighted if he did, and if he pretended to do so, he would certainly have every inducement to recoup himself. But I could point to one Eastern importer whose dealings abroad have occupied a period of more than a dozen years, and have extended beyond Great Britain to France and Germany, and, to some extent, to Belgium, Holland, and the Scandinavian countries, and whose experience has been that in not a single case has the foreign merchant failed to charge upon the bill for the goods purchased the full amount of the consular fees for the certified invoices. So unquestioned has been this practice, not only in England but also on the Continent, that it may be considered sure proof that it is generally adhered to, and I believe it will be found, consequently, that the 345,007 consular invoices of the last fiscal year cost the United States importers a direct tax of about one and one-quarter million dollars.

Reverting briefly to the question whether it is good policy to attempt to support our consuls by this indirect tax laid upon a special class of citizens in the shape of fees, it may be contended that it has the objection of being a very unequal method of payment, for whereas the fees collected in some consular districts are very great in total amount, in other places they are barely sufficient to make up a respectable salary. Moreover, the temptation is always before our consuls to degrade their office and become mere collectors of fees. The fact, furthermore, that these fees for certifying to invoices are the personal perquisites of our consuls is well known abroad and unfavorably commented upon; and this, together with the tampering with the sacredness of an oath, which is manifestly involved in every certification by a consul to the correctness of an invoice of whose integrity of contents he cannot by any possibility be assured, is serving to bring our consular offices into contempt.

A. L. D.

June 20, 1893.

## ENGLISH COÖPERATION IN THE PHILLIPS BROOKS HOUSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The meeting held yesterday at Westminster Abbey "to consider the advisability of an English contribution to the American Memorial to the late Right Reverend Phillips Brooks, D.D.," was called to order at five o'clock by the Dean of Westminster. The excessive heat had made the Jerusalem Chamber, where it was to have been held, almost uninhabitable, so that the Dean and Archdeacon Farrar transferred it to the College Hall, a larger room near at hand, where the Lower House of Convocation meets. This was fortunate in every respect, because the meeting was larger than could conveniently have bestowed itself in the Jerusalem Chamber. There were upwards of sixty in attendance.

These, however, represented only a fraction of those who supported the movement, and the first feature in the proceedings was the reading of an exceedingly interesting collection of letters favoring the movement, and coming from Oxford, Cambridge, Glasgow, and elsewhere. The Bishop of Ripon (Boyd-Carpenter) telegraphed at the last moment that he was detained and could not reach London until six, and regretted that he could not "in person express the homage which he desired to pay to the memory of one so greatly gifted and so single-hearted." In much the same vein were couched letters from the Bishops of London (Temple), Winchester (Thorold), Rochester (Davidson), the Dean of Winchester (Kitchin), and Lord Playfair, who was in charge of a bill in the House of Lords while the meeting was in progress. The Master of Trinity (Butler) desired "to pay honor to the really great name of Dr. Phillips Brooks." The Bishop of Durham (Westcott) wrote that no one ever impressed him more by genial vigor and generosity of spirit; and Dr. Fairbairn, Principal of Mansfield College, Oxford, spoke of Bishop Brooks as "a Bishop of the Church Catholic" whose services "made us all his debtors," and added: "However great he may have been as a preacher, he was still greater as a man, and his contribution in this respect to our modern ideal of religion was at once his noblest exposition and his apologetic for Christianity." Others belonging to Dr. Fairbairn's communion wrote in the same spirit from the Free Church College in Glasgow and the Glasgow Cathedral. These were Profs. A. B. Bruce and G. A. Smith and the Rev. G. S. Burns; the Rev. D. Macleod also wrote of his "great admiration for the noble American Bishop."

Recognition equally strong came from such laymen as Judge Thomas Hughes, the Earl of Meath, and J. M. Ludlow (a firm friend of Frederic Maurice), who was present at the meeting. Then such representative clergymen of the English Church as the Vicar of Kirkby Lonsdale (Llewellyn Davies) and the Rev. B. H. Alford of St. Luke's, Margaret Street, wrote very warmly, the latter saying: "There could not be a more appropriate place for the holding of such a meeting. I shall never forget one in the adjacent Chapter House, when America, in the person of Mr. Lowell, paid a tribute to the worth of Dean Stanley; now the admirers of the late Dean have the opportunity of doing the same by one of his best transatlantic friends." There were letters of similar purport from the Rev. Profs. Ryle, Kirkpatrick, and Mayor of Cambridge, the last of whom said that he had often read Phillips Brooks's sermons to the poor as well as to the cultivated, and he added: "They appeal to the better feelings of all."

The Bishop of Peterborough (Creighton) wrote with a very full knowledge of the special circumstances of Harvard University, and this gave a peculiar interest to his letter. After regretting that he should be out of England at the time of the meeting, he said:

"My slight knowledge of Boston gave me a very high opinion of the value of the work done by the late Bishop of Massachusetts, and my personal acquaintance with him filled me with respect for his character. My connection with Harvard College enables me to judge of the usefulness of the proposed memorial, and I shall be very glad to be associated with so excellent a scheme. Please announce me as warmly sympathizing with it."

Those who were present at the Harvard 250th anniversary in 1886 will not be surprised at these words, as they will remember the insight into the history and usefulness of Harvard College shown by the Bishop of Peterborough, who represented John Harvard's College of Emmanuel upon that occasion. A similarly sympathetic appreciation of Phillips Brooks and of Phillips Brooks House came from the Rev. Prof. Sanday, whose Bampton Lectures have just closed so impressively at Oxford. Prof. Sanday wrote:

"It was a memorable day to me when I heard Dr. Brooks preach in St. Mary's one of the most striking sermons that I have heard there. He seemed to me to combine in a degree which I have never known surpassed vigor and originality of thought with natural and unforced eloquence. I have upon my shelves several volumes which I feel sure will never lose their value for the English-speaking peoples. But these represented only a part, and not the most important part, of the activity of their author. He was without doubt one of the most prominent of the public men and Church leaders of his day. And if his fame has been in part overshadowed by that of others who were in no sense his superiors, it was, I believe, because he was cut off on the threshold of what promised to be his greatest usefulness. I cannot help expressing my pleasure that such a man should be commemorated in the way which is proposed. Harvard stands in the van of the movement with which Dr. Phillips Brooks was so closely identified for coöperation between men of different religious opinions, and the House founded in his memory will be its most appropriate centre. I greatly hope that the influence which radiates from thence may extend to the Old World as well as through the New."

During the reading of this last letter, Mr. Bryce came in, having snatched a few minutes from the debate in committee upon the Home-Rule Bill in order to testify in person to the great worth of Phillips Brooks. In a most eloquent speech, which has been much appreciated by the English public, Mr. Bryce substantially said:

"It is now 110 years since the greatest of her colonies, the great nation now called the United States of America, was politically lost to Great Britain, and for many years a feeling of resentment and animosity prevailed between the two branches of the same people. For two or three generations, the memories of the great struggle continued to exist and led to frequent friction. But at last the old ties of race and religion, literature, manners, and customs began to reassert their power, and it was realized that underlying the ostensible hostility there was a deep affection which no passing troubles could efface. Since then there had appeared at intervals men who had won respect and admiration on both sides of the Atlantic. Such men among Englishmen were Matthew Arnold and Dean Stanley, such a man on the other side of the Atlantic was Bishop Phillips Brooks."

The speech was constantly accompanied by marks of appreciation and applause from the audience. After this introduction Mr. Bryce moved: "That this meeting, recognizing in the movement for establishing Phillips Brooks House at Harvard University a result of the widespread influence, large sympathies, and active efforts of the late Bishop of Massachusetts, desires to send an English contribution in furtherance of that object." Speaking to the above resolution, Mr. Bryce gave a lucid account of the unsectarian attitude successfully taken up by Harvard, which finally took its present shape under the lead of Bishop Brooks. He referred to the frequent participation of America in tributes to great Englishmen, and urged that it was only fitting that Englishmen should join with those in America who were seeking to commemorate the most generous and enduring qualities of a great American. Having said this, the speaker sat down, and was shortly claimed by his duties in the House of Commons.

Meanwhile the Rev. Prof. Cheyne, who had come from Oxford to be present at the meeting, rose to second the resolution. He felt the greater pleasure in doing so because he could represent not his own feelings only, but also those of the late Prof. Hatch, at whose house he had met Dr. Brooks. He spoke much in the vein in which Prof. Sanday had written of the desirability of a similar

coöperation of divergent Christian sects in England. American leaders could dare more than was possible for Englishmen in such matters. He spoke of the great hopefulness shown by Dr. Brooks, and paid the highest tribute to the eloquence of the sermon at St. Mary's referred to in Prof. Sanday's letter. Mr. J. G. Fitch of the Education Office also supported the motion, speaking of his great personal debt to the friendship of Dr. Brooks, who was the greatest spiritual force he had ever encountered. Archdeacon Farrar, who originally suggested the meeting and signed the call for it, then said, in supporting the resolution, that he never had known any man who struck him more than Bishop Brooks as a beautiful exemplification of Christian character, or who had a larger measure of hopefulness with reference to the destinies of the individual and of the nation. He was sure that a contribution from Englishmen towards a memorial of one whom the Americans so greatly loved would be another of those links which were tending more and more to bind them with their kith and kin beyond the sea. He spoke of the widespread grief upon the death of Phillips Brooks, comparing it with the national sense of loss upon the assassination of President Lincoln, and recalled with pleasure the generous contribution of Americans towards memorials in the Abbey and in St. Margaret's, Westminster.

In putting the resolution, which was unanimously carried, the Dean of Westminster confirmed the testimony last given by Archdeacon Farrar. He could not help thinking there was something very appropriate in that meeting, held as it was in a chamber built five centuries ago, long before the discovery of that land in which the late Bishop lived and labored. Americans had a special link of home association attaching to what still remained of the Old England which their expatriated ancestors left for the New World. Almost the last occasion on which they saw and heard the late Phillips Brooks at Westminster was when, a few months since, he spent an evening with the voluntary choir, and delivered one of his characteristic addresses. In publishing at the end of the meeting the lists of the American, the English, and the London Committees, with a subscription paper appended, the present writer took occasion to mention that the voluntary choir of Westminster Abbey had met a few days before and contributed £5, through their precentor, to the fund for establishing Phillips Brooks House. Contributions were announced from many sources, and a list of the London Committee of Sympathizers.

Yours very truly, LOUIS DYER.

LONDON, June 17, 1893.

## THE SUNDAY LAW OF THE CHEROKEES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the general hubbub about the Chicago Sunday opening of the Exposition, it may interest your enlightened white readers to know how their civilized red neighbors have legislated concerning this much-controverted subject of Sabbath observance.

While recently examining the laws of the Cherokee Nation in a case which came before me for judicial determination, I happened to find the appended statute. Whether it was copied from some other Sunday law which has escaped my notice, I do not know; but if it is original with the Cherokees, as I believe it to be, I have no hesitation in saying that they have framed the most philosophical Sunday law that has yet been enacted. Observe its wonderful clearness, simplicity, and statesmanlike discrimination. Note how it refrains from prescribing a form or manner of observance, and from dictating to or interfering with the individual conscience; how it philosophically recognizes the fact that rest as well as work is a necessity, a condition to the well-being of mankind, and sets apart one-seventh portion of time for the general repose of society; how it also recognizes the constitutional authority of the Government as being limited to securing for the body politic merely abstention from labor; how it makes that period simply conform with the day of most general religious observance; how it excepts "works of necessity and charity," and how it is content with securing for all classes of persons "*a day of rest within the limits of the Cherokee Nation.*"

A sceptical friend suggests that this statute was "probably drawn by some missionary." Perhaps it was; but if so, I wish that Congress and our State Legislatures would employ that missionary at any cost to draw our laws for us in unmistakable terms and intelligible language.—Respectfully, etc., etc.,

CHARLES C. NOTT.

"The seventh portion of time, beginning and ending with Sunday, the first day of the week, shall be a day of rest within the limits of the Cherokee Nation; and every merchant, mechanic, artisan, or other person, who shall keep open his store, warehouse, shop, workhouse, or other place of business, or shall engage on Sunday in any manner of work, labor, or business, except only works of necessity and charity, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, upon conviction thereof before any court of competent jurisdiction, be fined in any sum not exceeding fifty dollars, for each and every such offence, at the discretion of the court." (Revised Laws of the Cherokee Nation, 1874, p. 145, §74.)

## PREPARATION FOR COLLEGE IN THE CLASSICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If the writer of the note on Mr. Moore's translation of the 'De Oratore' meant only school-teachers by the word "pedagogue," he may have been convinced by Mr. Sherman's admirable comments in your last issue, and by his conclusion that higher powers are chiefly to blame for the extreme limitation in the number of classical authors read in our schools. Yet if he is an Eastern man, he should know that at Harvard the requirements, both in Greek and in Latin, are almost exactly what Mr. Sherman desires. In elementary Greek and Latin the candidate must be able to translate at sight simple prose and to answer questions on the usual forms and constructions of the language. In advanced Greek and Latin it is true that the authors are limited to Homer, Herodotus, Virgil, and Cicero, but here again the requirement is translation *at sight*, and the field of selection within these authors is not limited to certain books. But perhaps your reviewer, knowing all this, knew also that, even in many schools which prepare boys primarily for Harvard, the instruction in classics is confined to the "traditional books," and that the number of schools in which there is reading outside of these authors may be counted on the fingers of one hand. For such limitation there seems to be no reason save in the choice of the school-teachers. In New York State, however, from which Mr. Sherman writes, the teachers certainly have their defence in the facts that, for the Regents' examinations, there is practically no requirement in Greek or Latin at sight, and that the passages set are always taken from a very limited number of specified authors.—Yours sincerely, MERCURY.

## A SLIP OF PROF. McMASTER'S.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Baedeker's 'United States,' just published, is an important work, for among American guide-books it is almost the first written wholly in the interest of the tourist. The historical sketch of the country, which is usual in books of this series, was intrusted to Mr. J. B. McMaster of the University of Pennsylvania, who makes this astounding statement on p. xliii: "McClellan began his Peninsular campaign against Richmond, was out-generalled by Lee, and, in the second battle of Bull Run, suffered so crushing a defeat that Lee ventured to cross the Potomac." The gross injustice of imposing upon McClellan responsibility for Pope's defeat (McClellan not having been allowed to take part in the battle) should be pointed out; especially as the book is for the use of foreigners who may derive from it all their knowledge of American history.

G. H. F.

PHILADELPHIA, June 27, 1893.

## COLOR-SENSE IN WOMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "X." inquires how the comparative freedom of women from color-blindness can be reconciled with the supposed inferiority of the sex. The satirist might reply that any superiority of color-sense in women is amply accounted for by her greater interest in ribbons and gowns; by way of reconcilement he might add that masculine proclivities are indicated by the finer sense of taste which man possesses. It is, however, to the psychologist that "X." appeals, and his answer may prove scarcely more satisfactory to her. Throughout the animal series the male varies more than the female, and this bears on the subject in two ways: in the first place the male is more brightly colored, which would carry with it a greater interest in color in the female—the peahen doubtless appreciates color better than the peacock; in the second place, the greater variability of the male holds, of course, for mental traits. Women are seldom color-blind and are never great painters. C.

GARRISON, N. Y., June 27, 1893.

## WHY NOT "TYPESCRIPT"?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While writing to a publisher yesterday, to advise him concerning a typewritten document which I had expressed to him, I half apolcgetically used the word "typescript." On second thought I feel almost sorry for that half apology; might we not couple "typescript" with "typewriting," on the familiar model of "manuscript" and "handwriting" (nay, more, adopt TS. as a counterpart of MS.)?

We lack some such word. A wholly Greek compound would doubtless be preferable; but all the possibilities of τύπος+γράφειν are already "pre-occupied" (as Dr. Murray would say); and, as to that, we have far worse hybrids in current use. A. ESTOCLET.

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

# Notes.

A NEW 'Life of Sam Houston,' by Alfred M. Williams, editor of the Providence *Journal*, is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. William Winter will publish, through Macmillan & Co., his 'Life and Art of Edwin Booth,' which will not form part of the series known as "Shadows of the Stage."

Lady Burton's Life of her husband, the late Sir Richard Burton, will shortly be issued by D. Appleton & Co., with illustrations and maps.

Ginn & Co. announce for the present month 'The Psychic Factors of Civilization,' by Lester F. Ward.

A bequest of Darwin's in aid of the compilation of an index to the names and authorities of all known flowering plants and their countries has now borne fruit. Sir Joseph Hooker assumed the direction of such a work, "of supreme importance to students of systematic and geographical botany, and to horticulturists," which has been executed by B. D. Jackson under the title, 'Index Kewensis.' Part i., a quarto of 728 pages, is just leaving the Clarendon Press. Part ii. is well advanced, and the fourth and final part may be expected in the course of next year. It is issued to subscribers at eight guineas (two guineas the part), through Henry Frowde, Amen Corner, London, E. C.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have issued a popular edition, in good style, of Irving's condensation of his 'Life and Voyages of Christopher Columbus,' and have illustrated it with a great diversity of facsimiles of ancient prints and portraits and in other ways.

We have received Part i. of 'The Book of the Fair,' by Hubert Howe Bancroft, published in Chicago and San Francisco by the Bancroft Co. It forms a small folio of 40 pages, and the text begins with a survey of previous world's fairs, followed by a summary of the wonderful growth of Chicago. A good many irrelevant illustrations are mingled with those we might properly look for, and Mr. Bancroft's grandiloquence is freely expended in handsome typography. We cannot yet speak of the real value of this ambitious undertaking.

The title of the centre-table volume 'Gems of Colorado Scenery' (Denver: Frank S. Thayer) is no misnomer. The views are mostly picturesque, but some relate to manners and customs, industries, triumphs of engineering—like the Pike's Peak Railway or the Union Pacific "Loop" near Georgetown—the aborigines and their cliff dwellings, cowboys, coyotes, etc. The plates are good specimens of process-relief printing in varied tints. Their general attractiveness is not enhanced, to our eye, by encroachments on the margin with clever vignettes, one of which is decidedly repellent, as it shows a "road agent" "holding up" a coach.

It speaks ill for the conductors of the *Religious Herald* of Hartford, Conn., that, in presenting to their subscribers a "souvenir of fifty years' publication of the paper," they did not intimate that the gift was no novelty. In fact, their 'Picturesque Chicago and Guide to the World's Fair' is but the Baltimore publication we dispraised last week, with some differences in the illustrations. The grotesque error we pointed out, which derived the design of the ornate palace known as the New York State Building from the Van Rensselaer mansion, is retained, and emphasized by a picture of the State Building as it really is.

One can but be struck with the literary graces and the entire candor of 'Where to Go Abroad,' a guide to the watering-places and health-resorts of Europe, the Mediterranean, even of India and Bermuda (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan). The editor is A. R. Hope Moncrieff, and his assistants have been men of acknowledged cultivation and experience. The book seems one of the best of its kind. The Balearic Isles, which our correspondent at Palma is revealing in their exceptional loveliness, claim here but ten lines, and are evidently but little more frequented by tourists and invalids than at the time of George Sand's visit with Chopin.

Mr. Moncrieff has purposely avoided such recommendation of springs and waters as belongs to the physician. This task has been essayed by Dr. Thomas Linn in 'The Health Resorts of Europe,' a medical guide to mineral springs, climatic, mountain and seaside health resorts, milk, whey, grape, earth, mud, sand, and air cures (Appletons). Dr. T. M. Coan, who furnishes an introduction, speaks highly of Dr. Linn's competency, and we may well trust his assurance in view of his own extensive studies in the same line, especially in France, of which our columns have borne witness.

In the sense that all roads lead to Rome, all streets in Rome lead to the Pincio. It is the one spot in the Eternal City to which the thoughts of the average traveller will perhaps oftenest return—whether as in its winter garb, with the leaves off the plane trees and the white frost lying below on the Borghese gardens and afar on Monte Mario and the Janiculum, or as in summer, the band playing amid crowds from all nations, the sun setting over St. Peter's. One drawback which has hitherto been felt by some need no longer continue—a sense of painful ignorance regarding the lives and actions of so many of the men whose busts range along the terraces and are nestled among the palms and ilexes. An admirable little handbook has reached us published by Bertero, Rome, from the pen of Signor Giacomo Cortesi, 'The Silent Company of the Pincio.' It gives us the biography of the 169 great men of Italy whose busts are in the Pincian gardens. Moreover, apart from the locality, it is an easy introductory handbook to Italian history, ancient and modern. The "great and most disinterested help" of two Irish residents in Rome, Miss Tolerton and Miss Creeth, is acknowledged by the author.

A few months ago we called attention to the discontinuing of *L'Alighieri*, the Italian monthly periodical devoted to the study of Dante, and to the foundation of the new *Rivista Critica e Bibliografica della Letteratura Dantesca*, a somewhat uninviting leaflet. The latter has now suspended publication, and the publisher of the former (Olschki, Venice) announces a new periodical, the *Giornale Dantesco*, under the direction of Count Passerini, previously the editor of the *Rivista*. The new journal, which is published each month, has been promised the able assistance of Carducci, Scartazzini, and other well-known writers. The subscription price for countries outside of Italy is 22 lire.

New, also, and probably of much more value, is the *Rassegna Bibliografica della Letteratura Italiana*, published at Pisa under the thoroughly competent editorship of Prof. D'Ancona. The four numbers already received—136 large octavo pages, beautifully printed—represent the highest grade of Italian scholarship, and it is evident that if the venture becomes a permanent financial success, few students of Italian can afford to be without the compactly written summaries it furnishes of recent works dealing with Italian literature of all periods. The price of subscription is 7 lire for countries outside of Italy.

The Director-General of Italian Statistics gives notice of a forthcoming volume on the history and present condition of each Italian library.

We have received from the compiler, Mr. Aksel G. S. Josephson, Upsala, the first three parts of 'Avhandlingar ock Program, etc.'—a list of dissertations and programmes published at Swedish and Finnish colleges and universities in the years 1855–1890. The arrangement is by authors, and the break is in the midst of the letter M. Mr. Josephson has also put forth a little essay towards a bibliography of Swedish dramaturgical literature.

Dr. Max von Wolff's 'Lorenzo Valla, sein Leben und seine Werke' (Berlin: Seemann) is a typical specimen of German foresight and industry. The writings of the Italian humanists of the fifteenth century are rare, and biographical and critical literature concerning them certainly not rich. In regard to Valla, the father of modern criticism in so far as the Renaissance made modern criticism, this has been so especially the case that one reads with eagerness even an uninspired *brochure* like this, which gives nothing more than a summary of Valla's chief works and a brief account of his life. Ambitious Dr. Wolff's essay is in attempting to fill a gap by sheer force of industry; it fails, as so much German work does, through its lack of appreciation of the really vital qualities of literature. Of what use are new biographies and new commentaries unless they enter fully into the life of the period they treat, and present it to us vividly as an organic whole, seen from a single point of view?

An anonymous writer in the *Nuova Antologia* for June 1, a man, begins a series of articles on the World's Fair with a very sympathetic account of the Women's Building ("Il palazzo delle donne a Chicago"). Noticeable in the history of it is his omission to speak of its humble forerunner, the Women's Building at Philadelphia in 1876; and noticeable in the moral he draws is his dread of what may come of woman's asserting a perfect independence of man. This writer would deny her nothing in respect of the higher education, and would allow the freest scope to genius; but his fears are for the average woman and the average home. It would perhaps surprise him to learn that there are some Americans who hope there will never be another Women's Building, and who ground their belief that there will not be on the rapid effacement of sex distinctions along lines educational, industrial, and political in every State of the Union, and the growing perception that everything which pertains to mankind has an equal interest, with equal duties and responsibilities, for women and for men.

The Aspinwall family cuts a large figure in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for July, having a whole article to itself, besides appearing among the English wills in Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings." Here, too, we find the will of the father of George Burrough, a victim of the Salem witchcraft, that of James Goffe, brother of the regicide, and many still more important to pedigree-hunters—Breedon, Sedgwick, Coggeshall, Fouldger, Frothingham, Willoughby, Maverick, Scudder, Lippincott, De Peister, etc.

One can but welcome the revival of interest in historic studies which has led to the founding of the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, a quarterly organ of the Vir-

ginia Historical Society at Richmond. This Society has just acquired new quarters and can boast a membership of 700 members. Being in the possession of many valuable MSS., and anticipating the gift of many more, it begins in the *Magazine* to publish this historical material and such other as may be found in libraries or in private hands. The Society reaches out still further in its designs, and will strive to transcribe and publish all the records in the British State Paper Office relating to the colonial history of Virginia. The first number of the *Magazine* is richly filled with the diary of Capt. John Davis of the Pennsylvania Line (May 26, 1781, to January 11, 1782), under Wayne; a first instalment of the letters of Col. William Fitzhugh, from May 15, 1679, in the library of Harvard College; proclamations of Nathaniel Bacon in 1676; a speech of Sir Wm. Berkeley, 1651; a list of Virginians in the Revolutionary navy; and the first of a series of abstracts of Virginia land patents in the office of the Register of the Land Office at Richmond, made and annotated biographically by Prof. W. G. Stanard. A sharp review of the late Douglas Campbell's 'Puritans in Holland' completes the number.

The development of the fine arts in the United States is the theme, treated pertinently to the Columbian Exposition, by Robert Koehler in *Die Kunst für Alle* of May 1 and 15 and June 1, 1893. There is an abundance of portraits and pictorial examples.

*Sun and Shade* for May has its usual quota and variety of photogravure plates, of which the clear portrait of the caravel *Santa Maria* at anchor in the North River is perhaps the most worthy of mention. The *Blake* is shown at full length in conjunction with her, but not in the same view.

It has just been decided in Convocation at Oxford that the University shall bear the cost of the repairs referred to in our issue of March 2 as already in process on the spire of St. Mary's Church. At the same time the choice of a design was committed to a delegacy of nine. This, it may be hoped, means the triumph of Prof. Case in his single-handed fight against the possible defacement which, in the name of restoration, has threatened the graceful beauty of the church, whose aisles still seem to the foreign visitor to be full of the spell of Newman's eloquent periods and of Matthew Arnold's no less exquisite allusion to his early preaching there. The champion of the preservation of the University church's purity of design has presented his case in a pamphlet of demy-quarto size, which will be of permanent value to lovers of the English Gothic. It is abundantly illustrated by reproductions from ancient maps and drawings, and contains, besides the history of the steeple and its pinnacles, gathered from all available documentary evidence, a discussion of the subject of Decorated Gothic in the light of a comparison with the cathedrals of Salisbury, Lichfield, and Peterborough. The pamphlet is poetically entitled 'St. Mary's Clusters,' and is published by Parker, familiarly known by his useful series of books on Gothic architecture.

— One opens the monthly magazines for July with the natural expectation of finding more or less in them about Chicago and the World's Fair. In none is this expectation disappointed. In *Scribner's*, Mr. Gibson's "Foreground and Vista at the Fair" is the first of a "group" of artists' impressions—a semi-serial which begins just as that on the poor in great cities ends, and helps to swell the serial matter to one-half the prose contents of the number. Mr. Gibson confines his impressions strictly to the artificially natural elements of beauty in the White City, which he represents in somewhat startling language "as a realization supplanting or exalting the ideal, which has hitherto not always been to the credit of heaven, . . . of the 'Heavenly City,' the 'New Jerusalem,' with gates of gold and pearl, which in one questionable shape or another hovers in the hopeful, faithful fancy of so many of the sons of Adam." Less climax-capping in its effect is Mr. Upton's account of the "Musical Societies of the United States and their Representation at the World's Fair," which, after all, has little to do with the subject indicated by the second part of its title. The most interesting article in a number that follows close on the exciting athletic contests which now appropriately mark the close of the college year, is that in which Robert Grant sketches, in the "Impressions of a Philosopher," the topsy-turvy and athletics-mad college world in which a middle-aged graduate, with an odd mixture of pride and shame, finds his son a notorious person.

—The anticipated Western note is also not absent from *Harper's*, in which Julian Ralph apologizes for an important omission in an earlier paper on Chicago. It seems that Chicago had impressed him as being a concentrate of all the "hustling" spirit of the West, an amalgam of all the sterling qualities of life and business except those into which entered the foreign element of leisure. His first conception, however, erred in taking account only of the male element, whereas it is "Chicago's Gentler Side" that alleviates the inordinate haste of the men from "a well-spring of repose." The frivolously fashionable set of Chicago is a minimum, it appears, and it is the rich and stylish set that not only lead reforms without number, but interest themselves deeply in books and art, and are personally entertaining and unconventional companions. Whether Chicago women, as a whole, are really different from those of New York or Berlin, we have, however, yet to learn. Much more distinct in portraiture and vivid in human interest is Mr. R. H. Davis's account of three English race meetings—the rowdy Derby, for costermongers and Americans; genteel Ascot, primarily for the elect; and less straight-laced Henley, for the whole boating community.

—The article on "Color in the Court of Honor at the Fair," which holds the first place in the *Century* for July, is like others of the class we have mentioned in that it deliberately excludes the deeper human interests which the Fair must necessarily excite. The author does not quite go to Mr. Gibson's extreme, presenting his subject to us as a mere earthly pageant, "in which the elements of beauty are not only infinite in number, but, as a rule, national in character." The main note of the magazine, at least so far as the non-fictitious articles go, is that of protest against Mr. Boutkine's defence some months ago of the treatment by Russia of her Jewish subjects. Mr. Joseph Jacobs, Secretary of the Russo-Jewish Committee in London, and well known there and here as a critic and the author of 'Studies in Jewish Statistics,' opens the attack in a manly fashion, giving chapter and verse for the facts on which he bases his refutation. A single point he brings forward is novel enough, and sufficiently illustrative of the new element which the science of statistics is bringing into almost all kinds of discussion, to be worth referring to here. The statistics he has collected show that "if Russia had been as tolerant to her Jewish subjects as the rest of Europe, she might have had some two hundred Jewish celebrities during the past two centuries, including three or four of the calibre of Heinrich Heine or Lord Beaconsfield." Mr. Kennan follows with a renewed demonstration of the fact that what may be very good for the Czar and the Russian Government may be very bad for the Russian people at large. Other interesting articles are not lacking. Miss Preston analyzes Thomas Hardy's art and its culmination in 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles,' regretting the presence of so marked a *Tendenz*, and condemning him for wantonly spoiling a great interpretation of woman's character by a ghastly and insufficient conclusion. Salvini contributes a new portion of his Autobiography, covering the years 1861–68; the most interesting incidents concern Victor Emanuel. Mr. Aldrich writes pleasantly on bits of Portsmouth history and legend, Mr. Gosse on Sarah Siddons, whose portrait by Gainsborough forms the frontispiece to the number, and Mrs. Oliphant on Jonathan Swift.

—The fifty thousand dollars just given to the Boston Public Library by William C. Todd forms a unique and admirable endowment. By the terms of the gift the interest of the fund is to be all annually expended for *newspapers*, to be kept in a suitable apartment in the new building, where all, citizens and strangers, can "enter freely and read." This new departure is by no means new to Mr. Todd. He began an experiment in this direction a dozen years ago in Newburyport, Mass., where he had been wont to spend much of his time, though his legal residence was Atkinson, N. H. At first he gave $300 a year to furnish newspapers in a room provided by the city. After watching for years the success of his venture, he became satisfied that he was doing good to a far greater number than by aiding libraries where he saw books with their leaves uncut for generations. So he made his Newburyport bounty a perpetuity by a fund of ten thousand dollars. Mr. Todd's munificence is unconditional, save that "in the selection of newspapers no distinction shall be made in favor of any religious sect or political party." We wish he had insisted on two distinctions—in favor of two classes of papers, namely, those printed in the most readable type and those which show the toughest paper. For want of the first condition some readers will spoil their eyes. Mr. Todd has suffered so much as to his own eyesight that it is strange he did not think of this danger. Still worse than illegible types is perishable paper. Fragility of material makes the daily issues of the press more and more like the morning cloud and early dew—"the perfume and suppliance of a minute." So crying had this evil become, that the Massachusetts Historical Society long ago proposed to require copies of such newspapers as they received to be printed on perdurable paper. It was the pride of that Society to possess 453 volumes of eighteenth-century journals. They feared that their surviving relics of the present century would be still fewer, as so many of them turn to dust themselves when one shakes the dust off them. Mr. Todd's gift adds something of credibility to Bacon's dictum: "Certainly the best works, and of greatest merit for the public, have proceeded from the unmarried or childless men; which both in affection and means have married and endowed the public."

—In the University Church of St. Mary's was given on June 4 the last of Prof. Sanday's Bampton Lectures on the "Early History and Origin of the Doctrine of Biblical Inspi-

ration." In February last the lecturer opened by sketching the view taken of the New Testament by the early Church. Then followed four lectures upon the Old and two upon the New Testament. The last lecture was devoted to a retrospect, and to a presentation of such results as may be derived from a comparison of the traditional and inductive theories of inspiration. By the inductive theory, the critical view was of course designated—the one which takes its point of departure from the consideration of the individual attitudes or states of consciousness of the various writers concerned. The inspiration implied by the critical theory was, Prof. Sanday contended, quite as real and quite as fundamental as that involved in the traditional view. Moreover, it is possible to trace the links by which the generally accepted ideas of fifty years ago have passed into the modern and strictly scientific shape given to the doctrine of inspiration that is prevailing to-day. In this the measure of inspiration is not solely the consciousness of the persons inspired. We must add proofs of a higher Providence at work in the Bible which led to the committal of prophetic utterances to writing, and made occasional letters of Apostles a basis for Christian theology. Among these proofs also is the course of Messianic prophecy, and "that ordering of things by which certain books or parts of books are capable of application by analogy in senses which did not originally belong to them." There are passages in the Gospels showing supreme insight into the principles of revelation. In other passages the current view is allowed to pass unchallenged. Apart from any deeper and more strictly theological explanation of these last, it may be maintained that there is in revelation a law of parsimony by which what is suited to the capacity of any given age is alone revealed to it. "I have yet many things to say unto you, but ye cannot bear them now." This was the lecturer's text, and he reënforced it at this point by urging that we must expect to find some analogy between the method of God and of Christ in revelation and in the ordinary government of the world. Here he expressed a hope that Bishop Butler's argument from Analogy might continue to be the basis of English theology. Some insisted that it is a worthless argument and can prove nothing; the lecturer preferred to say that it was not an ambitious argument, and as such he valued it for the humility of mind which it implied. It would never commend itself to either sect of those who demanded "all or nothing." Those who insisted upon having all were in the position of driving a straight furrow from one end of creation to the other, heedless of what delicate growths and interlacing plants were buried and bruised under their ploughshare.

—In a discussion of certain papers recently read at a meeting of the Japan Society in London Mr. Okoshi declared that at present in Japan a wife may believe any religion she pleases, though before the abolition of the feudal system she was bound to adopt the religion of her husband. In former times a Japanese woman's property consisted only of what we should call her paraphernalia—that is, her hair-ornaments and mirrors. Now she may hold real property and solely dispose of it. She may own in her own name stocks and all kinds of securities, and, if she is left a widow, she may manage even her husband's property until one of her sons attains his majority. Mr. Okoshi further states that many Government appointments are now open to women. A paper read last April by Mr. D. Goh, on "The Family Relations in Japan," had contained the statement that there was no check to divorce except the family council. But Mr. Okoshi, replying to this, declared that, as the law now stands, if one of the parties considered the ground of the divorce unfair, he or she could appeal to the courts, which would grant the divorce only on justifiable grounds. An interesting conjecture is what influence will Japan's example have upon China. Prof. R. K. Douglas, in a lecture on "Modern Society in China," quoted in the *London and China Telegraph* of May 15, says that at present no trace of the dawn of a better day appears on the horizon of China. Woman is still regarded there as a chattel which in times of adversity may be disposed of by sale in the markets.

—Among the few linguists who have devoted special attention to the principal language of Northwestern and Central India, the Hindî, we regret to notice the death, on the 18th of May, of one of the most eminent, Mr. Frederic S. Growse of the Indian Civil Service. Mr. Growse, originally of Bildestone, Suffolk, was educated at Oxford, where he gained a scholarship in 1856. His Indian career extended from 1861 till about two years ago, when he retired, to end his days at Haslemere, in Surrey. In 1880 appeared his 'Mathura: A District Memoir,' which was followed, in 1884, by his 'Bulandshahr; or, Sketches of an Indian District, Social, Historical, and Architectural.' Both of these monographs approximate closely to ideal models of their kind. While they evince a mastery of their subjects, their tone, with respect to the natives of India, bespeaks a philanthropist—a characteristic somewhat infrequent in the writings of Englishmen when treating of their Oriental fellow-subjects. But more especially noticeable, especially to those who chiefly value literature, is Mr. Growse's English version of the 'Râmâyana' of Tulsîdâs, published in 1883. Throughout a very considerable part of India no work rivals this poem, an epic, in popular esteem. Though it dates only little more than three centuries back, what with its dialectal peculiarities, its archaisms, and its poetic licenses, it is admired mainly on pious trust by all except learned Hindus. Much on a level with such Hindus, however, was Mr. Growse, as regarded ability to solve its riddles. Nothing previously translated from the Hindî is to be compared with it in importance; and merely to say that Mr. Growse, in teaching Tulsîdâs to speak English, entitled himself to credit for skill and fidelity of a high order, is to acknowledge his merits but inadequately.

## ROBERT LOWE, LORD SHERBROOKE.

*Life and Letters of the Right Honourable Robert Lowe*, Viscount Sherbrooke, G.C.B., D.C.L., etc., with a Memoir of Sir John Coape Sherbrooke, G.C.B., sometime Governor-General of Canada. By A. Patchett Martin. In two volumes. With portraits. Longmans, Green & Co. Pp. xvi, 411; and x, 612.

"In an age in which even the wisest and the noblest apparently deemed it their duty to burn incense on the altar of Democracy, Robert Lowe held fast to the old gods, the old creed, the old ritual. He was an aristocrat to the core—in no class signification, but in the solid and substantial sense that he believed in government by the best, and utterly disbelieved in the sagacity or superior wisdom of the crowd."

Such were the words of a London journal in an obituary of Robert Lowe, as we must still call him, for, as Macaulay says posterity has refused to call Bacon Lord Verulam, so the contemporaries of Robert Lowe will always refuse to call him Lord Sherbrooke. The obituary hits the mark. The interest of Lowe's character and career lies in this, that, being a thorough Liberal, he was a resolute opponent of democracy. A thorough Liberal he was in the old sense of the term. He heartily loved liberty and light. He paid unstinted homage to free government. He cared nothing for orthodox opinions or established systems. He clung to nothing merely because it was old. He was not only no friend to abuses, but a vehement reformer in every field on which he acted—administrative, economical, or educational—a reformer so vehement that he incurred the hatred of Conservatives, and was by them branded as a dangerous radical. An aristocrat of intellect he was, as the obituary says, and perhaps in an excessive degree; but for the aristocracy of birth he felt no respect, and if he accepted a peerage, it was with reluctance, and, as he had no children, simply as a life seat in Parliament. Yet he opposed to the death that which he took to be the principle of democracy, that every creature in human form has a natural right, and, irrespective of any qualification, a claim, to the exercise of political power. He denied that ignorance and incompetence a million times multiplied make wisdom. He contended that, in the distribution of the suffrage, the thing to be considered was not the gratification of the claimant, but the effect on the character of the governing assembly. These positions, then fast becoming obsolete, he maintained with extraordinary force of logic, fervor of eloquence, and pungency of sarcasm. That he was defeated, and that the triumphal car of democracy rolled over him, does not deprive his figure of historic interest or make us the less beholden to Mr. Patchett Martin for the industry and fairness which he has shown in the composition of this biography, whose only defect is its bulk, which may lead to a demand for a reduced version. Lowe's character has been so much misunderstood that his biographer felt it necessary in doing him justice to go into the fullest detail.

Lowe came into the world weighted with a disadvantage which only the strongest heart and brain could have overcome. He was a perfect albino. The total absence of coloring matter in his eyes made vision most painful to him. In addition to this, he had to contend with a malformation of the eye; one eye, in fact, was altogether unavailable. Albinism was in one respect a greater drawback to Lowe than blindness was to Fawcett. Fawcett's blindness excited pity, and to it he really owed his first election to Parliament; whereas Lowe's albinism rather excited ridicule and made him a butt at school. The shrinking of the eye from light gave a look of weakness to a head and face which were so far from being really weak that they were likened by an affectionate pupil to those of a Greek god. A fragment of autobiography, which every one who reads it will wish had been continued, describes the boy's struggles at Winchester, a school the authorities of which evidently walked in the ancient paths, treating the boys after the fashion of the monkish Middle Ages, mewing them up all day, giving them no breakfast till ten o'clock, and then their dinner at one. From Winchester Lowe joyfully passed to Oxford, where, notwithstanding his infirmity, he took a first-class in classics, a second in mathematics (which it was said would have been a first if he had not rubbed out with his nose the figures and diagrams which he wrote with his hand), highly distinguished himself

as a speaker in the debating club called the Union, and at the same time rowed in the University boat. He was passionately fond of study, made himself not only a good classic but a good Hebraist, and though in public he sometimes condescended to disparage classical education, in times of leisure he read classics all day long.

He married a handsome woman with some money; and an excellent wife and real helpmet she was to him. She used to say whatever she thought—a habit which was perilous in London society and made her a mark for the archers. But she was really a woman of sense as well as of spirit. A story about the pair was current in a version which implied that Lowe despised his wife's intellect. But the true version is here given by one who was present. Lowe, in his slashing way, was criticising the Anglican marriage service, which he said was full of nonsense, making the man say to the woman, "With all my worldly goods I thee endow." "Now," he said to his wife, "when we were married, I had no worldly goods to endow you with." "Ah! but then, Robert, there were your brains." "Well, all the world knows I did not endow you with them." It was a mere joke, at which Mrs. Lowe laughed as heartily as the rest of the company.

Having taken pupils for some time at Oxford, and having tried in vain to get a professorship, Lowe took to law, though he felt he would be at a great disadvantage from his inability to see the faces of the jurors and witnesses, or even to deal readily with his own brief. Medical men threatened him with loss of sight in seven years. He thought that in seven years he might make a modest competence at a colonial bar. He went accordingly to Australia, and got a good though not the leading practice there. Among his clients was a castaway son of a high family in England, who had been sent out as a convict and had committed a murder. The murderer was taken redhanded, and Lowe could devise no plea but that of insanity or "uncontrollable impulse," which he worked with much philosophic ingenuity, but which was overruled by the unphilosophical English judge. Mr. and Mrs. Lowe took the little son and daughter of the murdered woman to their home, and brought them up at their own cost, a good deed for which, the son turning out badly, they were ill-rewarded. This is enough to prove that Lowe did not lack the milk of human kindness. He might make free of the weaknesses of humanity, but at heart he was no cynic. He had a sharp tongue, was, as has already been said, too much of an intellectual aristocrat, and was somewhat intolerant of fools.

Besides his practice at the bar, Lowe took an active part in Australian politics. He distinguished himself as a strenuous advocate for colonial self-government and an opponent of the squatter oligarchy, braving in the latter case the ire of the most powerful class in the community. For words spoken in the Legislature he was challenged to a duel, but in that case asserted his privilege. Another challenge he accepted, and went out to fight, but his adversary did not appear. How could he have managed to take aim? It was difficult to say what he could not do. Having afterwards, in his unquenchable thirst of self-improvement, learned bicyling, he was a bold bicyclist, and he would try the nerves of his friends by driving them with a pair of horses at a rattling pace through crowded streets.

Returning to England, Lowe became a writer on the *Times* and a politician. In 1856 he visited the United States and Canada. He was unfavorably impressed with American democracy, and, like Macaulay and others, came to the conclusion that it was enabled to live only because its peccant humors were drawn off by the abundance of land. He saw it at a bad moment, when the slave-owning oligarchy was still in power and the foreign mob dominated in New York. Of slavery he conceived a deep abhorrence. Chicago and its region made an immense impression on him. Of Canadian politics nothing is said, but Lowe thought that in case of war England would have at once to withdraw her army in order to prevent its being taken, and it seems that Lord Palmerston was of the same mind.

After Lowe's return came the battle with democracy. Lord Russell, a statesman of measurable capacity but immeasurable ambition, finding that the wind in his sails was dying away, and that other barques were getting the lead of him, bethought him of recurring to the original source of his reputation and proposing a further extension of the suffrage. He had tried it in 1854, but his bill, meeting with no encouragement, was withdrawn. In 1865, having become Prime Minister with Mr. Gladstone as his chief colleague, he again brought forward his measure and was defeated through a Liberal secession led by Lowe and nicknamed the Cave of Adullam. Lowe maintained that no man has an à-priori right to vote; that a man who could not raise himself by his industry and frugality to the position of a ten-pound householder (the existing qualification) was not fit for the exercise of political power; that the ability and character of the House of Commons would not be raised but lowered by the change, and that this was decisive of the question. The following passage shows the ground on which he stood and on which all Liberal opposition to universal suffrage must stand:

"When the Chancellor of the Exchequer said that the *onus probandi* lay with his adversary in this instance, he must have meant that anterior to the existence of society there was vested in every man some personal à-priori right which nobody had authority to touch. When Mr. Mill, in like manner, speaks of every citizen of a State having a perfect right to a share in its government, he appeals to some à-priori considerations, in accordance with which every man would be entitled, not only to be well governed, but to take part in governing himself. But where are those à-priori rights to be found? The answer to that question would lead me into a metaphysical inquiry which I shall not now pursue, contenting myself with saying that I see no proof of their existence, and that the use of the term arises by the use of a bungling metaphor, by which a term appropriate to the rights arising under civil society is transferred to moral considerations antecedent to it. Can those alleged rights form a ground on which a practical deliberative assembly like the House of Commons can arrive at a practical conclusion? If they do in reality exist, they are as much the property of the Australian savage and the Hottentot of the Cape as of the educated and refined Englishman. Those who uphold this doctrine must apply it to the lowest as well as to the highest grades of civilization, claiming for it the same universal, absolute, and unbending force as an axiom of pure mathematics. A man, according to the theory of which I am speaking, derives a right of this kind from God, and if society infringe it, he is entitled to resist that infraction. He is judge without appeal in a cause over which no human tribunal has jurisdiction; he is executioner as well as judge, and so this seemingly harmless dream puts the dagger into the hand of the assassin. Those abstract rights are constantly invoked for the destruction of society and the overthrow of government, but they never can be successfully invoked as a foundation on which society and government may securely rest."

Among the special points made by Lowe were the dangerous tendency of the working classes to combine in a class interest, and the increased control which railways and the telegraph had given to constituencies over their representatives. The speeches told amazingly, thunders of applause rolled round the Conservative benches, and the Russell-Gladstone Government fell. But what was the sequel? Mr. Disraeli, having got into power, brought forward a measure of suffrage extension even more sweeping than that of Lord Russell and Mr. Gladstone, his idea being that, while the intelligent mechanic would be a Liberal, the residuum, as the dregs of the people were euphemistically styled, would be Tory. This bill also Lowe opposed, and used the same arguments with equal force, but in vain. This time the Conservatives, instead of cheering, sat mute under party discipline, and voted for the bill. It was said that Lowe wept. It is certain that he gave free vent to his indignation. "I was told the other night," he said, "by the Honorable Member for Elgin Boroughs, that the fates and destiny had been too strong for me. I have no fear of them, sir; what has been too strong for me is the shabbiness, the meanness, and the littleness that here met together." He might, however, have drawn comfort, though rather of a dismal kind, from the reflection that if a body of English gentlemen, men of property and education, could thus, under the influence of party, vote against their declared and deepest convictions, the political world would hardly be much the worse for being handed over to American democrats or representatives of the British working class. The late Lord Derby, then Lord Stanley, a paragon of cultivated intelligence and heir to a very ancient earldom and a million of dollars a year, had most explicitly pledged himself that if the Russell-Gladstone Bill were thrown out, no similar measure should be brought in by his party. Yet as soon as the exigencies of party required him to break that pledge, the pledge was broken.

Prof. Jowett, in a "personal memoir" of Lord Sherbrooke appended to this Life, seems to agree with the Member for Elgin Boroughs in thinking that Lowe was vainly struggling against the current of destiny. But so far as the advance of democracy, or at least the extension of the suffrage, in England was concerned, Lowe could have given this a conclusive answer. Nothing is more certain than that the revival of the suffrage question was in the first instance the offspring of Lord Russell's personal ambition. There was no general demand for it, and when Lord Russell's first bill proved abortive and was withdrawn, hardly a murmur of regret was heard. It is equally certain that, after the defeat of his second bill, the country would have been perfectly content to see the subject drop if Mr. Disraeli had not been ambitious of settling the question, and settling it, as he thought, in the interest of his party, by the enfranchisement of the lowest class of voters. To personal ambition, therefore, or to party tactics, not to destiny or any other occult influence, is to be ascribed the progress of Parliamentary democracy in England; nor was Lowe, in opposing it, fighting against heaven or fate, but against powers of a far less august and less invincible kind.

Lowe afterwards came into a Liberal Cabinet and distinguished himself by his industry as an administrative improver and reformer. But he was resolute in rejecting what he thought sham reforms, and a keen dissector of the fallacies which underlay them. A certain Mr. Tupp having called his attention to some

papers and lectures on bimetallism, Lord Sherbrooke replies:

"I have read Mr. Gibbs, so need not trouble you, and I have had the advantage of a lecture from Mr. Cernuschi himself. I congratulate you on your discovery of the philosopher's stone. If *saying* that one metal *shall* be equal in value to another can make it equal, you are fairly entitled to claim to have discovered the secret of boundless riches. But why bimetallism only? Why not trimetallism, or quadrimetallism? It is as easy to *say* that copper is equal to gold as silver."

Disraeli's Reform Bill gave a member to the University of London, which did itself the honor of electing Lowe. Disraeli, afterwards, taunting Lowe with his supposed unpopularity, said that he had provided him with a seat, which he could not have found anywhere else in the country. It is justly remarked by Lowe's biographer that Disraeli could hardly have passed a severer judgment on his own measure than by saying that, after its enactment, there was only one constituency in the country by which such an intelligence as that of Lowe, united with such independence of mind and zeal in the public service, could hope to be elected.

Lowe was a most brilliant talker, and the flow of his wit was perfectly spontaneous. Those who listened to Macaulay, Sydney Smith, Sir David Dundas, Rogers, Hayward, or Bishop Wilberforce could not help feeling that they more or less talked for display, or at least with a consciousness that they were talking to appreciative hearers. But Lowe's mind gave out the electric spark to anybody who touched it, and he was just as likely to say a capital thing to you sitting alone with him in his study or by his side on the driving-box as when he was amidst a party of leaders of society and wits. Some of the sparks are preserved in these volumes, but they are few compared with those that have been lost in the night of oblivion.

## PIERCE'S LIFE OF SUMNER.—I.

*Memoirs and Letters of Charles Sumner.* By Edward L. Pierce. Vols. III., IV. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1893.

For these concluding volumes of Mr. Pierce's 'Life of Sumner' we have waited fifteen years, but the fulness of the text and the rich abundance of the notes account for the delay, which still we must regret because so many who admired Sumner's character and were devoted to his fortunes are already gone. With full admiration for Sumner, Mr. Pierce has written no panegyric, no apology. While the interpretation of his opinions and his conduct is always sympathetic, there is a good deal of honest difference from his political beliefs and of quiet reprehension of his conduct and his speech. There are constructions here that will excite indignant opposition; but that Mr. Pierce has endeavored to judge Sumner and his friends and enemies fairly does not admit of doubt. His style is simple, vigorous, and compact. The various summaries of events and estimates of individuals and the conclusions of important passages of history are written with peculiar force and skill.

In these volumes Mr. Pierce had a much larger subject than in the two volumes which appeared in 1877: there an ardent and aspiring youth, much travelled and with troops of friends, and finally the hero of a memorable Fourth of July oration; here one of the most conspicuous figures in the political anti-slavery resistance to pro-slavery aggression. The treatment of the two periods is not so disproportionate as at first appears, for the two final volumes contain 1,279 pages and the two first only 783. But it is still disproportionate, and if Mr. Pierce had made his book at one cast, the first volumes would have been much reduced. The last are truly biographical—historical only so far as was necessary to give the proper setting of the personal career. The arrangement of the matter in these is much better than in the former volumes. There the correspondence was massed at the end of one chapter after another. Here it is assimilated to the narrative, and is much less abundant, though much more important, than before. It is so good that we are always wishing that there might be more; for Sumner's letters have a directness and simplicity which his speeches and orations often lack.

But Mr. Pierce has done better than preserve the right proportions between biography and history. He has preserved the right proportion between Sumner and the other political champions of the anti-slavery cause. Wilson was so generous with Sumner always that Sumner's biographer could not be less than generous with him; but he is not less so with Giddings, with Charles Francis Adams, and with Chase. He has not found it necessary to depreciate others in order to make Sumner's height preëminent. He deals, indeed, very sternly with Conkling and Fish; and if Seward's friends do not take serious exception to his treatment of that statesman, we shall be much surprised. But they will find it very hard to break the force of Mr. Pierce's allegations. The contrast afforded by the subtlety of Seward's character and the simplicity of Sumner's could not have been more vivid if Mr. Pierce had kept it consciously in view.

The new instalment opens with a chapter on society in Boston as it was in 1845, when Sumner was thirty-four years old. The picture is well painted, but does not attract, because it is the picture of a society that was narrow, formal, self-conscious, pedantic, with much of that gravity which has been defined as "a mysterious carriage of the body invented to conceal the defects of the mind"; a society "despotic over individual thought, insisting on uniformities of belief in matters which were related to its interests, and frowning at novelties which struck at its prestige." This was the society, devoted to Winthrop and Webster, against which Sumner had to make his way. It is evident that he had much in common with it always, and that made it all the harder for him when it shut its doors on him. The courage which his break with it displayed must not be measured by his actual loss, which was not great, but by the exaggerated estimate of it which his sensibility insured.

Taking the lecture field in the winter of 1845-'46, Sumner awakened an interest and admiration that were to serve him well a little further on. A profound seriousness was the chief characteristic. Devoid of humor, the lack was less injurious than it would have been in a less serious time. His Phi Beta Kappa address at Cambridge won for him many golden opinions, and gave bonds for his increasing interest in philanthropic work. His lecture on "White Slavery in the Barbary States" was not such a far cry that its echoes did not reach the apologists for American slavery in their comfortable security. Immediately there were suggestions of ambition and self-seeking, and Dr. George Putnam wrote to him that they were in the air. Sumner's elaborate reply is a complete *apologia pro vita sua* as it appeared to him in 1848. His sincerity in disclaiming all political ambition cannot be impeached. His interest in the slavery question began, he wrote, in 1835, and the *Liberator* was the first paper for which he subscribed "when Wendell Phillips was still indifferent." But Phillips got on much faster when once he had begun. That the first political meeting which Sumner attended was in 1845 shows not only his disinclination to politics, but the feebleness of his anti-slavery convictions up to that time.

Mr. Pierce devotes an entire chapter to the prison-discipline debates in Tremont Temple in 1846-7. He does not exaggerate their importance, for they brought Sumner squarely into conflict with the conservatism of Boston; they planted many a root of bitterness along his path; they gave him his first taste of the joy of battle, which he found so sweet that the political arena took on a more inviting aspect than it had had before. His first political speech was also his first speech against slavery, November 4, 1845, in Faneuil Hall, where the "Conscience Whigs" had come together to protest against the admission of Texas as a slave State, Charles Francis Adams, the natural leader of the movement, being in the chair. With the beginning of the Mexican war in the ensuing spring, Sumner found himself engaged in a conflict with Mr. Winthrop as lively as any on the Rio Grande. It was a conflict which very greatly embittered the conservative mind of Boston against Sumner. Mr. Pierce has gone to the verge of an apology for him in his endeavor to do ample justice to his opponent. It was a stern indictment that he brought: "Through *you* they [the people of Boston] are made *to declare unjust and cowardly war, with superadded falsehood, in the cause of slavery.*" But that it was correctly drawn, the most conciliatory of Mr. Pierce's phrases does not in the least disguise. That Sumner could not understand why Mr. Winthrop should be personally aggrieved by his attack, and was himself much hurt by his anger, was a very characteristic circumstance. It marked his painful lack of humor and his extreme sensibility to the good opinion of his fellow-men. Without keeping this sensibility in mind it is impossible to appreciate the courage with which he invited animosities that were sure to bring him almost intolerable pain. So easily stung by censure and so happy in the approval of his fellow-men, it is greatly to his credit, as Mr. Pierce has written, "that he never swerved a hair's breadth from duty to win the praise or to escape the blame." One incident of his conflict with Winthrop was his nomination against him by the bolting Whigs. He refused the nomination, in serene unconsciousness that he was irretrievably committed to a political career.

Nothing was more significant of Sumner's standing while as yet he held no office than the way in which Giddings turned to him for sympathy and advice. Already in 1848 Sumner looked to the formation of a new party as the only anti-slavery hope. His hopes for the Free-Soil ticket of that year were absurd; nor less so was his forecast, after the election, of the future of the Democratic party. It was the successful party that first met its doom. Sumner as a Congressional candidate received only one-third as many votes as Winthrop, but his acceptance of the nomination was a surrender, not without qualms and scruples further on, of his resolve to take no political office. It was a wise surrender, for neither in literature nor in law could he have achieved anything commensurate with his political career. Routed in the open field, and impatient to make themselves felt in national legislation, the Free-Soilers resorted to a series of coalitions to se-

cure their end. One of these made Chase a Senator from Ohio and another made Sumner a Senator from Massachusetts. As a prelude to that event Mr. Pierce has an admirable chapter on the Compromise of 1850. It may be commended especially to those who are just discovering that really nothing was the matter with Webster's 7th of March speech. It was Sumner's speech against the compromise that made him the candidate of the Free-Soil and Democratic coalition. Those who would be very glad to have a fold of Sumner's mantle to cover the nakedness of their political shame assure us that here was "a deal" in which he was an active worker on his own behalf. Mr. Pierce's account of the whole matter is a piece of elaborate candor, and it leaves Sumner's part in it without a stain. He gave no pledges, he made no concessions, and he entered on the office an absolutely independent man.

This was in December, 1851, and it was not until August, 1852, that he made an opportunity to open his mind freely on the Fugitive-Slave Law. The delay was painful to his friends, but all misunderstandings vanished in the light of the accomplished speech. That and the speech entitled "The Crime against Kansas" and that entitled "The Barbarism of Slavery" were Sumner's three great speeches before the appeal to arms. They were conspicuously the speeches of a scholar in politics. The moral sentiment was always genuine, but the rhetoric was less than absolutely real, and their force was often broken by great shoals of quoted passages in which some pride of scholarship unquestionably mingled with the orator's resolve to fortify his case. But Sumner knew well that he was addressing not so much the Senate as the whole country, and the terrible indictments to which the Senate, for the most part, listened with real or feigned indifference, were read with passionate enthusiasm by thousands of anti-slavery people in the North, and added many to their ranks. The splendor of his most famous speeches has involved his average Senatorial work in an impenetrable shade for the more casual observer; but Mr. Pierce, without seeking to establish a foregone conclusion, brings ample evidence that his supreme efforts by no means exhausted his entire capacity. There was no changing aspect of the slavery question that escaped his vigilance, and, had he no other laurels than those won by his anti-slavery speech and action, his fame would be sufficiently assured. But Mr. Pierce's pages are convincing that no Senator had more conscience for the general legislative work or contributed more liberally to so much of it as was apart from his peculiar line. At the same time the feeling is not to be escaped that Sumner in the Senate was like the poet's star, and dwelt apart. His ways were not those of the other Senators nor his thoughts their thoughts. He was isolated by his character, his culture, and by the radical position he assumed at each succeeding stage of the long fight with slavery and the evils it entailed. His strength was that of the impassioned moralist, not that of the constitutional lawyer, or the adroit debater, or the parliamentary tactician. His appeal was much oftener to the Declaration of Independence than to the Constitution, which in each emergency was like the Mormon prophet's compass: "When I had taken it in my hand, it did turn whichever way I would." To say that nothing could be constitutional which was not right smacked of the pulpit, not of the Senate; but it marked the purely moral character of Sumner's anti-slavery position. It was this which loaded all the dice against him when the fatal throw was made.

Mr. Pierce has treated no other part of Sumner's life with so much elaboration as that pertaining to the assault on him by Preston Brooks. His object is to show that there was so much connivance in the act, and so much excuse and justification offered for it in the subsequent investigation, that Brooks must be regarded as merely the tool of the pro-slavery party. Sumner so regarded him, and never spoke of him unkindly. Both Sumner and his biographer are completely justified by the evidence adduced. Sumner's language was exasperating and his taste in parts deplorable; but Brooks cared for neither except so far as it served as an excuse for his brutality. It was well that some one should meet the pro-slavery Senators with a pride as lofty and a scorn as bitter as their own. It was their first vivid intimation that the day of compromise and concession was drawing to an end. It hastened the inevitable catastrophe. So did the barbarous assault, for it was the staple of Republican speeches in the campaign of 1856. Bleeding Sumner appealed to the Northern voter more powerfully than "bleeding Kansas." His absence from the Senate, barring a few vain attempts to renew his service, was extended through four years. Meantime his empty seat was not less eloquent than his voice had been before. He returned to find the compromising temper of his party growing steadily with the approach of victory. His "Barbarism of Slavery," delivered in June, 1860, appealed to the political abolitionists within the party lines and braced them for the fearful trial of their faith a few months further on, when the fool's motley of compromise was well-nigh the only wear.

Mr. Pierce has treated Sumner's sickness and convalescence as carefully as his fatal speech and the assault. It must be said that during much of his stay abroad Sumner subjected himself to a social strain that would have broken down the perfect health of any ordinary man. The horrible treatment which he suffered at the hands of Dr. Brown-Séquard, wholly peculiar to himself, may have assisted his recovery. Mr. Pierce is more sceptical than Sumner about this. It is certain that it induced the first attack of the disease, *angina pectoris*, to which he finally succumbed.

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*Napoleon, Warrior and Ruler*, and the Military Supremacy of Revolutionary France. By William O'Connor Morris. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893. Pp. xvii, 433.

THIS is the latest volume in the "Heroes of the Nations" series. It would be strange indeed if any nation could permanently canonize the great destroyer of nations, and Mr. Morris rather mournfully admits that modern France loves neither Napoleon nor his family. Nevertheless, he regrets what he calls "the preponderance of defamation since the disastrous war of 1870-71." He admits Lanfrey's "clever fragment" to the privilege of examination, but characterizes the author as "the only libeller of Napoleon who has tried to rise to the level of history." Taine is accorded a primacy among "these slanderers," and is then summarily sentenced as a "minute philosopher of calumny." After this, it is not surprising to find that Mr. Morris approaches the great Corsican with reverence and admiration. He remarks in the preface that "the most trustworthy judgments" about Napoleon were formed by "the generation of writers which flourished between 1830 and 1860." As we go on, this phrase appears to mean that Mr. Morris will repeat the verdicts of Thiers's specious 'History of the Consulate and Empire,' a work which is the literary apotheosis of chauvinism. The judgment of scholarship has been recorded against the artful flatteries and patriotic misrepresentations of Thiers. Such a student and critic as Lanfrey may not be easily dismissed with a reference to the fluctuations of public opinion. Mr. Morris should at least remember that the hostility to the Bourbons in the middle of this century may have been no less pervasive in influence than the reaction against the Napoleonic legend in the days of Gambetta and Sedan.

Mr. Morris meets the "slanderers," Lanfrey and Taine, with what he calls the "simple answer of history." This is, in brief, that "Napoleon could never have risen to the heights he reached, could never have done the work he did, could never have acquired his prodigious authority and influence, had he been a monster of selfishness, of meanness, of lust, of wickedness." Undoubtedly this answer is too "simple" to be the complete and final reply of the muse. That men in whom selfishness and lustfulness were predominant qualities "*have* acquired prodigious authority and influence," is an undeniable fact, and their sins have not always found them out so speedily as did Napoleon's. Rodrigo Borgia died in Peter's chair. Catharine II. was one of the makers of the Russian empire. Talleyrand, more capable of momentary generosity than Napoleon, was also a far greater adept in duplicity, more coldly relentless, more despicable in meanness; and, at the Congress of Vienna, Talleyrand conquered the coalition that had overthrown Napoleon at Waterloo. Moreover, Mr. Morris gives no fair version of the indictment brought by Napoleon's enemies. That marvellous etching which Taine elaborated with such painstaking does not represent the great Corsican as only a "monster," as a mere compound of inhuman selfishness and debauchery. Perhaps the acid is sometimes too mordant. Napoleon was more than a mediæval captain of a free company, more even than a resurrected Cæsar Borgia; but Taine, after all, does not lose sight of the projectile power by which Napoleon was launched forth. It was the complex evolution of Jacobinism that made Napoleon possible, and that "red fool fury" is Taine's chief and ultimate enemy.

From Napoleon's Commentaries and Correspondence the author has sought to extract the secret of the Emperor's personality, and, indeed, the circumstances of composition and publication have rendered those works more interesting to the psychologist than to the historian. In the Commentaries is revealed Napoleon the warrior, and it is that character which has apparently fascinated Mr. Morris. He cannot withhold his admiration for the fact of splendid conquest, although he looks hesitatingly at the awful price paid for victory, at the blight cast by military supremacy upon both law and culture, at the inevitable reaction against changes wrought by autocratic violence. Of the various campaigns of the modern master of the art of war Mr. Morris has evidently been a careful and enthusiastic student. He has certainly produced a complete and orderly condensation of Napoleon's military and diplomatic policy. The current of the story runs both rapidly and clearly, and the pages of the volume are richly furnished with maps. It is a pity, however, that these maps should be so indistinct and chary of necessary detail. As illustrations of the text, there is

scarcely one of them that can compare with the maps in Mr. John C. Ropes's recent volume of lectures upon 'The First Napoleon.'

Such, then, were the purposes and equipment with which this rapid portraiture of Napoleon was attempted. The author sketches his outline liberally: "Napoleon was a universal genius; great as a ruler, greatest as a warrior." Down to the rupture of the peace with England in 1803, but little shade is thrown into the picture. Napoleon is treated as the saviour of France and the predestined hero of the Revolution, answering the despairing call of Sieyès for "a brain and a sword." After 1803 the scene changes, for Mr. Morris discerns a Napoleon spoiled by success. The Emperor is no longer "one of the ablest and most successful of rulers"; he has become "the uncontrolled despot, subjugating and bestriding the Continent," the enemy of the civilized world. Mr. Morris finds excuses for the murder of the Duc d'Enghien, and yet admits that the slaughtered Bourbon "sits heavily upon Napoleon's memory." After Austerlitz, Napoleon's rule became "a scheme of oppression leading to universal conquest." The Continental system and the daring plans at Tilsit for the subjugation of the world betray "no trace of the wisdom of Napoleon's youth"; they are "a reckless scheme of mere brute force." After a fitting reference to Napoleon's burglary in Spain, Mr. Morris exclaims: "Nemesis was waiting in grim repose for her victim; the Son of the Morning was ere long to fall." The utter failure of Napoleon's strategy and public policy during the Russian campaign is attributed to the natural decay of an absolute despot's powers and to the inherent weakness of a "despotism of the sword." "Prometheus," we are told, "in vain defies the word of Zeus; Genius contends in vain against supreme fact; the ministers of vengeance reach their victim." In Germany the reforms introduced with French supremacy were "more than effaced by the innumerable wrongs, iniquities, and miseries caused by it." In France the Senate and Legislature were "a mere herd of flatterers"; judicial independence was "weakened"; the ministers of Napoleon were only mechanical registers of the autocratic will; taxation was "oppressive" and levied "by illegitimate means." The conscription had stripped the country districts; the Continental System had ruined the coast towns from Hamburg to Marseilles. The people heard of the birth of Napoleon's son "with indifference"; they did not lament the Emperor's downfall. On the contrary, "raving multitudes" denounced and assailed him as he journeyed to Elba. Barring a few allusions to "Prometheus" and "the Son of the Morning," Mr. Morris has here repeated the accusations of those "slanderers" whom, at the outset, he rather ostentatiously repudiated. We read that Napoleon "had the despot's dislike of all that deals with man on his moral side or with the free growth of human ideas." "The insatiable conqueror" is no longer "the armed champion of the French Revolution," as he had been before 1803. He is now described as "the greatest of despots, mocking at truth when he calls himself 'the Messiah of a popular Gospel.'"

The average reader is likely to be puzzled if he tries to form a consistent idea of Napoleon from Mr. Morris's brilliant narrative. He will find no adequate reason why the patriotic general of the Republic should have shortly become the cold-blooded despot of the Empire. The author has dexterously interwoven the faint dispraise of Thiers and the deep damnation of Taine, but he has failed to blend the two views into a coherent whole. The year 1803 witnessed no change in the man Napoleon, although it may have witnessed a development in his public policy; but that evolution was the result of an altered opportunity, not of an altered character. The confusion in Mr. Morris's presentation is mainly due to failure to grasp, first, the relation of the Revolution to the army which the Revolution had created, and, second, the relation of the man Napoleon to the essence of the Revolution. In a moment of reconstruction, the army, always a despotic instrument, seemed to Cæsar and to Napoleon a proper organ of government; to Washington it was not so. Military supremacy, then as now, stifled the breath of democracy. Founded upon that military supremacy, the Napoleonic régime was the antithesis of the French Revolution. Napoleon himself, youth and man, an inspired soldier, inordinately ambitious, superbly intellectual, unimpressionable, pitilessly self-contained, and pitifully self-restricted, despised the democratic idea, and from the beginning hoped to overthrow it. When, in the hour of peril, some one advised him to call "the People to arms," he answered: "I have destroyed the Revolution, and how can I call on it?" This continuous quality of the real Napoleon Mr. Morris seems to see, but he obscures the vision of Napoleon's innermost personality with the superficial theory of a "dividing line" in the Emperor's public policy. He ventures once upon the amazing assertion that Napoleon "had a deep sense of the divine"—a riddle hard to read in connection with the man who could dismiss the horrors of the Beresina in this fashion: "After all, what has this cost me? Three hundred thousand men, among whom, indeed, were many Germans." Was it really an ideal of the divine to which this Titan sacrificed three millions of lives and uncounted treasure?

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*The Emancipation of Women and its Probable Consequences.* By Adele Crepaz. With a letter to the authoress by the Right. Hon. W. E. Gladstone, M.P. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

It is fortunate for the fame of the great Liberal leader that it is in no danger of being affected by the literary commendations which he is in the habit of dispensing so generously. In the present instance, he seems to us to have been peculiarly unfortunate, inasmuch as he not only has been excessive in the degree of his praise, but has selected as the special excellence of the book in question the very quality in which it is conspicuously deficient. "To save us from this danger [of rash action]," says Mr. Gladstone, "what we want is *thorough* treatment, and you have given it the most thorough treatment which I have yet seen applied to it." In point of fact, such merit as the book possesses lies entirely in the repetition of the familiar predictions as to the probable consequences of the opening of all fields of activity to women; the emotional efficacy of these predictions being occasionally rendered quite considerable by vivid and earnest presentation. Whatever force considerations such as these may properly exercise on our judgment, the mere reiteration of predictions can hardly lay claim to the character of a thorough discussion; and we are constrained to infer that what Mr. Gladstone had in mind was the evidences adduced by the authoress in the shape of facts of the present day as throwing light upon what we might expect in the coming time. But anything weaker and less able to stand examination than the portions of the book in which this is attempted has seldom come to our notice. Not only does the authoress commit the favorite error of the advocate of a cause—whether it be protection or bimetallism or the single tax—of pointing out evils and calmly assuming that they are due to the agency against which he is contending, and thus begging the question; not only does she contentedly infer *propter hoc* from *post hoc*, but it is impossible to understand considerable portions of her book without supposing that even from *ante hoc* follows *propter hoc*. For surely in Germany the emancipation ideas have, apart from certain very limited circles, not yet passed beyond the realm of speculation; and yet we are given a sad picture of the state of things there (pp. 91–96), as though they were a result of the movement for the higher education of women.

In the one case in which the best opportunity existed of studying the effect of altered ideals, the case of America, Frau Crepaz contents herself with the wildest and crudest assertions. Some idea of the value of her observations on this head may be obtained from the circumstance that the one statement concerning the relations between the sexes in America which she considers so important as to demand italics is that "It is well known that *the happiest marriages in America are those contracted between American men and German women*" (p. 26). After this, we need not be surprised when we are given to understand (pp. 77 and 78) that American mothers seldom take part in the education of their own children; or that "a marriage of reason is the only one she [the woman of the Northern States] thinks of." Along with this nonchalant dealing with broad generalities, goes naturally the most careless handling of specific facts, so that we find *Florence* Blackwell (p. 43) and Elizabeth *Anthony* Stanton (p. 13); while the few statistical statements made (*e. g.*, p. 28 and p. 84) are so vague as to be quite worthless. In short, as we said at the outset, if the book has any value, it is simply what it has in common with every warning that the emancipation of women may bring on evils greater than those that it cures; its reasoning is of too loose a texture to be of any assistance in the understanding of the question, and it totally fails to utilize such light as might be thrown upon it by the actual experience of America and England.

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*The Great Book Collectors.* By Charles Isaac Elton and Mary Augusta Elton. London: Kegan Paul; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

Whether this volume is more entertaining or instructive may be an open question. It appeals in either case to a small class, and to others its learning will seem of little worth and its entertainment sparse. In truth, gossip, the chief source of amusement in book-lore, as in other fields, will not thrive within the narrow limits of two hundred pages, but demands such freedom as is found in the crowded leaves of many-volumed Dibdin. Yet the authors have, with much diligence, collected a store of information that to most book-lovers will be new or forgot, nor have they neglected to interweave abundance of quaint anecdotes. To us the earlier pages, devoted to collectors of manuscripts in the days before type, have most charm, perchance because most unfamiliar. Here we find an extremely early enunciation of the common law of property in books. St. Columba, having copied St. Finnen's Psalter without leave, King Diarmid decided against

him in the resulting suit, on the ground "that to every mother-book belongs the child-book, as to the cow belongs her calf." St. Columba, we may add, brought an appeal in the higher court of battle, where the decision was reversed by the defeat of Diarmid. We find a hint for the Library Association in the versified catalogue of the library at York, compiled by Alcuin. Let us have the A. L. A. Catalogue in verse—short metre with an alexandrine now and then for an uncondensable title; between New York and St. Louis it could easily be done. We have no space to linger over the books of Richard de Bury, Duke Humphrey, Petrarch, Poggio, and Corvinus, or those of Cotton, Harley, Bodley, Grolier, or Naudé. The last-named, for his time, had a very pretty notion of a public library. Here is the first rule of the Mazarin Library: "The library is to be open to all the world without the exception of any living soul; readers will be supplied chairs and writing-materials, and the attendants will fetch all books required in any language or department of learning, and will change them as often as is necessary."

The publisher has dressed the book, which is one of the series of "Books About Books," in pleasant type and rough-edged paper of dull surface. He has adorned it with several plates showing bindings and manuscripts, and four or five reproductions of excellent old portraits. Being of English make, the leaves of course start up when it is opened, like so many locks of Traddles's hair; and nothing less ponderous than the "International" will keep it open at a given place. There is an index.

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*Histoire Générale du IV. siècle à nos jours.* Ouvrage publié sous la direction de MM. Ernest Lavisse et Alfred Rambaud. Tome I^er^: Les Origines. 395-1095. Paris: A. Colin & Cie. 1893. L. 8vo, pp. vi, 805.

CERTAINLY the Genius of universal history, now long domiciled in Germany, aweary of watching the deliberate, interminable progress of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte,' must have refreshed herself between *Lieferungen* by a trip to Paris. The volume above cited is the first of twelve wherein writers of repute, authorities concerning the several epochs, are to review the history of the more important peoples down to the present time. It takes up the tale, not with man before the mammoth, as the title might in these days seem to hint, but with the fourth century of our era. Doubtless many will find it an encouragement to have got so far before beginning.

M. Berthelot, who supplies more than a third of the volume, opens it with an account of the political and social condition of the Roman Empire and the German tribes at the time of the great invasion. From his hand, too, are the chapters on the various Germanic kingdoms, and the history of the Franks through the reign of Charles the Great down to the accession of Charles the Fat. The rise of the Capetians and the origin of the kingdom of France is described by MM. Langlois and Luchaire, while the development of Germany and the revival of the empire is treated by M. Charles Bayet, who has also written two valuable chapters on the Eastern Empire. M. Lavisse, in that nervous style which would make a less interesting subject attractive, sketches the evolution of the papal power. The history of Britain is by M. Bémont, that of the Slavs and other Eastern Europeans by M. Denis, while M. Maurice Wahl writes on Mohammedanism and the caliphates of the East and West.

It need hardly be said that the editors have planned the work wisely and skilfully, and have taken great care with the arrangement of the material which they have obtained. Their first thought has been for the proper presentation of the social organization, the changing character of the peoples. Wars and courts have everywhere taken the background. The chapters are judiciously subdivided and dates are freely given. Thus, with the use of titles in bold-faced type at the beginning of paragraphs which introduce a change of subject, the book is made handy for reference and pleasant to read. There are few notes, and these explanatory, but at the end of each chapter is a brief bibliography which names and comments upon the sources of the narrative and the principal books upon the period. Reference is also made to more detailed bibliographies where such exist. We note the omission of Hodgkin's 'Italy and her Invaders' from the scanty list of books upon the Ostrogoths and Lombards. Gibbon, too, is surely still worthy of mention.

The work promises to be honorable to French historiography. It is based upon the results of thorough research, and is expressed with all the lucidity and sense of proportion which we have grown used to call French. The volume itself is evidence of this spirit: the type is agreeable, the page well chosen; the book is large without being big, close-packed without being bulky. Some of the future volumes will be 'Feudal Europe and the Crusades,' 'The Hundred Years' War,' 'The Renaissance and Reform,' 'The Wars of Religion,' 'The Epoch of Louis XIV.,' etc. It is clear that later events are to be treated at greater length. While one volume suffices for 400 to 1100, 1100 to 1900 requires eleven. A just sense of proportion demands no less; and yet, looking at such trim chronological perspectives, where the centuries diminish in apparent extent like ties upon a railroad track, we sometimes wonder who shall make us really believe that more generations of men passed over the earth between the time of Augustus and the Norman Conquest than have been counted from the Conquest to this day; that years were as long under Clovis as under Cleveland, and ran no fewer to the fifth century than to the nineteenth.

The work will appear in *livraisons* of 80 to 100 pages (at one franc each), at the rate of two a month.

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*The Birth and Development of Ornament.* By F. Edward Hulme, F.L.S., F.S.A. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

ANY one who should look in Mr. Hulme's 'Birth and Development of Ornament' for a continuous thread of development, or for nice discrimination of styles or coherent analysis of any style, would be disappointed; but he would find an outline of the history of art, a good many interesting facts, apposite or inapposite, some exploded theories and statements, and some judicious criticism. Mr. Hulme's point of view is what is sometimes called insular—that is, his authorities are English, his ideas are English, and English examples take a larger share of attention than their relative importance demands. But he covers a wide range, and the artistic sense and knowledge which he has shown in his more technical books do not desert him here. The list of Landmarks of History which he has brought in at the end would be valuable if they were real landmarks; but the lack of perspective which characterizes the book is seen here also, and the items seem to be picked up at random. The building of the Parthenon, the Norman Conquest, and the beginning of St. Peter's are landmarks; the birth and death of Grinling Gibbons, the establishment of the Lowestoft potteries, and the death of Welby Pugin are not.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bishop, W. H. A House-Hunter in Europe. Harpers. $1.50.
Blyth, A. W. Lectures on Sanitary Law. Macmillan. $2.50.
Brackett, Anna C. Woman and the Higher Education. Harpers. $1.
Burnham, Lieut. W. P. Duties of Outposts and Manual of Guard Duty, U. S. Army. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen.
Cahoon, Haryot H. What One Woman Thinks. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.25.
Chinnock, E. J. Arrian's Anabasis of Alexander, and Indica. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. Mrs. Keith's Crime. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Conklin, B. Y. Practical Lessons in Language. American Book Co. 35 cents.
Crawford, F. M. Pietro Ghisleri. Macmillan. $1.
Creevey, Caroline A. Recreations in Botany. Harpers. $1.50.
Cruttwell, Rev. C. T. A Literary History of Early Christianity. 2 vols. Scribners. $6.
Doyle, A. Conan. The Refugees: A Tale of Two Continents. Harpers. $1.75.
Dumas, A. Six Years Later. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Foote, A. R., and Everett, C. E. The Law of Incorporated Companies Operating under Municipal Franchises. 3 vols. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $15.
Freeman, E. A. History of Federal Government in Greece and Italy. 2d ed. Macmillan. $3.75.
Fuller, Jane G. Hearts and Coronets. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Gibson, Margaret D. How the Codex was Found. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hudson's Dictionary of Minneapolis. Minneapolis: H. B. Hudson. 25 cents.
Hurlbut, Ella C. Mrs. Clift-Crosby's Niece. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.
*Littell's Living Age.* April—June, 1893. Boston: Littell & Co.
Lowell, J. R. Conversations on Some of the Old Poets. Philadelphia: David McKay.
Migula, Dr. W. An Introduction to Practical Bacteriology. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.60.
Miller, C. G. Donn Piatt: His Work and His Ways. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.50.
Millison, D. G. How it Happened: The Story of Milton's Paradise Lost. Wichita, Kan.: Beacon Publishing Co.
Moncrieff, A. R. H. Where to Go Abroad. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Murphy, J. J. Natural Selection and Spiritual Freedom. Macmillan. $1.25.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Part VII. Consignificant—Crouching. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Needell, Mrs. J. H. Lucia, Hugh, and Another. Appletons. $1.
Newcomer, Prof. A. G. A Practical Course in English Composition. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90 cents.
Newhall, C. S. The Shrubs of Northeastern America. Putnams. $2.50
Nisbet, John. British Forest Trees and their Sylvicultural Characteristics and Treatment. Macmillan. $2.50.
Palgrave, R. H. I. Dictionary of Political Economy. Part Fifth. De Cardenas—Drawing. Macmillan. $1.
Pepper, Dr. William. A Text-Book of the Theory and Practice of Medicine by American Teachers. Vol. I. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders. $5.
Peterson, Dr. Frederick. In the Shade of Ygdrasil. Putnams. $1.
Piatt, Donn. Poems and Plays. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.50.
Piatt, Donn. Sunday Meditations and Selected Prose Sketches. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.50.
Picturesque Chicago and Guide to the World's Fair. Hartford: D. S. Moseley.
Pond, S. W. Two Volunteer Missionaries among the Dakotas. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society. $1.25.
Post, W. K. Harvard Stories: Sketches of the Undergraduate. Putnams. $1.25.
Quain's Elements of Anatomy. Vol. III. Part I. The Spinal Cord and Brain. 10th ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Rawnsley, H. D. Valete: Tennyson, and Other Memorial Poems. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Riddle, A. G. Ansel's Cave: A Story of Early Life in the Western Reserve. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co. $1.25.
Roberts, Ellen. One of Earth's Daughters. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Russell, Raymond. Asleep and Awake. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $1.
Scott, Sir Walter. Ivanhoe. [Dryburgh Edition.] Macmillan. $1.25.
Scudder, S. H. Brief Guide to the Commoner Butterflies of the Northern United States and Canada. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Scudder, S. H. The Life of a Butterfly. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Shipley, Arthur E. Zoölogy of the Invertebrata: A Text-Book for Students. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $6.25.
Southworth, Mrs. E. D. E. N. Retribution. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Stebbing, Rev. T. R R. A History of Crustacea. [International Scientific Series.] Appletons. $2.
Stories of the South. Scribners. 50 cents.
Strong, Rev. Josiah. The New Era; or, The Coming Kingdom. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Tavistock Tales. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.25.
Temple, Sir Richard. James Thomason. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.
The Adventures of Uncle Jeremiah and Family at the Great Fair. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 25 cents.
The Maxims and Reflections of Goethe. Macmillan. $1.25.
Woman's Mission: A Series of Congress Papers on the Philanthropic Work of Women. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $3.50.

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[*Continued from page iv.*]

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 13, 1893.

## The Week.

SOMETHING over a million dollars in gold has been imported in driblets during the past week, picked up in three or four different markets, wherever, it may be supposed, the personal bargains of American exporters with their foreign customers enabled them to take advantage of the recent very low rates for foreign exchange. But a heavy specie movement from Great Britain has been withheld, the Bank of England using every exertion to prevent such an outflow. Through the machinery available for such a purpose, the Bank of England has accumulated in its own vaults practically all the gold in London's market, and has pursued precisely the policy adopted one year ago by our own Treasury Department—the refusal to deliver in exchange for drafts gold in any form but sovereigns. The necessity of reassaying and remelting gold in this form before its use is possible in a foreign country has virtually made its acquisition on exchange impossible. It will, however, be remembered that the similar policy, when adopted by our Treasury officials, checked only for a few days the export movement. Were the actual balance of trade in merchandise, securities, and credits now in our favor, the Bank of England would be equally powerless. As a matter of fact, the exchange of merchandise, though at present apparently against us, is prospectively turning in our favor. English importers of our wheat, who lately bought heavily of grain for July and September delivery, sold their exchange in advance against such purchases, and our future export trade is therefore to precisely that extent figuring in the market balance of exchange. But it is very noticeable still that the foreign trade in our securities and the free transfer of foreign credits is slow to begin again, and the motive for the hesitation is perfectly obvious. It may be that foreign confidence will be restored in anticipation of the Sherman Law's repeal; it is certain that it will return when the law has been publicly cancelled from our statute-books. But it is quite as certain that a failure to deal thoroughly and honestly with that demoralizing law would turn the tide of foreign capital once more and immediately against us.

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The Atlanta (Ga.) Clearing-house has adopted by a unanimous vote resolutions which declare in strong terms that the Sherman Act should be repealed, and that no silver dollar should be coined at our mints which is not as good as any other dollar. The resolutions also call for the repeal of the tax on State bank-notes, but there is nothing like unanimity of opinion in favor of this policy throughout the South. Indeed, the strongest newspaper opponent of it in the whole country is that thoroughgoing Democratic journal, the Richmond *Dispatch*, which declares that, on a proposition to repeal the tax on the circulating notes of State banks and return to the banking system which obtained in this country before the civil war, "there may be expected from the voters a swelling chorus of 'Noes' when they get an opportunity to make known their wishes in the premises."

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It is already evident that the Colorado mine-owners have plunged far too deep in gloom and have made predictions too black and sweeping. Their fellow-citizens have become apprehensive of the effect on the State's credit of their ostentatious proclamations of ruin, and have begun to warn the country, especially that part of the country which has investments in Colorado, that these tragic miners must not be taken too seriously. It was early announced that Colorado's ruin was only of a sort which would still allow her to pay all her debts in good money, and now that good news is followed up by the cheering information that "the actual effect of closing the silver mines" would affect the State's prosperity only in a "trifling" way. This is amply borne out by the statistics of the production and wealth of Colorado, by which it appears how far agriculture and manufactures surpass mining. If the miners are not able to frighten even their neighbors in any way except to inspire a fear that their affected melancholy will injure the reputation and credit of the State, and if the Idaho and Montana mine-owners announce, as they do, that their mines will go right on turning out silver as before, we think that the Colorado men might as well quit their private theatricals at once and go to work again.

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In view of the fact that our own Clearing house banks issue their weekly statement with the required reserve figured at 25 per cent. of the deposits, it is a matter of interest at the present time to know how small a percentage of deposits is deemed necessary by the London joint-stock banks. The London and Westminster at last reports had but 17.4 per cent. of cash reserve, yet this was the highest on the list. The London Joint Stock Bank had but 12.4 per cent., and the National Provincial but 13.3 per cent. This latter bank has 221 branches and agencies throughout Great Britain as compared with the 16 branches of the Westminster, all situated within the metropolitan area. So, too, the London and County, with 173 branches, carries but 10.7 per cent. in cash. Well may the London *Statist* call these reserves "quite inadequate," especially in the cases of those banks whose sub-agencies are scattered all over the country. Either the London banks are taking grave chances on monetary quiet throughout Great Britain and Europe (for of those stated percentages of reserve the greater part is on deposit in the Bank of England, whose own reserve is 50 per cent. of its liabilities), or else our New York percentage is more than ample for safety. If we may judge by banking practice in London, our own banks are well protected, even if their reserve should run down to the legal limit of 25 per cent.

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The determination of the Pension Bureau to scrutinize the list of pensioners under the Dependent Pension Act of 1890, and to erase from it all names not lawfully there, is simply an attempt to enforce the law and make it honorable. Under the terms of the act itself, it is the duty of the Secretary of the Interior to make rules and regulations for establishing "due proof" of the fact that applicants are "suffering from a mental or physical disability of a permanent character, not the result of their own vicious habits, which incapacitates them from the performance of manual labor." Secretary Smith has become satisfied that, in the case of about a thousand names on the list, such due proof has not been had, and his order is that no pension shall be paid to these persons until they prove their right to one under the terms of the law. This step is necessary in the interest of justice, and it is also necessary in the interest of economy. The total expenditures of the Government during the past fiscal year on what may be called the war-power, including pensions and the army and navy, were upwards of $239,000,000—far more than half of the entire cost of running the Government, and nearly double the military expenditures of either France or Germany with their immense standing armies and groaning taxpayers. The *Financial Chronicle*, commenting in its last issue upon this condition of things, asks if it is not time to call a halt. There can be no doubt that the country will heartily approve of all efforts to cut the annual pension bill down to the lowest limits consistent with the enforcement of law.

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The decline of party spirit is illustrated in the small importance attached to the fact that the death of Justice Blatchford of the United States Supreme Court furnishes the opportunity for the appointment of a Democrat to that bench. It is really a matter of no consequence whether Judge Blatchford's successor is a Republican or a Democrat, for there has not

been in many years a division in the court along party lines. Although a Republican, the late Justice joined in such decisions as that annulling the Civil-Rights Act for unconstitutionality, and sustaining the State-rights side in the Virginia debt controversy. So far as Republican party policy during the period of his service was concerned, the record of the court would have been no different if a Democrat had sat in his place.

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The News Bureau of the Navy Department has been lying very low about the case of Commander Higginson. It was in a state of great activity when he was on the high seas, on his way to Greytown, where an order detaching him from his command was awaiting him, but immediately after his return to this country every leaking spigot of it ceased to drip. The oozing began again on Monday, however, and "an officer who says that he is acquainted with the facts" shows what a pickle the Department is in. It "does not now hold that Commander Higginson evaded his orders." That is to say, he was not a coward and a scoundrel for refusing to go to sea without coal and for reporting the bad condition of the *Atlanta*. That ship, in fact, had no sooner reached this country than she was ordered into dry dock for those very repairs which Commander Higginson insubordinately and unpatriotically said she needed. The only fault now to be found with him is that, in his hurry, he was guilty of a breach of etiquette in writing direct to Commodore Melville for the needed boiler tubes instead of sending his request via the Secretary. The Department seems now to have intimated to him that if he would apologize for this bit of broken red tape, his command would be restored to him "as a favor." We should have expected that such a sneaking officer as he was represented to be would have been glad to crawl back to his ship in that way, but the audacious man actually demands his restoration "as a matter of justice," inasmuch as the Department practically admits that he was removed without cause. We shall watch the news attachment of the Navy with great interest to see if it will adopt the discipline of a burlesque court, and cashier a worthy officer for having made the horrible mistake of calling upon the First Lord of the Bedchamber, instead of the First Gentleman in Waiting, to hand the King a handkerchief.

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When Mr. James Bryce was in the British Foreign Office, he maintained that it was "the clear and constant duty of the Government, which holds in its hands the threads of a vast organization stretching over the world, to do all that it legitimately can to further the interests of our commerce." Acting upon this view, he prepared a memorandum showing in what manner British trade might be assisted by her Majesty's diplomatic and consular officers. He discovered, by means of careful investigation and wide correspondence with boards of trade, that the information regarding commercial matters transmitted from abroad by these officers was not of the right kind, that it came too late, and that it was not published in an accessible and attractive form. His correspondents bore witness to "the great assiduity displayed by the consular agents of the United States in sending home frequent and detailed reports of the movement of trade," and recommended that "the agents of the British Foreign Office take example from their American confrères." Mr. Bayard, as Secretary of State, printed the memorandum and correspondence, and, in laying the pamphlet before our consuls, reminded them of their duty to work with increased diligence, inasmuch as the reforms about to be instituted in Great Britain were suggested by the series of reports begun under Mr. Evarts in 1880. That the reports of our consuls have been free from the defects mentioned by Mr. Bryce no one will maintain, but it is not too much to say that, compared with similar publications of other governments, they are very creditable. In the November number of last year appeared a report by our consul at Piedras Negras on "Mexican Trade and How to Secure It," which, says *Bradstreet's* of July 1, "has received the unusual distinction of being utilized by trade and daily papers of the United States as an editorial article, or in other ways, at intervals of a few weeks from the time of its first appearance in the State Department publication to this time." Among other papers quoting from it or referring to it approvingly is the London *Ironmonger*.

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After a silence of more than two years, a silence by which even the editor of the *Sun* has been perplexed and troubled, Mr. William H. Hurlbert has published the reasons why he put himself beyond the reach of a treaty of extradition when "wanted" in England to answer a charge of perjury, and why he keeps beyond said reach, and why he does not even now disclose his whereabouts. The reason why he departed suddenly from the United States was that under the new treaty of extradition with Great Britain it was a matter of doubt whether our courts could refuse a warrant of extradition on any grounds whatever. "In pursuance of this belief," says the *Sun*, "Mr. Hurlbert was advised by counsel that, even if overwhelming proof could be produced that he was in New York when he was said to have committed an extraditable offence in London, the testimony could not be accepted by a Federal court as ground for refusing to recognize the warrant." The *Sun* refrains from committing itself to the view taken by Hurlbert's counsel—an exercise of caution which may be due to an examination of the treaty, the sixth article of which says:

"The extradition of fugitives under the provisions of this convention . . . shall be carried out . . . in conformity with the laws regulating extradition for the time being in force in the surrendering States."

That is to say, the new treaty has introduced no new rule whatever touching the sufficiency of evidence to warrant the writ of extradition. The caution shown by the *Sun* in not committing itself to the view of Hurlbert's counsel is no less sagacious than the caution of Hurlbert himself in not taking any risks on the wording of the new treaty.

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Oklahoma is trying hard to outbid all of its neighbors in the matter of granting easy and quick divorce. An attorney at Kingfisher, in that Territory, has issued a circular which points out that the statutes of Oklahoma specify no fewer than "ten separate and distinct causes, for any one or more of which a divorce may be obtained," including that all-embracing term, "gross neglect of duty"; that the probate court of each county, "which is always in session," has jurisdiction in actions for divorce, "which affords litigants an opportunity to obtain relief very speedily and without having to await the slow process of the District Court"; that the statute requires only three months' residence in the Territory; and, finally, that "persons coming to Oklahoma will find the city of Kingfisher, with its 4,000 inhabitants and all modern improvements, a very pleasant place to live in." Apparently Indiana, Chicago, and South Dakota are all to be outdone in the divorce line by Oklahoma.

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The capital of Kansas is now suffering the natural results of the shameless application of the spoils system by which the new Democratic Postmaster summarily removed the old force of letter-carriers—men who had served faithfully and efficiently for years—in order to make room for a lot of Democrats who were afraid that they could not pass an examination under the Civil-Service Law, which is about to be applied to the office. The new carriers are always late in delivering mail, and letters are constantly delivered to wrong addresses. There is a universal agreement that never in the history of Topeka has there been a time when the mails were so shiftlessly delivered, and letters of indignant protest are daily sent to Washington. The First Assistant Postmaster-General has acknowledged the receipt of a petition of citizens, affidavits, etc., against the removal of the carriers, and states that the matter will be investigated. The investigation ought to be a thorough one, and it should be followed by the prompt removal of the new Postmaster, on the ground that any man who will open his administration of a public office by utterly demoralizing it is unfit for the place.

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It is shocking to have such revelations made about a recent Secretary of the Treasury as the Ohio press is printing regarding "Charley" Foster. It appears

that the assets of the bank which he controlled are only $70,286, while the liabilities are $296,089, and that this enormous excess of liabilities is largely due to the fact that Mr. Foster's account was overdrawn in the great sum of $136,000! The Ohio newspapers are making proper comment upon this disgraceful state of things, and partisanship does not prevent so good a Republican journal as the Cincinnati *Times-Star* from telling the exact truth about it. It points out that Mr. Foster drew out the funds deposited day after day by his neighbors, and that they are now deprived of their money through his act in "gobbling it by overdrawing his account. If," it adds, "any one had broken into the bank and stolen the money or had obtained it by forging the names of depositors, he would have been pronounced guilty of a flagrant crime. To the depositors the effect of Mr. Foster's overdrafts is precisely the same as if some one who didn't enjoy the privilege of overdrawing his account had abstracted the amount." The *Times-Star* holds that there was absolutely no excuse for Mr. Foster's course, and that his prominence and political fame should not shield him from censure.

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The experiment of opening the World's Fair on Sundays has disappointed both its advocates and its opponents. The management expected a great increase in revenue from the attendance of large crowds, while the Sabbatarians feared irreparable harm to the morals of the multitudes who would rush in to their destruction if they were given the chance. In point of fact, the attendance on Sundays has been smaller than on Saturdays almost from the first, and the number of visitors on that day diminishes every week. Two causes produce this result. People from a distance, who are spending a number of days at the Fair, are as a rule so weary by Saturday night that they want absolute rest on Sunday. The poorer classes of Chicago, from whom the largest number of Sunday visitors was expected, are so much dissatisfied at having to pay the full price of fifty cents for only about half of the show that comparatively few of them attend, and the same objection prevents the organizing of large Sunday excursions from the surrounding country. It now seems obvious that a mistake was made in not fixing the rate of admission on Sunday at twenty-five cents, and advertising that visitors must not expect much beyond a sight of the buildings and grounds. This is the policy which was pursued on Sundays until the formal opening of the Exposition, and under it there were large crowds of well-satisfied people every Sunday.

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Prof. Henry Drummond's lectures on evolution at Chautauqua are the clearest index yet seen in this country of the silent but sweeping change wrought in the religious world by the teachings of science in regard to the origin of man. Mr. Beecher's sermons on evolution, in the last years of his life, were not so significant, because he was an exceptional man and was preaching to an exceptional audience, accustomed to startling novelties. Nor has the acceptance of a modified evolution by Christian teachers and preachers here and there given any very sure indication of the great revolution quietly going on. But Prof. Drummond expounding a pretty thorough-going evolution at Chautauqua is a striking phenomenon. He is by no means a commonplace man, but Chautauqua is a paradise of commonplace people. Those who flock to the lectures there come mostly from parts of the country removed from intellectual stir, and are typical representatives of the church people to whom, a generation or less ago, evolution was synonymous with atheism. Moreover, the purveyors of instruction at Chautauqua have always been careful to make it of a kind at which the most sensitive prejudice need not revolt. When, therefore, Chautauqua managers provide lectures in defence of evolution, and Chautauqua audiences gather to hear them with much pious edification and strengthening in their faith, it is a sign of the times which no observer can neglect. The very protest against the management and the innovating lecturer, drawn up by a handful of those who have not lost their old dread of godless science, only emphasizes the profound nature of the change that has taken place.

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The Bellamyites may take heart again. A communistic settlement is to be seriously undertaken, on a somewhat important scale, on a site already famous in the Jesuit annals of Paraguay and in the pages of Muratori. It is not a little curious that the movement should have started from Australia, the title of the community being The New Australian Coöperative Settlement Association. The declaration of principles contains the familiar complaint against the tyranny of society: "Whereas, so long as one depends upon another for leave to work, and so long as the selfishness induced by the uncertainty of living prevents mankind from seeing that it is best for all to insure one another against all possibility of social degradation," etc., etc. For all these evils it is proposed to establish a settlement, with common ownership of land and equal division of expenses and profits, "without regard to sex, age, office, or physical or mental capacity." Absolute equality of the sexes is one of the fundamental principles. The community is to maintain the children, under the guardianship of their respective parents. No religion is officially recognized, and "the individuality of every member in thought, religion, speech, and leisure, and in all matters whatsoever whereby the individuality of others is not affected, is to be held inviolable." In effect the plan of organization involves the maintenance of a State within a State. To this arrangement the Paraguayan Government has consented. The community is responsible to the Government as an individual, and is bound to obey its laws, but the members are directly responsible to the directors of the Association, who are to be elected annually. A grant of land, comprising 100 square leagues, equal to 450,000 acres, has been obtained near Villa Rica, on the Rio Tibicuari, 110 miles from Asunción. As an earnest of good faith the Association has deposited with the Paraguayan Government a substantial forfeit, agreeing to establish 400 families within two years from January 7, 1893, and to plant a colony of 800 families within four years from that date. There are no promoters seeking profit out of the enterprise; it is divorced from politics; the members are plain workingmen and women, who are thoroughly sincere, and who are setting out to improve their own condition—not to further socialistic reforms or to prove any original theories of government.

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It is not often that words of wisdom are heard from the mouths of the French Socialists, but a manifesto published at Roubaix by the "National Council of the Labor Party" contains, with much folly, some truths that it would be greatly for the advantage of France to heed. The manifesto was drawn out by the charges of lack of patriotism made against the Socialists because of their "internationalism." But this, they reply, is neither the abasement nor the sacrifice of Fatherland. The evolution of "Fatherlands" has been a necessary step in the evolution of humanity, but it is not the final step, and when the time for the unity of mankind has arrived, it is not patriotism but bigotry to insist upon preferring the claims of particular nations to those of humanity. France is, therefore, not the end of all social organization, but, as it is an important factor, the French Socialists desire a country "great and strong, capable of defending its republic against the united monarchies, and capable of protecting its future artisans, as in '89, against an eventual coalition of capitalist Europe." But while they desire this, and because they desire it as patriots, they oppose war, "which, fortunate or unfortunate, could end only in unexampled disasters, considering the millions of men who compose modern armies and the machinery of modern warfare." Especially do they not desire a war which, whatever its issue, "would only play the game of Asiatic barbarism, represented by Russian Czarism, against the exhausted West." It is reasonable to believe that the declared hostility to war upon the part of such numbers of citizens as are now identified with Socialism in both France and Germany may sensibly increase the reluctance of military leaders to bring on hostilities, and that if the present terrible burden of military preparation could be diminished, the numbers of the Socialists would be correspondingly depleted.

*WHAT SHALL WE DO WITH IT?*

THE producers of silver are, perhaps, those most vitally interested in the disposition of the great fund of that metal now in the Treasury of the United States. They were aware when the act for the purchase of pig-silver was passed, that the demand for silver as currency was more than satisfied, and that the act provided for an accumulation that would presently assume large proportions. They must have known that the existence of this vast fund would be regarded by financiers in general, and dealers in silver in particular, very much as the dwellers in a narrow valley may regard the existence of a reservoir above them which is unprovided with any waste-way and is swelling from constant rains. Whether they acted upon the maxim, *Après nous le déluge*, or not, we do not know, but if they had been sagacious, they would have sold their product "short." They may have done so; but at all events they have now to sell in a market rendered extremely precarious by their own schemes.

The discharge of workmen in the silver mines, which must probably take place to some extent, is certainly deplorable; but there is no particular reason why the owners of silver mines should receive any more sympathy than the farmers, who have seen the price of wheat fall almost one-half within the past few years, or the makers of pig-iron, many of whom can remember selling for $40 and $50 a ton what they now have to dispose of for less than $15. The case of the people of the United States is somewhat different. In the legislative lottery they have drawn an elephant of prodigious size; and though this monster does not exactly have to be fed, it yet requires housing and watching at considerable cost, and is evidently decreasing in value. In fact, any attempt to dispose of it would break the market, so that what value it has depends principally upon no attempt being made to realize it. This value would scarcely meet the requirements of the economic definition of value in exchange, for the exchange cannot be made; nor does it seem in accordance with truth to say that it has value in use.

Is there, then, nothing whatever to be done with our pile of silver but to keep it indefinitely? Doubtless this would be the simplest thing to do, but it is repugnant to the utilitarian genius of our people. Several ideas have occurred to us as perhaps solving the problem, and we venture in a tentative way to lay them before our readers. In the first place, there seems much to be said in favor of what might be called the Egyptian solution, viz., the construction of an enormous silver pyramid at Washington in plain sight of Congress. This, it might be hoped, would operate to remind that body that we have had some financial experience in the past, and would be a monument as lasting as brass to the financial follies of the last twenty years. Upon the sides of this pyramid might be engraved the Bland Act and the Sherman Act, and any other appropriate sentiments; and if Mr. Bland will favor this idea, we should be willing to have his effigy in silver, of any size that he prefers, placed upon the apex of the pyramid. It would seem, however, more consistent with the Egyptian origin of the idea to have the interior of the pyramid a place of sepulture, and chambers might be constructed there for all of our leading silver statesmen. But in this case we should be disposed to insist upon the condition that they should be occupied at once.

The chief objection to this plan would be that the location of the pyramid would not be such as to make it an object-lesson to all the people, although in reply it could be urged that if Congress can be perpetually admonished, the chief purpose would be attained. Another objection is, that nations do not deliberately make it a practice to commemorate their inglorious and ridiculous performances, although to foreigners they may sometimes seem to do so. But this might be obviated by regarding the monument as erected, not in commemoration of the folly of past Congresses in passing silver bills, but of the wisdom of the present Congress in repealing them. Thus men celebrate the destruction of the Bastille, the repeal of the corn laws, the abolition of slavery, etc. These objections may appear to some minds to be of a momentous character, and, in view of the importance of the subject, should receive the fullest consideration.

Another plan, which avoids these objections and possesses several of the advantages, although not all, of the plan above set forth, is of genuinely utilitarian character. Vast quantities of silver are constantly absorbed in India through the propensity of the inhabitants of that region to indulge in bracelets, anklets, and nose-rings. Our countrymen and countrywomen, of course, cannot be expected to take up such practices, but we have customs that might be utilized by Government so as to bring about the same result. What proverb is most expressive of good fortune? Is it not "to be born with a silver spoon in one's mouth"? What is most earnestly desired by every bride, and regarded by large members of the community as the best evidence of social position? The possession of an abundance of silver spoons. Our people have positively refused to encumber themselves with silver dollars, but silver spoons fall into a different category. For the purpose of a spoon nothing has ever been found superior to silver, and it is not probable that anything ever will be. As a standard of social respectability the silver spoon is far less fluctuating than the silver dollar as a standard of value. The value of silver spoons is not an exchange value, but a utility value, and, as a certain school of modern economists contends, this value, to those who have none of a desired commodity, is infinite. But the great majority of our people have no silver spoons, and (if the women are allowed a voice in the matter) we are satisfied that they yearn for them far more than they have yearned for the silver dollar. Moreover, the standard of living would in this way be permanently raised—a great desideratum with sociologists—for no one that has ever been accustomed to the use of spoons of silver will ever willingly go back to wood or horn or iron or pewter. Our people would thus in a few years, if they were once accustomed to the use of silver spoons, acquire permanent proclivities like those of the Hindus, but far more rational, and a demand would thus be established which would eventually absorb all of our surplus.

There seem, therefore, to be very strong arguments in support of a measure for the transformation of our stock of silver, not into dollars, but into spoons, and for the distribution of these spoons among all our people by the Government. They should be, of course, "souvenir spoons," and they might bear the effigy of Columbus. The constitutional objection that the Government has no power to dispose of its funds in this way can be easily avoided, as it was avoided in President Jackson's time. The surplus funds were then distributed—not to the people, who as taxpayers were logically entitled to receive them back, but to the States, in the form of loans, the return of which, it was understood, would never be asked, and never has been. In this case the States at once proceeded to squander these funds, and very little now remains of them, while souvenir silver spoons would be cherished and become heirlooms of increasing value. It is true that the silversmiths might at first object to this Government competition, but they might be appeased by being employed to make the spoons, and the more enlightened would see that the increased use of silver spoons would enormously enlarge their trade in the future. Of course no objection could be raised by the silver-producers without involving them in self stultification. Perhaps they would not mind that so much, but the proposal is so evidently in their interest that their enthusiastic support could be counted upon. As to the gold-bugs, we will answer for them. Our word for it, if the outcry for the coinage of silver dollars shall cease, not a word will be heard from Wall Street against the coinage of silver spoons. The price paid by the nation for these souvenirs may be a little high, but, as Ben Franklin observed, experience keeps a dear school, and if we can put a stop to legislative meddling with the standard of value, no price would be too high to pay for it.

*BIMETALLIC THEORY.*

IT would be a great misfortune if the experience through which our country is now passing should not result in some substantial gain to monetary science.

This science is eminently an inductive one, and has been slowly developed and constantly modified by the aid of financial experiments, made by both public and private corporations. Its main outlines are now indelibly engraved, but there are many features still undetermined, and in completing these there is much work to be done. The theory of bimetallism, for instance, can hardly be maintained hereafter in the same form as in the past. That it must be modified in some respects will hardly be denied by any of its rational advocates. Whether anything will be left of it after the necessary modifications are made, is a question upon which different opinions may be entertained; but at all events it is clear that the modifications will be determined by the recognition of causes the importance of which has not been hitherto duly appreciated.

The theory of bimetallic money has certain attractions for professional economists, and it has been maintained by men familiar with business. Stated briefly, the chief advantage that its advocates dwell upon is the supposed stability of value resulting from the employment of the accumulated stock of both gold and silver as money. This vast reservoir, it is thought, cannot fluctuate violently under such relatively small additions as are made to it from the production of the mines; while if gold alone is employed as the standard, the ratio between the existing fund and the annual increment would be far greater, and the fluctuations of values therefore more extreme. On the other hand, it is objected that, while this might be true in theory if the metals were of unchangeable value relatively to each other, yet, as the ratio between them constantly varies, the comparison should be not of one reservoir, but of two, and that consequently values in general are less stable, having to adjust themselves first to one standard and then to another.

The reply of the bimetallists to this objection—and it is the only reply they can possibly make—is that the decree of the sovereign power can overcome the inequality of values. A silver dollar may be worth less than a gold dollar, but, they say, the fiat of the Government that it shall be worth as much will make it practically worth as much. The really scientific bimetallists do not press this argument to an extreme. They are disposed to admit that a "readjustment" of values may be from time to time necessary, and consider that this can be done by governmental authority. Thus one distinguished bimetallist compared bi metallic money to a pair of horses harnessed together. One horse might be stronger or faster than the other, he said, but the driver, by checking one and urging the other, could make them pull evenly and keep abreast of each other. But this comparison of course implies that there is no very great disparity between the horses. If there is, it is plain that the strain upon the driver becomes painfully severe.

Now, it is exactly this function of the driver that has been tested by our recent experience. The driver in this case consists of a President and two legislative bodies, containing some five hundred men. This composite driver took the reins of the financial chariot with the expressed purpose of maintaining "parity" between the two steeds, gold and silver. The silver steed, showing a disposition to lag, was stimulated by large purchases and by most cheering and sympathetic words, while the gold steed was sternly repressed. But the result is that the gold steed has had to do all the work, silver is practically run down and under the wheels, the driver is confused and frightened, the passengers are all trying to climb out of the wagon, and the spectators are either laughing at the amazing exhibition of incompetence or in terror at the prospect of a ruinous overthrow.

We do not see how the bimetallic theorists can deny that this experiment demonstrates the practical worthlessness of their theory. If Government can make values, their theory may answer; but whenever Government tries to do this it fails. It is not competent to exercise this function. No body of men is competent. Omnipotence alone can do that. A government is a human creation and efficient only as it adapts itself to the nature of its creator. Values are simply the embodiment of human judgments as to the relative desirability of things, and all that Government can do is to register these judgments and carry them out as well as possible. Just so soon as men find out that Government is attempting to do more than this by ordaining that what men have valued less they shall value more, the authority of Government is brought into disrepute. It may command obedience for awhile, and try to command it longer by penal legislation, but it is bound to collapse sooner or later. It might be thought that mankind had had sufficient experience to establish this principle before, but our present situation amounts to a demonstration of it accord ing to the most rigid canons of induction.

One further element must hereafter be considered by monetary theorists, although it resolves itself into the same principle that we have just stated. It evidently makes no difference what views about money and value are held by people who have not money to lend; it is the lenders who control the situation. If business were not done upon credit, this would not be so, but it is done upon credit, and without credit our present business could not begin to be done at all. Now, Government has repeatedly tried to make people lend who did not want to, but just so soon as the lenders found out what was going on they stopped lending, or charged such a rate as insured them against loss. Hence we have a simple dilemma before Government: either put a stop to all business done on credit, or provide laws insuring lenders the return of the money or value loaned. If people who lend money want to be repaid in gold, then there is nothing for Government to do but to meet this want. Just at present they are unanimous in the opinion that they do want gold, and the Government has simply got to comply with this demand or ruin the country.

### *GEARY ON THE GEARY LAW.*

THE Hon. Thomas J. Geary of California, like another Daniel come to judgment, expounds and defends the Chinese Exclusion Law of 1892, in the July *North American Review*. It is all a mistake, he assures us, to regard the "intention" of that law as "harsh" or "unjust," or even "unreasonable"; on the contrary, the law was "wise and right," was meant to be "beneficial to the Chinamen legally here," was, in fact, a benevolent effort of a humane government to provide for the protection of the Chinese in this country against all "inconvenience and annoyance." The Act of May, 1892, Congressman Geary explains, not only was "in accordance with the treaties made between this Government and China," but actually aimed "to prevent the deportation of the innocent," and "imposed no undue or unjust hardship" upon any of the Chinese; and "the consequences that now confront the Chinese in the United States are not the result contemplated by the act, but of the action of the Chinese themselves in defying the Government."

Mr. Geary should have told us this before and prevented all the pother. Why he waited so long, and let such a false impression get abroad, we can explain only by supposing that he thought it decent to let at least one year pass before putting himself in flat contradiction with what he said and did in Congress. In referring to the Congressional debates upon the Exclusion Act, it is necessary to distinguish between Geary as a thing in itself, as the Germans say, and Geary as shaped by circumstances. The pure and undiluted Geary appears in the bill called up by him on April 4, 1892, and supported by him in a speech, and it is by the terms of that bill and the sentiments of that speech that the Geary of the magazine article is to be judged. He now professes a great regard for the obligations of a treaty. Section 14 of his bill declared that "the provisions of all treaties now in force between the United States Government and the Chinese Empire, in so far as they, or any of them, conflict with the provisions of this act, be, and the same are, hereby abrogated, set aside, and repealed." And in his speech he met the argument that his bill was in violation of treaty obligations by valiantly saying: "I do not care what treaty may stand in the way. . . . I am prepared to abrogate every such treaty, to violate every such law."

It was also this same gentle Geary, who, in his article, is pained at the thought

that any one should think him capable of needlessly setting foot upon a worm, that proposed to nullify the writ of habeas corpus when sued for in behalf of Chinamen, to confiscate ships from which a Chinaman might have escaped into our territory, to imprison for five years and then deport any Chinaman crossing the boundary lines of the United States, and many other little amenities of the sort. He now says: "If we had imposed a tax upon Chinamen, . . . some modification of the law might be justifiable." What he really proposed in section 13 of his bill was to tax each Chinaman three dollars for the certificate he was to be compelled to take out, on pain of imprisonment and deportation. He gloried in this feature of his own bill, saying on May 26, 1892, after the Senate had stricken out the section, "The bill that passed this House and went into the Republican Senate provided in itself a sufficient amount to enforce the law, because it levied a tax upon every Chinaman and made him enforce the law which this Congress had passed." Yet he writes plaintively now of the "ignorance" of those who condemn the inhumanity of taxing the Chinamen to pay for their own wrongs—a proposal which innocent Congressman Geary never heard of before.

It seems a pity to criticise his description of the mildness of the law in so far as it provides for deportation. He now says that the "possible deportation" of the Chinese was "not contemplated or expected when the law was passed." It is only because the Chinese have refused to register that any of them are in danger of deportation. But a little further on he argues that as many as 49,000, out of the 106,000 Chinamen in this country, "entered in defiance of our laws." Now every mother's son of these is liable to be deported under the Geary Law, as it is not possible for them to get certificates even if they were to apply. In Geary's speech in Congress he put the number of those illegally in this country at 60,000, so that, on his own showing, the man who now says that the possible deportation was not contemplated was actually contemplating and ordering, so far as the law could do it, the deportation of considerably more than half of all the Chinamen in the United States.

The only other point we shall notice in which Mr. Geary the magazinist gives the lie to Mr. Geary the Congressman, is in what he says about the duty of enforcing the law. He dismisses the argument that we should injure our Chinese trade, by saying that we should be "better off without any part or portion of it." The reason for this is that the Chinaman, in spite of all we have done for him, persists in allowing "no sentiment to influence or affect him in the matter of trade, but buys where he can buy the cheapest, and sells in the market that will take at the highest price the greatest amount of his commodities." Clearly there can be no profit in trading with such an unfeeling fellow. As little regard has Mr. Geary for what he calls "the Fatherhood-of-God and the brotherhood-of-man standpoint." This "beautiful sentiment" has no charms for him, as "American interests in the far West" are of "more consequence than the maintenance of missionary stations in China," and the law should be enforced to protect those interests. The sufficient answer to this from the Geary-and-sand lots standpoint is that, on his own confession, the law is entirely inadequate to protect those interests, and therefore that there is no use of enforcing it. On April 4, 1892, he said of his own bill, yet unshorn of a single tooth or claw, "*No measure short of this* will effect the purpose desired by our people." When it came back from the Senate, he grieved that the "drastic features" had been knocked out of it, and said that the Conference Committee "gave away everything in the House bill." Why then, we ask, answering Geary according to his Gearyishness, should we enforce a law which, by his own confession, is certain to prove as ineffective and useless as he admits the laws of 1882 and 1888 to have been?

## *THE PRINCIPLE OF "BETTERMENT" IN ENGLAND.*

THE House of Commons has recently voted that in raising funds for metropolitan improvements, the land immediately benefited shall contribute as well as the taxpayers at large. This principle has been so long embedded in American jurisprudence that nothing seems to us more palpably equitable. A landowner who should insist that if a park was laid out in front of his residence, whereby its value was doubled, the entire expense should be borne by the public, would here be thought extremely unreasonable. If he should declare that any assessment for benefit levied upon his land under these circumstances was "robbery," he would be thought crazy. But this is the position occupied by landowners in London as a class. They maintain that among their "vested rights of property" is one that all increments of value, however arising, shall go to the landlord. It is perhaps owing partly to this bigoted and irrational conservatism that socialistic proposals have come into so much favor of late years in England. Where rights of property are pressed to such an extreme it is not surprising that somewhat violent reactions should take place.

Curiously enough, the principle of betterment which is denounced in England as an "Americanism" was formerly recognized by the law of that country, and the *Daily News* points out that Pepys records in his diary an application of it when London was rebuilt after the Great Fire. It seems to have been transplanted to this country and to have been recognized in our law from a very early period, while it has been abandoned in England. Its application by commissions instead of juries has been attacked in this State as depriving owners of their property without due process of law, but the courts have not sustained this claim. In some States, as in New Jersey, we believe, the verdict of a jury may be invoked as a matter of right, but we do not know that it is anywhere contended that the principle, if properly applied, is unjust. At the time when the land upon which the Exhibition at Chicago is now taking place was devoted to public uses as a park, assessments for betterment were levied upon land six miles distant. Yet who can say that the increased attractiveness of the city due to this park may not have increased the value of every foot of land within the corporate limits much more than in proportion to the cost of the improvement? The value to the city of New York of the acquisition of Central Park was inestimable. Not only the property in its vicinity was increased in value, but the city in general, as a place of residence, as a place of resort, and even as a place of business, has derived great pecuniary benefit from the existence of this "midway pleasance."

There have been cases of the grossest abuse of this principle. In this city, in Brooklyn, in some of the neighboring cities of New Jersey, and doubtless throughout the land, there have been assessments for betterment that have amounted to confiscation. This is a good reason for putting safeguards about the operation of the law, and the present widening of Elm Street in this city and the recent New Church Street case show that, with our form of municipal government, the dangers of corruption and oppression are serious. This, however, is not because of any vice in the principle, but because of its abuse. And this seems to be all that the opponents of the measure could say against it in Parliament. One of them declared that it was unjust, because it was impossible for anybody to estimate adequately the increased value given to property by public improvements. The bill, however, proposed that the owner of property increased in value by a public improvement should pay in gross only half the amount of the increase, or else pay 3 per cent. upon this amount as an annual charge. It is quite incredible that the increased value of land due to such causes should not be susceptible of calculation with sufficient accuracy to prevent any actual confiscation under such an act as this, especially as the County Council was allowed seven years' time to make its calculations and assessments.

It is true that the practice of levying taxes through local or parish rates in London tends to impose the charge for improvement more directly upon property benefited than our own system of a uniform tax throughout the municipality. But the equitable adjustment of rates appears to be a matter of as much difficulty as the estimate of betterments, and the argument based upon this ground has little weight.

The true objection, as was frankly avowed by one member, is that the adoption of this principle is dreaded by property-owners as the first step towards the "Henry George theory" that all increment in the value of land belongs to the community. It is quite probable that much of the support given to the bill in the House of Commons — it was adopted by 216 votes against 118—was given by believers in this theory. But it should be remembered that the main objections to this theory have always been (1) that its author, or more properly its most noted advocate, insisted that all existing increments of value in land should be confiscated, and (2) that upon the scale proposed by him the plan was practically inexpedient as causing greater injustice than it remedied. When, as has been demonstrated in this country, it can be ascertained that a particular public improvement causes a definite private gain, the fact that certain theorists are in favor of the principle from other motives is not sufficient to prevent its adoption. At the same time the fact that the act in question fails to provide any compensation for property-owners who experience damage and not benefit from the public improvement, is from our point of view extremely deplorable. So long as landowners as a class were not assessed for betterments they could not claim to be compensated for damages, but when the betterment principle is adopted that of compensation for injury should go with it. We fear that in this case the hostility of the socialistic elements to "vested interests" may have overcome their regard for equity.

## *GUY DE MAUPASSANT.*

THE news of the death of this brilliant writer comes not unexpectedly, and lovers of literature will regret that no more of those marvellously strong tales which make Maupassant's real fame will ever again appear to delight and entrance them. It is as a *conteur* that Maupassant will live in French literature; among his longer works one novel, 'Pierre et Jean,' will probably survive, but of his tales one hazards nothing in saying that a large majority will endure to be read for many a year. Maupassant was not wholly a beast or a sensualist; he was both in part, and unhappily in one or other of those aspects he is best known to most people, even to those who are acquainted with him solely through translations. But he was also, and primarily, a rarely keen observer and a writer of great dramatic power. Very few writers—Alphonse Daudet is among the exceptions—have come up to Maupassant's level in the short tale, in which not a word is wasted, not an incident unnecessary, not a line written in excess; and this not in the class of work referred to as bestial or sensual, but in that rich series of stories which, whether in the original French or the weaker English, may be put in the hands of almost any reader. The simplicity of the means employed conceals the consummate skill with which the tale is constructed; the attention, captivated at the outset, remains riveted to the end, and not occasionally only, but invariably. The characters live; in a few touches Maupassant makes them real to us; in a few pages we have learned to know them, to sympathize with them, to remember them long afterwards. The Corsican mother, the little soldier, the great hunter, the coward, live in the mind when once their story has been read; Père Toine is unforgettable; the old vagabond, the wretched dog, the poor ass cannot fade from memory. Taking the whole range of tale-writers in French and English, there is not one who has noted so many varied types and characters, who has impressed so many of them on the mind, as Maupassant. The fact that he is not so one-sided as Zola or Bourget nearly compensates for his lack of sustained power in longer work.

Maupassant belongs to the naturalistic school; he sees the very ugly side of life, but he sees also the brighter. No more than his fellows does he give us a noble, a lofty ideal, but more than they he lights up his work with a touch of pathos, of healthy fun, of genuine feeling. His characters are not all despicable, not all mean and vile. Even when, as in 'Un Bock,' he depicts fallen man, he succeeds in awakening pity for the victim. The farmer's wife who sells the broken-down old donkey to the pair of scamps, in 'L'Âne,' has genuine human feeling and shows it, and we are grateful to Maupassant as an artist and a man for recording that feeling. He is impersonal, very largely, but not so much that his sympathies are wholly extinct; they break out at times and give what is even a sweet touch. Maupassant is much better than his reputation; the public generally has seized eagerly upon the sensual part of his work, and that has become best known. To palates accustomed to the fiery spices of the filthy school, the beauty and worth of the purer and better portions of his work are undistinguishable; none the less they exist, and over and above the tales already translated for decent readers are fully as many more quite fitted for general publication, and, equally with some not so to be classed, exhibiting the peculiar power and attractiveness of the writer.

Of the longer works of Maupassant, none deserves to survive save 'Pierre et Jean.' Harsh and arbitrary, as well as premature, as this judgment must appear at first sight, it is likely to be justified by time. 'Bel Ami,' 'Mont Oriol,' 'Notre Cœur,' 'Fort comme la Mort,' in spite of their literary qualities and the remarkable powers of analysis and observation they evidence, are not in a strict sense strong works. 'Pierre et Jean' is. The subject is unpleasant, but it can scarcely be called illegitimate. It is treated gravely, seriously. Sensuality is almost wholly absent. Neither the story itself nor the manner of telling it will corrupt. It is really moral in its tendency; stern in reproof, firm in warning. The very impersonality of the author, his detaching himself from his characters, and the simple manner in which the dread, repulsive truth is slowly brought out, contribute to the moral value of the work. There are better ways of teaching morality, and it were to be wished that those alone were needed; but some people who could not be uplifted by pure ideals may be deterred by such uncompromising narrations.

'Sur l'Eau' will be read chiefly for the insight it gives into the author's state of mind when the balance of reason was already in part upset and the mind was losing its hold. In the light of what happened soon afterwards and of the death that has now come, there are pages in it inexpressibly sorrowful, for in them is heard the cry of a lost, a despairing soul. Maupassant paid dearly for beliefs and unbeliefs, for use and abuse of power, for pride of life and pride of intellect; and some notion of the price is had in the revelations of 'Sur l'Eau. He prostituted art again and again, pandering to the debased tastes of a public whose ceaseless craving reacted upon him and impelled him to repeat his offences. Happily what is good in his work will not be buried with his bones.

## PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.

PARIS, June 23, 1893.

STILL a new book on the Napoleonic era, the Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier. The first part only has appeared; it extends from 1789 to 1810, and will be followed by several others. The realistic school has found its true expression: we are getting tired of novels, and the prodigious success of the memoirs which are now published in rapid succession on the time of the Revolution and of the Empire shows a curious tendency of the public mind: we are hungry for facts, root facts, and find memoirs more interesting than the numberless productions of the novelists, which give us only imaginary facts. And, in truth, can anything be more interesting than what has real life? At the same time it must be remarked that our interest has narrow limits: the things which interest us must not be too distant. We would turn our backs on a historian who should speak to us of Louis XIV. or of Henri IV.; we wish to know everything, even the minutest details, only about the men and women who have a near connection with our own time. We care no more for the eighteenth century than we do about the Greeks and the Romans.

"Qui me délivrera des Grecs et des Romains?"

In short, we become more and more modern as we become more and more realistic.

The Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier were certainly not expected with as much eagerness as those of Talleyrand; but they were known to be interesting, and could hardly fail to be so, as Pasquier had been in high places for many years and under many governments. He was commonly cited as the man who had taken the greatest number of oaths of office; he was one of the most curious products of our numerous revolutions—a type of the men who think themselves faithful to themselves as long as they are faithful to the State; office-holders under every régime, always ready to criticise the régime which they serve; servants born, but good servants; one of those who candidly think, what was once said, that "the more régimes a man has served, the more fit he is to serve a new one."

Beneath this versatility it is not impossible to discern some innate and indefeasible traits, some permanent characteristics. Pasquier was born and remained to the end a man of the old Parlement of Paris, what we still call a Parliamentarian—by which word we designate those great families *de robe* which did not belong to the *noblesse d'épée*, but sometimes had alliances with it; families which were all rich and lived in great style. Between the noblemen who were at court and the opulent and extravagant *fermiers-généraux*, they formed a proud class, which owed its importance to the administration of justice. The Parlement placed them in contact with dukes and peers and princes of the blood, and Saint-Simon tells us, with his usual eloquence, how they contrived to defend and to augment their prerogatives. The Parliamentarians had, by

a sort of natural selection, formed in the end a curious coterie; they were submissive to the Crown, though there remained in them a remnant of the old Fronde, extremely jealous of their privileges, inclined to Jansenism, as it had always been their duty to defend the King against the pretensions of Rome. The Parlement was averse to all novelties, though many of its members had been influenced by the ideas of the philosophers; it had all the defects of a close corporation without any of the advantages of a deliberative assembly.

Pasquier was born in 1767. His education was, so to speak, twofold: it bore the impress of the old ideas, and at the same time of the new philosophical and irreligious ideas. He spent the greater part of his youth at Coutans, an estate which was a short distance from Le Mans, in a province over which the jurisdiction of the Parlement of Paris was extended. He was admitted as counsellor to that Parlement in 1787, at the age of twenty. He was too young to take any large part in the struggles which had begun between the Parlement and the Court. There was a great agitation all over France in favor of the convocation of the States-General (they had not been summoned since 1614). An old counsellor said to Pasquier: "Young man, this idea was already discussed during the life of your grandfather, and this is what he always told us: 'This is no child's play; remember, gentlemen, that the first time that France sees States-General again she will see also a terrible revolution.'"

Pasquier enters into many details on the period which preceded 1789. "I saw the Bastille taken," he says. "What has been called the *combat* was not serious; the resistance was absolutely null; there were no munitions in the fortress, it was not even necessary to invest it." The blow, nevertheless, was strong, and the old régime was demolished with the old prison. "The year 1789 saw the end," says Pasquier, "of the social life which had so long constituted the charm of France. Political quarrels, violent discussions, passions, troubled society and dispersed its elements." Pasquier was a Royalist, but he seems never to have experienced a strong passion. "Though I was convinced that we defended the good cause, I could not help thinking that our adversaries had more cleverness than ourselves. Many of us had adopted the principle (I did not share their error) that to arrive at something better, we had to go through something worse." He disapproved of the emigration; he did not believe that it was possible to make a French kingdom, a French King, out of France. "The crusaders of Saint Bernard," he says, "started to conquer a foreign land; they did not return to reconquer their own."

We have in Pasquier a witness of a great many of the revolutionary *journées*. It is rather singular to find in his book a number of passages beginning in this way: "I was accidentally going through such or such a street, the day when, etc. . . ." He met accidentally Mlle. Contat of the French Theatre at the storming of the Bastille. He was accidentally at the races at Vincennes, the day when Réveillon was murdered, and saw on his return an insurrectionary movement. It was accidentally that he struck with his foot the body of Foulon in the Rue Richelieu; accidentally that he saw the arrival of the unfortunate Berthier at the Hôtel de Ville. There came a time, however, when Pasquier had to conceal himself in the country. He wandered to Abbeville, to Champigny, a village in the neighborhood of the capital; in his retreat he contrived to get married—he does not say to whom in his Memoirs; he merely says that "it is somewhat difficult to understand how people could then think of anything but their peril, and could dare to be married." His father was arrested and executed; he succeeded in hiding himself a little time longer, but finally was thrown with his wife into the prison of Saint-Lazare. He entered it on the 8th Thermidor, and on the 9th Thermidor Robespierre was hurled from power; a reaction set in, and Pasquier owed his life to this timely revolution. He had seen Louis XVI. on the scaffold, he now saw the execution of Fouquier-Tinville. He established himself at Croissy, where he entered into relations with Josephine de Beauharnais, who was to become the Empress Josephine.

"Chance placed me, one evening at the play, next to a box occupied by two very pretty women who were unknown to me. In the midst of the representation, they received a message. I saw great movements and signs of joy. They went away, and I heard that they were the sisters of Bonaparte, who had just landed from Egypt."

The conduct of Bonaparte on his return was "a prodigy of cleverness"; he kept all parties uncertain of his design, he was a living enigma. Pasquier gives us, with many details, the history of the 18th Brumaire; he does not pretend to give the military history of Bonaparte, but shows us the difficulties with which the First Consul had to contend at home. He is especially familiar with the conspiracies of the Jacobins and the Royalists, as he afterwards became Prefect of Police and had all the original documents in his hands. The conspiracy of Pichegru, his suicide, the arrest of Georges Cadoudal, of Gen. Moreau, of the Prince de Polignac, form an interesting chapter of his book. Bonaparte seemed at one moment to have lived in constant fear of his life.

We come now to the terrible tragedy of the Duc d'Enghien. Pasquier throws almost all the odium of the crime on Talleyrand; it was, if we believe Pasquier, Talleyrand, then Minister of Foreign Affairs, who advised Bonaparte to seize the Duke at Ettenheim, in the territory of Baden:

"The very day the news of the seizure of the Duc d'Enghien arrived at Paris, there was a ball at the Hôtel de Luynes. M. de Talleyrand was there. Somebody asked him in a somewhat low voice: 'But what will you do with the Duc d'Enghien?' He answered: 'He will be shot.' A lady who was close by and heard the question and the answer, told me both the next morning."

Two secret councils had taken place at the First Consul's, where the question of the Duke had been agitated. In this Council, "M. de Talleyrand," says Pasquier, "was of opinion that the greatest possible rigor should be used." All the actors in this fearful drama afterwards tried to exonerate themselves in a degree—Caulaincourt, who was sent to Ettenheim; Réal, Savary, Hulin, the officers who formed the council of war at Vincennes. Talleyrand in his Memoirs takes great pains to do the same thing. Pasquier's testimony is certainly not without value; he maintains that Talleyrand furnished Bonaparte with all the arguments he could use. "The death of the Duke would be in the eyes of the world a just reprisal; he must teach the House of Bourbon that the blows it tried to strike would fall on itself." One thing is certain, the day after the fatal event Talleyrand wrote to the Powers the official despatch in which he explained it in diplomatic style.

Bonaparte always called the Duc d'Enghien "le malheureux" in the conversations which he afterwards had with Talleyrand, on whom he tried to throw a large portion of the responsibility. In the violent scene at their rupture in 1809, he reproached him bitterly with, among many other things, the advice which he had given him in the affair of the Duke. At St. Helena, however, when he wrote his will, he inserted in it with his own hand this paragraph:

"I had the Duc d'Enghien arrested and tried because it was necessary to the safety and the interest of the French people, at a time when the Comte d'Artois had in his pay sixty assassins in Paris; under the same circumstances, I would act in the same manner."

The very haughtiness of this declaration makes us infer that Napoleon could not always think without remorse of the innocent man of twenty whom he had dragged to Vincennes, and shot on the night of his arrival, after the mockery of a military trial. Lamartine says in his beautiful Meditation on Bonaparte, in which he describes him walking on the seashore:

"Et toujours en passant la vague vengeresse
Lui jetait le nom de Condé."

# Correspondence.

## COLOR SENSE IN WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Gratifying as it is to find that I was not mistaken in supposing that woman's immunity from color-blindness can be made into an item in the long list of her weaknesses, if one only takes the trouble to think a little, I have to ask "C.'s" attention to the fact that she is quite inaccurate in saying that I inquire how the comparative freedom of women from color-blindness can be reconciled with the supposed inferiority of the sex. It would be silly to suppose any single trait of superiority to require reconciliation with either a real or a supposed inferiority of the sex, and especially so small a matter as the one in question; and as I imagine it is on the score of silliness that "C." has referred to me as a woman, I have ventured, on the ground of inaccuracy, to place her likewise in the inferior sex.

What I did say, as I have intimated above, is that the peculiarity referred to "must indicate some deep-rooted inferiority." The challenge thus playfully made has been accepted in earnest by "C.," who, however, has not perhaps been entirely successful in meeting it. For, granting that the male has more capacity for variation than the female, it should be mentioned, first, that color-blindness is not an instance of "variation" in the biologist's sense of the word, being in all probability a case of atavism; and, secondly, that the attribution of keener color-sense to the female's interest in the colors of the male does not seem in any way to support the charge of inferiority. As to the absence of great painters among women, much goes to the making of a great painter (not least of all stimulus, sympathy, opportunity) besides keenness of color-sense, and it would be rash indeed to infer from women not being great painters—as "C." does—that the keenest color-sense in women is inferior to that in men. If A's money amounts to a thousand dollars and B's to only ten, is it quite logical to infer that even of copper pennies A has more than B?

X.

July 8, 1893.

### *BORE.*

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Though, as you point out in your 1459th issue, *bore*, whether as a substantive or as a verb, has been current much longer than "only of late years," it may be interesting to some to see a few old authorities for it additional to those produced by Dr. Murray in the *New English Dictionary*. The following exemplifications of it all date upwards of a century back.

The first group of quotations is for the substantive, in the sense of 'thing that annoys,' etc.

"What a terrible *boar* [*sic*] it has been all this day!" Miss F. Burney (1771), *Early Diary* (1889), vol. i., p. 171.

"Books now are become quite a *Bore* to me." Anon., *Learning at a Loss* (1778), vol. i., p. 37.

"One great *bore* was, that the whole room rose," etc. Miss C. A. Burney (1782), in Miss F. Burney's *Early Diary* (1889), vol. ii., p. 303.

"I presently learnt that he considered . . . matrimony as a *bore*." *New Spectator* (1784), No. xxii., p. 6.

"The next change surprized rather than pleased, . . . upon which Folly turned her back and cried 'a *Bore*.'" Robert Bage, *Barham Downs* (1784), vol. ii., p. 4.

"To this . . . he turned an ear of nonchalance, vowed it was an excessive *bore*," etc. Anon., in *Microcosm* (1786), No. vi.

"It was an arrant *bore* to be terrified with the sight of hieroglyphics," etc. Anon., in *Trifler*, No. xxxix. (1789).

As a personal epithet, *bore* is found, by Dr. Murray, first in 1812. Apparently, however, it was not unknown thirty-seven years earlier:

"If you attempt to tell a story, one puppy puts his hand to his cheek, and cries Patch! implying, it seems, that the tale is old, and smells of Joe Miller, and, if you continue your narration a minute and half, another puppy turns to a monkey next him, and whispers, 'what a *bore!* or *boar!*' for I don't know how they spell their nonsense; but (take it which way you will) it is intended to convey an idea of tediousness, and to compare the speaker to a hog or a gimlet." George Colman, *Gentleman*, No. iv. (1775).

Here are some eighteenth century quotations for *bore*, the verb:

"It brings with it a consumed long string of past transactions, that *bore* me to death." "Excuse my *boring* you with these trifles." Anon., *Sylph* (1779), vol. i., pp. 19, 240.

"Oh, I abominate your grave reflections, Sir George; they *bore* one to death." Robert Bage, *Barham Downs* (1784), vol. ii., p. 330.

"The audience . . . were once more *bored* with Harlequin Rambler!" *New Spectator* (1784), No. iv., p. 7.

Of the adjective *bore*, unrecorded by lexicographers, I have come across a single instance:

"I believe, Louisa, I must send you a dictionary of polite phrases, or you will be much at a loss, notwithstanding you have a pretty competent knowledge of the French tongue. I blush twenty times a day at my own stupidity; and then sir William tells me, 'it is so immensely *bore* to blush,' which makes me blush ten times more, because I don't understand what he means by that expression, and I am afraid to discover my ignorance, and he has not patience to explain every ambiguous word he uses, but cries, shrugging up his shoulders, 'Ah! quel sa[u]vage!' and then composes his ruffled spirits by humming an Italian air." Anon., *Sylph* (1779), vol. i., p. 62.

Here is corroborated, in a way, the suggestion of Dr. Murray, based on his citations, that the obsolete word for "boredom," taken subjectively, or "tedium," as also for "a person bored," namely, *bore*, was, together with its cognate verb, derived to us, somehow, from France. Its etymology being still to be solved, it is a pity that Miss Julia Stanley, who epistolizes as above, did not master her blushes, and insist on a full exposition of Sir William's mysterious phraseology. Noticeably, the scholarly Colman did not surmise the presence of an exotic in "what a *bore!*" It may be added that Shakespeare's *bores*, in *Henry VIII.*, is no longer interpreted 'wearies,' 'annoys,' but 'plays upon,' 'makes game of,' 'tricks.'

F. H.

Marlesford, England, June 27, 1893.

### TYPESCRIPT AND TYPOSCRIPT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having used type-writing machines for upwards of ten years—the Caligraph, the Remington, and the Franklin—I have, during nearly all that time, spoken and written of work thus composed as *typoscript*. It is more mellifluous than typescript.—Yours, etc.,

Nathan Haskell Dole.

Boston, July 7, 1893.

## Notes.

This summer witnesses two anniversaries of events closely associated with the history of the literature of sylvan England: one, the centenary of the death of Gilbert White; the other, the tercentenary of the birth of Izaak Walton. The former was celebrated on Midsummer Day (June 24) by a visit of the Selborne Society to the Hampshire village from which it takes its name, where the 'Natural History' and 'Antiquities' gathered their unfailing charm and freshness, and where the present occupier of 'The Wakes' had offered to throw open the house and grounds. On August 9 Stafford, Walton's birthplace, although not, like White's rural parish, his religiously retained home, will be the scene of festivities which are to be attended by representatives from the various angling clubs throughout England. Mr. Alexander Cargill will contribute a paper on the Father of Angling to the August number of one of our magazines, while the autumn will bring forth still another edition of the 'Complete Angler,' to be called the tercentenary edition. The publishers will be Samuel Bagster & Sons; the notes and elucidations of the author's statements, from the point of view of a modern scientific naturalist, will be supplied by the librarian to the Linnean Society, Mr. J. E. Harting. The work, in two quarto volumes, will be an *édition de luxe*, printed on hand-made paper, with plates on Japanese vellum. The illustrations will consist partly of portraits and facsimiles, partly of etchings after paintings by John Linnell, senior, supplemented by drawings, by G. E. Lodge, of birds and riverside animals.

Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London, have in press 'The Story of Louis XVII. of France,' by Elizabeth E. Evans, author of a recent work on 'Caspar Hauser.' She aims to prove that the Indian missionary, Eleazer Williams, was the son of Louis XVI., and to show the futility of the claims of Naundorff and other minor pretenders.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have in press five volumes of selections in prose and verse for the young, called "The Heart of Oak Books." They have been edited by Prof. Charles Eliot Norton and Miss Kate Stephens.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish directly a volume of personal reminiscences of Whittier by Mrs. William Claflin.

Lee & Shepard announce a story of Jewish life, 'Joseph Zalmonah,' by Edward King, and 'Paula Ferris,' by Mrs. Mary Farley Sanborn.

'The Literature of Philanthropy,' soon to be issued by Harper & Bros., will form the second volume of the woman-made "Distaff Series," edited by Frances E. Goodale.

The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, have nearly ready an authorized translation of Prof. E. Mach's 'The Science of Mechanics.'

From the annual report of the Boston Registry Department we learn that Mr. Whitmore is about to print in a pamphlet the city's death returns from 1810 to 1850, a term covering "several periods of extra mortality from fevers, cholera, and lung diseases." Also, that the Record Commissioners have in press a volume of Boston births, deaths, and marriages from 1700 to 1800. The report is curious for a list of Chinese marriages registered in Boston, 1885-1892. The brides had such familiar New England names as Church, Wilson, Chase, Howard, Weeden, Roberts, Bassett, Perry, Fitch, McLean, Leach, McKay, West, Bennett, Locke, Post, White, Comstock, Harrison, Whipple, Franklin, Fletcher, Hayward, Raymond, and Sawyer, to say nothing of Smith and Johnson. The rarity of Irish names is remarkable.

The *Commercial and Financial Chronicle* has issued in bound form its weekly numbers for the first six months of 1893, constituting the fifty-sixth volume of the series. These volumes are, notoriously, an invaluable library of reference on financial history; the tables of weekly security quotations and fluctuations, and the news data in monetary and corporate finance, being compiled with fulness and accuracy not approached in any other publication. The bound volumes include the bi-monthly *Investors' Supplement*, itself a work of convenient form and trustworthy authority regarding the finances and history of railroad and miscellaneous corporations, and the lately introduced *State and City Supplement*, a similar text-book on public securities. A file of the *Chronicle* is indispensable to a financial library.

Prof. Thomson's 'Notes on Recent Researches in Electricity and Magnetism' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) is an excellent work, intended as a sequel to the great 'Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism' of Clerk Maxwell, the first edition of which was published about twenty years since. The author adopts Maxwell's theory absolutely, and has made a very interesting and successful attempt to apply that theory to the recent progress of electrical science. His work is by no means exclusively mathematical. The seven chapters of which it is made up contain all the purely physical details necessary for a clear understanding of the mathematical treatment. The long chapter on the passage of electricity through gases gives a very full account of the best experimental work, and most readers will, we think, find it an especially agreeable and suggestive study. Almost the same may be said of the chapter on electro-magnetic waves, in which is given an account of the memorable researches of Hertz and of most of the work of others in the same direction. Other chapters, again, are more purely mathematical, and, taking the volume as a whole, we must regard it as a very important contribution to physics.

Only a few weeks after the appearance of the English translation of Mme. Arvède Barine's sketch of Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, her sketch of Alfred de Musset was published in Paris as the twenty-fifth volume of M. Jusserand's admirable series, "Les Grands Écrivains Français" (Paris: Hachette; New York: Christern). There are already two biographies of Musset in existence—one by his brother

Paul, and one in German by Paul Lindau—but Mme. Barine's sketch, brief as it is, contains much not hitherto printed. Especially, fresh light is thrown on what may be called the George Sand chapter of Musset's career. The complete Sand-Musset correspondence is in the possession of Mme. Maurice Sand, and Mme. Barine was allowed to inspect it, although Musset's family still forbids the printing of any of his letters. In summing up, she quotes from Lindau, Taine, and Sir F. T. Palgrave; but no notice is taken of Henry James's paper on Musset in his 'French Poets and Novelists.' Mme. Barine formally accuses Paul de Musset of deliberate misrepresentation.

On the 28th of April Prof. Konrad von Maurer of the University of Munich celebrated his seventieth birthday, and, in addition to the congratulations usual on such occasions, received a stately volume entitled 'Germanistische Abhandlungen' (Göttingen: Dietrich), containing treatises by Oscar Brenner, Felix Dahn, and other pupils on Old German and Scandinavian history, literature, language, and law. This broad field Von Maurer's researches more than those of any other scholar have opened up, and in it he is now acknowledged to be the greatest living authority. The essays are in German, Danish, Swedish, and Icelandic, and possess no small amount of interest in themselves, apart from their value as a splendid tribute of personal esteem and an evidence of the far-reaching influence of Von Maurer's labors as a teacher and an author.

*L'Art* is a mother work to many collections from its articles and illustrations, as we have remarked from time to time. In the series "Les Artistes Célèbres," the latest brochure is that on the brothers Van Ostade, by Marguerite Van de Wiele, which is equipped with sixty-five process engravings, of varying degrees of clearness and utility ('Les Frères Van Ostade,' Paris: L. Allison & Cie.; New York: Macmillan). From the same storehouse come two fascicules of 101 plates without letter-press, entitled 'Paysagistes Contemporains.' There is a show of universality, and the arrangement is alphabetical, but France occupies more than half the field, and Russia and the peninsular countries of Europe (but for two Italian landscapes) are quite unrepresented. These memoranda, more or less coarse and inadequate, of course tell something about the original canvases and about the "schools," but they can convey but little pleasure in themselves.

'Kilmât 'Araby' is the title of a pretty text-book published privately at Florence by Prof. Willard Fiske, and being in fact a list of 'Arabic words arranged in the order of the alphabet, with an attached grammar.' The words are from the vulgar Arabic, and the compiler follows the lead of Spitta Bey in seeking to make this language a literary one. With the aid of Mr. Socrates Spiro, who is himself diligently preparing a much more extensive vocabulary, Prof. Fiske has got together about 7,000 words taken down in Cairo or along the Nile, and has appended grammatical paradigms and illustrative sentences—these last intended to show that the spoken language is capable of being used to convey literary and scientific information. He has adopted Spitta Bey's simple and ingenious modification of the Latin alphabet, but discards the semi-vowels, now associated with the greatly corrupted classical Arabic employed by the Egyptian and Syrian press, in which Prof. Fiske sees the marks of caducity.

The *Illustrated Archæologist*, edited by J. Romilly Allen and published in London by Chas. J. Clark, No. 4 Lincoln's Inn Fields, W. C., lies before us in its initial number, for June. The typography is excellent and the illustrations numerous. The opening article is on the making of gun-flints and tinder-flints at Brandon, a village on the borders of Suffolk and Norfolk, and very curious details are given as to the mining of the flint and the fashioning of it. The neighborhood has always been the seat of a flint industry from prehistoric times. The present support of it is found in the demand on the one hand for tinder-boxes in tropical countries, where damp is to be feared in the case of other modes of striking fire, and on the other for flints to replenish the old-time muskets which have been sold to the natives of Africa. In the paper on portable Roman anvils found at Silchester, it is stated that similar ones are now made in Birmingham for export to Spain and elsewhere. Very interesting is the paper "Half-an-Hour in the Grosvenor Museum, Chester." Others relate to precious objects, architecture, etc. There are Notes on Museums, Notes on Archæology, and Notes on Books, all abounding in pictures. The *Archæologist* promises well for entertainment and instruction.

The Munich *Medicinische Wochenschrift* of June 10 contains the first part of an exceedingly interesting article entitled "Die Cholera asiatica eine durch die Cholerabacillen verursachte Nitritvergiftung," and embodying the results of the joint bacteriological researches of Prof. Dr. Rud. Emmerich of Munich and Prof. Dr. Jiro Tsuboi, a Japanese pupil of Dr. Koch. That the comma-bacilli produce nitrous acid and nitrite is no new discovery—bacteriologists have been familiar with this phenomenon for some time; but instead of seeking the cause of the destructiveness of the microbes in this secretion, they have directed their attention chiefly to the poisonous albuminous substances which they have discovered in "cholera-cultures," but which prove to be the contents of the cells of dead bacilli and therefore perfectly harmless so far as the genesis of the disease is concerned. It is the active product of their vital functions, and not any lifeless residuum of decomposition and decay, that works the mischief. By a series of experiments on rabbits, Profs. Emmerich and Tsuboi have shown that the symptoms of cholera and of poisoning by nitrite are perfectly identical in their action on the blood and on every part of the organism. If this discovery is all it purports to be, it is one of the most important hitherto made, inasmuch as its therapeutic application for the suppression and prevention of cholera will be comparatively easy and thoroughly effective.

—Following a line of thought somewhat parallel to that of Mr. Winsor's article on public libraries in the June *Atlantic*, Mr. Edward S. Morse, in the current number of the same periodical, brings forward various arguments in favor of establishing public museums on a similar scale in all local centres. The advocates of education by training the faculty of observation rather than the faculties aroused by book-reading may well maintain that for such purposes a well-organized museum would far outweigh the ordinary library, with its disproportionate circulation of fiction, exciting merely in a loose way the lower functions of the imagination. In directing and training the inquiring, eager mind the museum undoubtedly plays a great part, and no one can deny its importance as an adjunct to the school and to the library; but we doubt whether as a means of popular education the zoölogical or historical museum has yet been proved to possess the virtues that its most earnest advocates claim for it. In other articles in the same number we recognize familiar hands. Sir Edward Strachey describes with quiet grace the varied scenes attendant on a general election in England, and adds a dialogue discussing questions of political welfare and expediency suggested by it; and Harriet Waters Preston and her collaborator contribute a first paper on Petrarch's letters. Interesting, also, is an article aimed against the popular impression that so-called circumstantial evidence is totally distinct from other kinds of evidence, and that proof based on it is scarcely worthy of implicit credence.

—Herman Grimm, in a most instructive essay in the June number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, gives an account of the wonderful effects produced by the stereopticon as a means of teaching the history of art. No other form of reproduction seems to him as well qualified to bring out the essential features of a work of art as this. Permitting one, as it does, to enhance the proportions of the object in question at will, it enables us to subject every line and every curve to the closest examination, and thus renders to the art student the same service which the physicist derives from the microscope. But in some cases the service of the stereopticon is of a still higher nature. Some works of art which, in the artist's imagination, were conceived in colossal dimensions, have through circumstances been prevented from being carried out in their natural grandeur. These the stereopticon restores to their true size. Grimm illustrates this in a most conclusive manner through an analysis of the principal works of Dürer, Holbein, and Rembrandt. Dürer's "Knight, Death, and Devil," for instance, is known to us only through an engraving of a few inches in height. This Herman Grimm threw on the screen, and at once it loomed up before him in such overwhelming statuesque proportions that it was perfectly clear that here was the form in which Dürer's mind originally harbored this gigantic conception, to execute which in its genuine dimensions he found, however, no opportunity. In a similar manner the "Passion," the "Apocalyptic Visions," the "Adoration of the Trinity," when cast upon the screen, seemed to expand and to blossom out into fuller life. The latter work at once took its place by the side of Raphael's "Disputà." As Grimm says himself in his inimitable manner: "It was a new experience for me thus to see Dürer's works at once enlarged and simplified. The master stood before me as one redeemed. It seemed to me as though his pictures for centuries had been held in prison, and were only now freed and permitted to appear what they really are."

—Among the Government exhibits at the Columbian Fair there is a turn-table stack of official publications. These, in gay bindings, attract the eyes of many passers-by, and incline some weary wayfarers to look at their contents. It is a pity so many of them were so carelessly compiled. Seeming to speak with authority, they will stereotype errors in readers who cannot, or will not, "go behind the returns." One attractive volume is a "Statistical Abstract of the United States, Fifteenth No., 1892." In this work one heading is, "Date of admission of new States into the Union," and the date of the act of Congress admitting Wisconsin is given as March 3, 1847. This statement makes that State about fifteen months older than it is represented in hundreds of Wis-

consin books, and so naturally excites surprise. The Abstract, however, cites a supreme authority—the United States Statutes, vol. ix., p. 178. Turning to the volume and page thus referred to, we discover that an act was passed by Congress at the time mentioned in the Abstract, admitting Wisconsin into the Union—not, however, unconditionally, but provided that the electors there should assent to a Constitution which had been adopted by a Territorial Convention December 16, 1846. The writer of the Abstract ought to have ascertained whether that Constitution was assented to. He inferred or fancied that it was, and so was betrayed into error. The truth is, that that Constitution was rejected by 20,431 negative votes, against 14,119 affirmative. The act of Congress was thus nullified, and Wisconsin remained a Territory till May 29, 1848 (see acts of first session of Thirtieth Congress, chap. 50), when it in fact attained to Statehood. As to the admission of other States, there seem to be similar blunders. Indeed, in various points of its make-up the Abstract cannot stand the ordeal of inspection by intelligent men, whether natives or foreigners. It will make them suspect more errors than they detect, and incline them to fear that civil-service reform has not yet completed its perfect work, even in its Washington fountain-head.

—Variously instructive and suggestive is the report on the "Open Competition for Situations as Female Clerk in the Post-office," which took place in London last March. The age of the competing candidates was fixed at from eighteen to twenty years. The salary attached to these female clerkships, those of the lowest class, commences at £65, rising, by £3 annually, to £100; and the incumbents of them are required to resign their appointments on marriage. Promotions to vacancies in the higher classes depend on merit. The hours of attendance are seven daily. At the recent competition the vacancies to be filled were only fourteen, and the competitors for them were 1,162. The subjects examined in were six, namely, Arithmetic, Handwriting, Orthography, English Composition, Geography, and English History, the maximum marks for which were 500 for the first and 300 for each of the rest—the total being 2,000. Handwriting and Spelling were specially tested by Copying and Dictation, respectively. 286 of the candidates failed to qualify in one or more of the obligatory subjects—that is to say, all the subjects but Geography and English History. The marks allotted to the first and the last of the successful candidates were 1,584 and 1,468; those allotted to the first and the last of the unsuccessful candidates, 1,467 and 876. The highest marks allotted were, for Arithmetic, 440, to an unsuccessful candidate; for Handwriting, 278, also to such a candidate; for Orthography, 300, to each of five successful candidates and to each of fifty-four unsuccessful; for English Composition, 240, to an unsuccessful candidate; for Geography, 243, to a successful candidate; and, for English History, 237, to another such candidate. The examination was by no means easy. In English Composition an option was allowed between three subjects; two hours being the time fixed for writing on the one selected. The subjects were: "Relate a Fable, giving its moral from your own experience"; "The Comparative Influence of Home and School Life in the forming of Character"; and "Charles and Mary Lamb." Of these the last was certainly ill chosen, while, as to the second, which is expressed with scant observance of grammatical propriety, few will question that it was much too difficult. The examination here spoken of was superintended by the Civil Service Commissioners; but, in pursuance of a mysterious policy, the public is denied any knowledge of the persons by whom it was actually conducted. Similar examinations, generally two a year, have been held since September, 1881.

—It seems not very generally known to the readers of the daily press that Rear-Admiral Albert H. Markham, whose vessel, the *Camperdown*, annihilated the flag-ship of the British Mediterranean squadron in the recent manœuvres off Tripoli, Syria, was the leader of the advance column of the Polar Expedition of 1875-76, under command of Capt. (Sir George) Nares. The name of no more gallant commander appears in all the annals of Arctic exploration, and the exploits of few travellers have done more to establish a reputation for English pluck and dogged determination than that terrible struggle with the frozen sea which alone retrieved the fortunes of the most elaborately equipped expedition that ever sailed the Northern waters. Markham's "farthest" (83° 20′) has since been eclipsed by the "farthest north" of Lockwood and Brainard (83° 24′, 1882), but this later exploit has in no way diminished respect for an achievement which carried the British standard many miles nearer to the Pole than had been possible before. In the official report addressed to his superior, Markham states: "I feel it impossible for any pen to depict with accuracy, and yet be not accused of exaggeration, the numerous drawbacks that impeded our progress. One point, however, in my opinion, is most definitely settled, and that is, the utter impracticability of reaching the North Pole over the floes in this locality." It was this experience, even more than the outbreak of scurvy, which induced the early return of the expedition, much to the surprise of all England and the disgust of those who had confidently imagined that the Pole had finally been conquered. A popular clamor for court-martial was, through Government influence, quelled by conferring knighthood on the commanding officers. Rear-Admiral Markham is without question one of the first authorities on Arctic exploration, and his opinions on a subject to which he has given the closest study are entitled to the highest consideration. In his work 'A Polar Reconnoissance,' published in 1881, he states his conviction that the Franz-Joseph Land route to the Pole offers greater possibilities than any other—a conclusion in which he is to-day supported by many Arctic "experts," and which had long ago been arrived at by the late Dr. Petermann. It is known to many who have followed recent Arctic developments that Admiral Markham had a longing desire to return to the Polar regions, and it was for some time assumed that he would be associate commander in the Nansen Expedition. Another distinguished member of the same family, Mr. Clements R. Markham—traveller, geographer, and historian—has recently been elected President of the Royal Geographical Society of London.

—Among the great men of classic German literature of the eighteenth century, none, with the possible exception of Klopstock, has been so completely forgotten as Wieland. Yet it is safe to say that in his day none, not even the greatest, exerted a more powerful or wider-reaching influence than he. Not only did his novels and satirical romances, such as 'Agathon,' 'Die Abderiten,' 'Aristipp,' express, in a more popular and striking manner than any other contemporary productions, the rationalistic creed of the time, but his skilful management of the *Teutscher Merkur* and his own frequent contributions to that periodical were by far the most potent single factors towards the creation of an organized public opinion in Germany at the end of the eighteenth century. A curious illustration of this latter point is given by Dr. Richard Fester in his recent monograph, 'Rousseau und die deutsche Geschichtsphilosophie' (Stuttgart: Göschen). Fester makes it perfectly apparent that it was Wieland who fixed Rousseau in the German mind as the advocate of a return to natural primitiveness. It is well known nowadays that this was a decided misrepresentation of Rousseau's views, neglecting as it did the final and most important phase of his thought, and resting exclusively upon the two youthful Dijon prize essays. Yet this falsified and incomplete Rousseau, this imaginary champion of uncultured and unthinking innocence—in short, this Rousseau of Wieland's make—undoubtedly called forth an intenser and more vigorous intellectual reaction than the real and complete Rousseau did. There is hardly a single one among the great German poets and thinkers who, starting from this pseudo-Rousseau standpoint, did not eventually turn against it, each in his own way demonstrating that the future of humanity should be sought in the direction of more highly developed culture rather than in a return to primitive conditions. That Rousseau himself had practically arrived at this self-same conclusion does not take away from the originality of the German movement, nor from the part played in it by Wieland.

—Of late years it has become admitted that the historical method of Tacitus was not so much one of independent research as used to be supposed, but that he was very dependent upon his predecessors for the incidents and the circumstances of his narrative, and that his power lay in the manner and the style of his descriptions rather than in the discovery and setting forth of new truths. If further proof is needed of this belief, it is to be found in M. Philippe Fabia's essay entitled 'Les Sources de Tacite' (Paris: Imprimerie Nationale), which won the Prix Bordin in 1892. Without entering into the details of M. Fabia's arguments, or expressing any opinion upon the truth of the conclusions at which he arrives, we shall merely remark that his contention is that in both the 'Histories' and the 'Annals' Tacitus followed, and followed closely though not slavishly, a principal source. For the 'Histories' that source was the elder Pliny, and for the 'Annals' Clodius. There is, of course, nothing new in these conclusions, for both have already found champions in Germany; but no writer has hitherto gone into the questions so deeply nor treated them so fully. In France and England, indeed, nothing of importance has ever before been written upon the subject. The essay, which is a long one, contains also chapters upon the secondary sources and upon the originality of Tacitus in both his immortal works. It exhibits much study and careful research, and will be indispensable to future investigators, although a question which never, probably, will be answered in such fashion as to convince all the world of scholars.

## PIERCE'S LIFE OF SUMNER.—II.

*Memoir and Letters of Charles Sumner.* By Edward L. Pierce. Vols. III., IV. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1893.

MR. PIERCE is always at his best in his historical passages, and none of them is more com-

pact and forcible than that which introduces his fourth volume with an account of the compromising temper of the North between the election of Lincoln and his inauguration. This passage of history has been written many times, but not elsewhere with so much detail of personal weakness, cowardice, and imbecility. Some of the best as well as many of the worst were implicated in the general collapse. Sumner stood immovably for the preservation of the Union without compromise. He implored Seward not to make the speech of January 12 which Seward blandly read to him in advance. With Charles Francis Adams he protested so vigorously as to break off the friendship which had been growing for fifteen years.

Although of Whig extraction, Sumner was never taken in the snare of a high tariff; when the Morrill tariff was passed, he opposed several of its more radical provisions, and he was always resolute in his interpretation of the war duties as provisional. Made Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations immediately on Lincoln's inauguration, he entered on a course of duty which for ten years was wholly congenial to his taste, and went far to qualify the current criticism on his talent as engrossed by one idea. Generally at variance with Seward on questions touching slavery and reconstruction, it is eloquent for the sobriety of his own temper in dealing with foreign matters and for his disengagement of personal from official matters, that he kept the peace with Seward all those years. With his English friends he did not fare so well. His speech on the *Trent* affair stirred up a vast amount of British indignation, but it went far to reconcile the American people to the surrender of Mason and Slidell. That something sternly practical mingled with Sumner's habitual idealism, was well proved by his relation to this matter. He declared that the Rebel ministers must be given up, at a time when Seward was "elated and jubilant over the capture" and among those approving it were Everett and Cushing, and such distinguished jurists as Joel Parker and Theophilus Parsons. He never for a moment had a different opinion, and for the flimsy grounds adduced by Seward for the surrender he furnished others that involved no humiliation and had the support of international laws, which should not be disobeyed to secure a temporary and unreal advantage. This speech did much to secure for him the confidence of people who had imagined that he was "a mere moralist and reformer." It made him an authority on foreign affairs second to no other until he was degraded from his post. From the *Trent* affair onward his influence upon our relations with England was as pacific as it could be consistently with a decent national self-respect. Mr. Pierce has established this position by exhibiting his humane opposition to letters of marque and reprisal, his treatment of the St. Albans raid, his defeat of the attempt to scale down the neutrality acts in 1866, his opposition to the Retaliation Bill in 1868, and in general by his attitude towards a bumptious anti-English spirit in the Senate. Not less pacific was the speech of April 13, 1869, explaining the action of his committee in rejecting the Johnson-Clarendon Convention. The speech was not a plea for heavy damages, but for such a principle of amity as should actuate a friendly nation in its dealings with another engaged in putting down a pro-slavery rebellion. Like the *Trent* speech, it was "joy of the street, curse of the home" reversed. Well received in America, it put England in a frenzy of astonishment. Mr. Pierce goes over the whole matter carefully, on account of its relation to Sumner's trouble with Grant and Fish a little further on.

This trouble furnishes the most elaborate and painful episode of Mr. Pierce's book. If anywhere he abates something of his judicial temper, it is in his contemptuous estimate of Mr. Fish's ability and performance up to the time of his being made Secretary of State. It is an estimate that reflects severely upon Sumner's great regard for Fish—a regard which intensified a hundred fold the hurt inflicted by Fish's letter of December 30, 1870, to Moran, replying to Motley's of December 7. In that letter Sumner was indicated as "one who uses the words and the assurances of friendship to cover a secret and determined purpose of hostility." Mr. Pierce's caution is not less than usual because he brands this letter and Fish's subsequent treatment of Sumner with the sternest condemnation that he can express. Sumner's great mistake in the San Domingo business, of which Fish's letter to Moran was the most shameful incident, was in not calling on the President, who had called on him to solicit his support for the treaty, and assuring him that he could not support it. It may not be doubted that Grant was entirely confident in his belief that Sumner promised to support the treaty which he afterwards opposed so ardently, and that he was entirely mistaken in his confidence. But for subserviency to the wishes of the President, the treaty would have had few supporters at any time. Fish himself did not care for it, but finally, to humor his chief, pressed Sumner to forego his opposition and offered him the mission to England. Mr. Pierce is more than kind in his acceptance of Fish's apology—that he did not intend the offer for a bribe—as sufficient under the circumstances. Sumner did not yield, and the rejection of the treaty, only in part because of his opposition, was followed the next day by Motley's removal from his post as Minister to England. If the *post hoc* was not a *propter hoc*, the coincidence was remarkable. But to strike at Sumner through his friend was not enough. His relations with Fish continued friendly after Motley's removal and until after the Moran letter. Of course, they could not be friendly after that. His personal relations with Grant had also ceased, and this fact and his breach with Fish were the excuse for removing him from the committee of which he had been a member for twelve years, and chairman for ten. It was the most unkindest cut of all. It hurt much more than Preston Brooks's cane. It struck his weakest part, his self-esteem, which, always abnormally developed, now took on a more portentous bulk, with painful inflammation, and a disturbance of his moral vision in everything that related to Grant. All this reached its climax in his arraignment of Grant as a colossal nepotist and in his support of Greeley in the campaign of 1872. The intensely personal character of Sumner's politics in that year is not to be disguised, and it marks the lamentable injury to his happiness and self-poise wrought by the San Domingo episode.

However valuable the influence of Sumner on our foreign affairs, it was not the most characteristic influence of his Senatorial career. For this we must turn to his anti-slavery polemics for ten years before the war and to his steadfastness in the winter of 1861; next, to his persistent advocacy of emancipation as a proper instrument and only perfect justification of the war; and lastly to his persistency in demanding for the freedmen equal political and civil rights with the white population of the South. He began to urge emancipation upon Lincoln in the spring of 1861; addressing his constituents in the fall of that year, he made the destruction of slavery central to the conflict, and did much to prepare that public sentiment to which Lincoln looked for his support; early in the session of 1861–62 Lincoln replied to Sumner that he was only a month or six weeks in advance of himself; on July 4, 1862, the Senator urged Lincoln to celebrate the day by declaring emancipation, and September 22 came the preliminary proclamation. After that of January 1, 1863, Sumner addressed himself to bringing the action of the Government and the army into harmony with its spirit; to the prevention of slave-catching in the army and the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia; to the suppression of the slave-trade by treaty with Great Britain; and, in general, to meeting slavery, in whichever of its countless shapes it might appear, with ruthless opposition. His relation to the several amendments which gave emancipation constitutional force was the most striking paradox of his career. He was generally indifferent to them and sometimes in opposition. He was consistent here—any constitutional attack on slavery implying its national existence, which he did not admit. Especially obnoxious to him was the provision of the fourteenth amendment bribing the slave States to extend the suffrage to the freedmen with a promise of increased representation. His Civil Rights Bill furnished the only passionate interest of his waning life. He babbled of it with his dying breath. Carried after his death, it was finally adjudged unconstitutional.

The problem of reconstruction engaged him from an early stage of the events that forced it on the public mind. To the assertion, widely current, that Sumner's doctrine of "State-suicide" met with no response, Mr. Pierce replies that it was practically worked out in the extra-constitutional legislation to which we were obliged to resort. Sumner's fight against Lincoln's early scheme of reconstruction was one of the hardest of his life. He developed in it a genius for obstruction that was something new for him and strange, and he accomplished his purpose in the defeat of Lincoln's scheme. How different Lincoln was from Grant is shown by his friendliness to Sumner after the defeat of a measure as dear to him as San Domingo was to Grant. It was a few weeks before his death, and those weeks were marked by special kindness towards the Senator who had opposed him to the bitter end. Sumner's opposition rallied the anti-slavery people to his side, and it is, as Mr. Pierce has written, "to his credit or discredit as a statesman that suffrage irrespective of color or race became fixed and universal in the American system." To make sure of this was the beginning, middle, and end of Sumner's labor and anxiety in the reconstruction times.

Sumner was not favorable to Lincoln's re-election, but Mr. Pierce denies that the movement against him had Sumner's "earnest support and eager instigation," as Hay and Nicolay have written. Yet how miserably imperfect Sumner's appreciation of Lincoln was is shown by his writing to John Bright that "any one of a hundred" could be more easily elected, and by his saying in the same letter, "Mr. Lincoln resembles Louis XVI. more than any other ruler in history." In a collection of contemporary judgments, that would probably have the distinction of being the most utterly absurd. Had Lincoln lived, Sumner would have been his Secretary of State. Under Johnson he had quite another fate: he was soon ar-

rayed among the most eager of his opponents, resisting at every step his policy of reaction. He was also among the first to favor his impeachment, as usual the rush of his moral purpose sweeping away all technical obstructions as of no account.

Mr. Pierce attempts no general analysis of Sumner's character, but, telling the story of his life with beautiful fidelity alike to him and to the truth, he has given us an admirable impression of the man. This was easier because of Sumner's remarkable simplicity. His character had no elements of subtlety or complexity. He had no concealments or disguises. He wore his heart too much "upon his sleeve, for daws to peck at." Even his vanity was so naïve that those who knew him best accepted it as part of his sincerity—saying exactly what he thought where others might have been more shrewd. Evidently he liked to be liked and loved to be loved, and he had what he desired. Something rhetorical and histrionic in his public speech, and something overbearing in debate, was in striking contrast with the manners of his private life. There was nothing patronizing in his relations to the younger men whom he attracted to his side. His secretaries cherished for him a warm affection. His correspondence, without emasculation, is wonderfully free from the asperity which so often vitiates the mutual regards of public men. Quick to take offence, he seldom nursed his wrath. That his best friends were Longfellow and Theodore Parker, Whittier and Lydia Maria Child, shows that he loved the simplest and the best. There has been much exaggeration of the sumptuousness of his way of living. Hundreds of men in the country have a single picture which could not be bought for all his books and bronzes, paintings and engravings. His taste in the matter of paintings and engravings appears to have been imperfectly developed. He was a man the dealers liked to have approach them. His taste in other things was not always what we should expect from one of the most cultivated statesmen of his time. There was often a fly in the ointment—some foreign substance in his speeches and orations marring their unity and effect. He had not the self-restraint to put aside the show of learning which often made their moral value less than it would otherwise have been.

Mr. Pierce has shown that Sumner was much more than a political anti-slavery reformer; but he was this from first to last with a consistency in remarkable contrast to the stumblings and the haltings, the twistings and turnings of some others. The course of Mr. Pierce's narrative is strewn with the wrecks of political hopes and reputations, where Sumner held his course right on and never wavered for a day or hour. Not many lives are made so entirely of one piece. Mr. Pierce's volumes, with a hundred incidental qualities to instruct and entertain, have their best justification in the impression that they make of a great and good man devoted to one sacred purpose from the beginning to the end of his political life.

## MORE FICTION.

*The World of Chance.* By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros.

*Children of Destiny.* By Molly Elliot Seawell. D. Appleton & Co.

*The Odd Women.* By George Gissing. Macmillan & Co.

*Island Nights' Entertainments.* By R. L. Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*The Story of a Story*, and Other Stories. By Brander Matthews. Harper & Bros.

*Stories of a Western Town.* By Octave Thanet. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*The Stickit Minister*, and Some Common Men. By S. R. Crockett. Macmillan & Co.

*Sally Dows*, and Other Stories. By Bret Harte. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*Merely Mary Ann.* By I. Zangwill. Raphael Tuck & Sons.

*Squire Hellman*, and Other Stories. By Yuhani Aho. Translated from the Finnish by R. Nisbet Bain. Cassell & Co.

FEW figures are more engaging in fiction than the young man from the country who arrives in the city with no capital except his ideas and virgin enthusiasm, confident that fame awaits him. Whether, to use the sacred phrase, he "comes up to the metropolis" on foot, with blonde locks tossing and his wild harp slung behind him, or by train, with a roll of manuscripts under his arm, the story of his vicissitudes is sure to command interest and sympathy. He attracts the young because they share his courage and assurance of coming out all right; and he touches springs of tenderness in the old because they remember how that fine scorn of disaster once was theirs, and because they foresee some possibilities of his making a false step or two and coming out all wrong.

In choosing such a figure for the hero of 'The World of Chance,' Mr. Howells had, of course, no intention of trading on ready-made sentiment; on the contrary, he spares no conscientious effort to destroy a romantic predilection for his aspiring novelist, Ray, by giving his defects of nature their full value. Mr. Howells does not write about people in order that the reader may, first of all, like them, but that he may understand them and recognize the truth of the delineation, then profit thereby according to his capacity for inference. If it is often impossible to cherish any fondness for those characters in whom the fidelity and subtlety of his representation are indisputable, the fact is uncomplimentary only to our species, not to Mr. Howells. Still, in Ray's case, there seems to be no sufficient reason for depriving us of preconceived affection. A trifle more of sensibility to afflictions not his own, a more frequent generous deflection from the direct line of self-interest, and the value of his character, either as an expression of art or as a lesson in conduct, would not have been diminished. He would be a pleasanter person to know when his youth lies behind.

The adventures of Ray during his first year in New York do not strain credulity; if they show how much in life depends on chance, they also prove how much more depends on character. Life brings a queer assortment of treasure and of dross to our feet; it is the faculty to select and the force to keep and use that make destiny. The episode most interesting for its own sake is that which brings Ray in close contact with the Hughes family. The chapters devoted to these examples of the failure of community life to insure happiness are strong in feeling, and touched with a hopelessness about the practicability of any scheme yet devised for the permanent mitigation of human misery. The sketches of Mr. Hughes and his demented son-in-law, Denton, impress vividly the power of constant contemplation of social injustices and evil to unhinge a very keen intellect and to drive a morbidly emotional man mad. In permitting Mrs. Denton to tell her dying father the comforting lie which the clever, upright sister dares not speak, the author makes one of his nicest distinctions in feminine character. Reckless unveracity is characteristic of the "fool-woman," and, on occasions such as this, justifies her existence. The other episodes describe Ray's struggle to get on and to get in with heartless publishers and editors. Here we have pages of "shop" talk which may be dull reading to the general public, but is saturated with the wisdom of experience. It is, besides, invaluable for convincing any who may doubt that, so long as Mr. Howells remains with us, genuine wit will not become extinct.

The author of 'Children of Destiny' apparently doubts the determinative influence of character for good or ill, or at all events believes it to be subject to *Ananké* assuming the form of a family doom. Her chief figure is Mr. Richard Skelton, a Virginian land and slave-owner, born seventy years ago and fortunately able to enjoy his property without any question of right or righteousness. Skelton is rather an interesting person, of marked individuality, but we cannot let ourselves go with him heartily, because, from sundry hints, we have gathered that, at the moment when we should most wish him to abide with us, he will, in accordance with family precedent, depart for another world. Doubtless there are families that seem to enjoy a prescriptive right to tragedy of one sort or another, but to insinuate its inevitableness at the beginning of a story is to give an impression of inability to complete it without resort to a very common trick of the trade. Miss Seawell is too thoughtful and original a writer to need to eke out her store with paltry conventions of romance, and it is a pity that, having set out to write a tragedy, she should not have contrived something more impressive than a family tendency to early death. If one can forget the impending catastrophe, there is much to enjoy in the delineation of unusual characters and in the pictures of social life. Miss Seawell has probably grasped pretty exactly the kind of splendor which prevailed in the splendid old South, and which has dazzled the eyes of so many enthusiastic and imaginative chroniclers. The penalty of perpetual lotus-eating is intellectual and spiritual death; and when we are invited to consider what the slaveholding aristocracy had not, we are less moved to envy what it had or to exaggerate its magnificence.

Miss Seawell's novel is from every point of view good enough to make it worth while to call attention to her lapses into slovenly English. She is addicted to "did have" for "had" or "had had," and scruples not to employ both "which" and "who" as relatives to the same noun in one sentence. Local usage is probably responsible for such phrases as "telling goodbye" and "liked to have fallen through." These are only a few examples of slips of the pen or inattention to detail in composition sufficiently numerous to disfigure her work.

One of the most encouraging signs of the times is the recognition of the virtues of the "old maid." Unless she is rich, she is not yet accorded any particular social status, but she is no longer an object for contumely and derision, and it is generally conceded that she is not necessarily either an old cat or an old fool. When she gets a novel written in her praise and honor (euphemistically called 'The Odd Women'), she may be said to have cast off the last shred of disability. If half that Mr. Gissing affirms and predicts about them is true, the hope of the future certainly lies in our old maids. Through the intemperance of partisanship he has perhaps put a scourge in the hands

of the enemies of that class which he wishes to exalt, the self-supporting unmarried women. His examples of marriage go to show that that institution is a failure, and the drift of his conclusions on sexual relations is in favor of the *union libre*. "We told you so," cry the conservators of morals; "freedom for women means license and the sacred hearth gone to the dogs!" Far be it from them to read patiently and to learn that Mr. Gissing points to the voluntary relation between men and women only as the far-off ideal consummation of human striving towards self-knowledge, self-reverence, and self-control. But the time is not yet, and we go so far with the adorers of home and humdrum as to fail to see that its coming is in the line of social progress. The great thing is for society to give the odd women a fighting chance, and to consider with charity those who fall in the fray.

The story in which the 'Odd Women' are thus ably championed is excellent both for construction and for characterization. The novel with a good purpose is too apt to be a very bad novel, and it is a pleasure to testify that Mr. Gissing's is, in spite of and on account of its intensity of purpose, an uncommonly good one.

Satan is presumably still roaming about this planet seeking whom he may devour, and there is no spot so out of the way or unlikely that he can't at least catch an author looking for local color. We should not regret too bitterly his making a meal of Mr. Stevenson, unless that gentleman would promise to desist from writing stories about the heathen, white and tinted, who inhabit the isles of the Pacific. In the volume entitled 'Island Nights' Entertainments,' three very slim tales are, by the assistance of large type, wide margins, and many illustrations, spread over more than two hundred pages. The last two tales deal with the supernatural, and though they may contain elaborate satire upon Kanaka vices and peculiarities, we prefer to class them as specimens of Oceanic folk-lore. By this expedient Mr. Stevenson is relieved from responsibility for their existence, and the learned are made quite free to note a subtle significance, obscured for the vulgar by apparent childishness of motive and limpid, simple expression. "The Beach of Falesá" is, however, a story, and, though not planned in any accurate sense of the word, is very deliberately executed by Mr. Stevenson. The harangues of the noble savage are notoriously tedious, and Mr. Stevenson's narrative style appears to have become infected with that quality through continued pow-wowing with Samoan grandees. Besides, he has seemingly forgotten that his public is not exclusively engaged in the copra traffic, and can therefore not be expected to take the wild interest in the vicissitudes of that industry which doubtless perpetually agitates the Samoan breast. Whatever the reason, the narrative is inconsequent and dull, and the narrator, Mr. Wiltshire, offensively coarse. Could Burns have known Mr. Wiltshire, he would have regarded him as a concrete and direct answer to his prayer for the "giftie" to see ourselves as others see us. The copra-trader's description of himself is a most luminous and just bit of self-analysis: "I'm just a trader; I'm just a common, low, God-damned white man and British subject, the sort you would like to wipe your boots on."

Mr. Matthews's latest volume also owes much of its size to margin and blank spaces. Every excuse for illustration has been seized, but the excuses are comparatively few. It is always unpleasant to comment disparagingly on any work of a man whose work is mostly admirable, but in this volume Mr. Matthews does little more than show how neatly and aptly he can say nothing, or, at best, things little worth the saying. He dedicates, or, as he says, "inscribes," the volume to Mr. Aldrich, "from whom I learnt the trade of story-telling." By the trade he probably means the method by which the best effects in words can be produced; and the joy of conscious perfection in that may have led him to believe that a story need be nothing more than a brilliant exercise in composition. But the masses, learned and illiterate, critical and thoughtless, differ from him, and agree that a story which has no definite point, no continuous interest heightening to the finish, is not a story at all. We do not mean to imply that the stories are without incident, but that the incidents, except that of "Two Letters," are trivial and aimless. Excessive attachment to the form rarely goes along with vigorous idea and vivid imagination, and the devoted stylist frequently arrives at barren artificiality and affectation. Mr. Matthews is still far from this unhappy consummation, but "A Cameo and a Pastel" may compel his admirers to take a somewhat gloomy view of his future.

In striking contrast to these vain and dainty words are 'Stories of a Western Town.' Octave Thanet's style is not noticeably good or bad, and her claim on attention rests upon her faculty for selecting for stories subjects and characters that any one can understand and every one must feel. Her perception of the nearness of tears and laughter in life is very acute, especially when dealing with certain sensitive, reticent spirits, whose worries and cares would present only one aspect to a less keen observer. Her affair is, in fact, with the mind and heart of man, and not with his clothes or his form of speech or his way of eating his dinner. "Tommy and Thomas" is the cleverest of the stories, though it has, too, more of the conventional stuff of fiction than any other. We are all painfully familiar with the ways by which Tommy rose from no condition at all to that of first citizen of the State, and we could more readily forgive his likes and equals their political iniquities if we had any reason to suppose that they were half as good fellows at heart as was the Honorable Thomas Fitzmaurice. Mr. Frost's illustrations of the volume demand a word of praise, especially the drawing in "Tommy's funny picture."

A similar faculty for seizing and reproducing the feeling which gives importance to ordinary character and simple situations is shown in the collection of Scotch stories entitled 'The Stickit Minister.' There are twenty-five stories or sketches in the volume, most of them very short, and almost exclusively given up to the "minister." A favorite trick of politicians is to excoriate the Irish by eulogies of Scotch patience and fortitude under political inequality, if not injustice. Orators ignore, or are really ignorant of, the fact that every parish in Scotland has a perpetual outlet for spleen and discontent in the person of the "minister." The people regard their spiritual counsellor as an object of common property. They "call" him, they pay his generally paltry "stipend," and they own him body and soul. Great outward respect is shown him, and his virtues are probably appreciated in secret, but his personal liberty of thought and action is ruthlessly invaded on all sides, and the parish wit is kept alive at his expense. Any one who can read Scotch dialect will learn from Mr. Crockett just how much fun the people get out of the situation; also the various degrees of death suffered by the "minister" till he "flits."

The scene of Bret Harte's 'Sally Dows' is laid in the South during the period of reconstruction. The old legend of a Northern soldier finding the portrait of a lovely lady next the heart of his dead foe, and of his subsequent quest for the damsel, is furbished into an appearance of novelty. Excepting the remarkable dialect, which is the peculiar property of Mr. Harte's Southerners, there is nothing attributed to Miss Dows which suggests the scion of Virginian aristocracy. She is altogether of the "breezy," indeed cyclonish, Western type—a good-tempered girl with no end of go, and a sparkling central figure for an entertaining story. Another Virginia "lady" figures in "Mrs. Bunker's Conspiracy," known by the dialect. Mr. Harte's "real ladies" are always rather dreadful persons, but Mrs. Fairfax is clothed with exceptional terrors. Mrs. Bunker, who was "no lady," resembles that indescribable entity the more closely of the two. The conspiracy is very well devised, and the reasons given for its collapse are the best imaginable. The two remaining stories were probably printed to make up a volume.

'Merely Mary Ann' is the first number of a series called "The Breezy Library." Breezy is a hard-worked word, and there is no good in contending that it would be improperly used in describing anything in heaven above or on earth beneath. Therefore, let it be accepted as correctly descriptive of a gloomy, indeed sordid and morbid, tale of a gentleman who kissed a chambermaid and the consequences of the deed. In the beginning Mr. Zangwill makes several attempts at humor, but soon gives that up, doubtless feeling his sportiveness to be so very sad that the elastic "breezy" could never be strained to fit. Mr. Zangwill knows the world, and is especially familiar with its shady side and its seamy side, and with those phases which offer interesting and complex problems for elucidation. There is a very large novel-reading public, with ideas and literary taste, that he is well fitted to entertain, yet he abandons it for the public that wants 'Mary Ann.' Perhaps the publisher's bribe, the label "breezy," may have seduced him from the ways of wisdom and common sense to which he may again return.

The Finn is a fortunate person of whom little is known and nothing expected; therefore most people would be sufficiently surprised and pleased by the volume entitled 'Squire Hellman' without the translator's prefatory laudation. The title story is a good sketch of a cantankerous and rude old man, and the situation into which his evil temper forces him is broadly comic. The other sketches can hardly be regarded as fiction, for they are no more than scraps or paragraphs from life literally transcribed. The author has strong feeling and some art, but the work translated is too slight to show the length of his tether or to prove any wide-felt need for the Finn in literature.

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*B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773–1783.* Vol. XVI., Nos. 1545 to 1600. January, 1893. London: B. F. Stevens.

With a few exceptions, particularly of Nos. 1584 and 1585, all the documents of volume xvi. are of interest and have at least a relatively important bearing upon the continuity of the narrative. Of the fifty-six numbers, eighteen are despatches, generally "most secret," from Lord Stormont to Lord Wey-

mouth. On several occasions that insistent Ambassador favors his Minister with as many as three lengthy papers dated the same day. In all he tells the same story of pushing his complaints upon Vergennes with constant vigor if not with immediate effect. The polite, able, and equally honorable French Minister of Foreign Affairs seems always to have listened with admirable fortitude to the almost daily repetition of the same reasonable objections, to have admitted with candor what he could not deny, and to have set about actively, as is seen in his frequent despatches, redressing such open violations of treaty as required instant remedy. The main contention of the English Ministry centres, with increasing directness, upon the American privateers and upon the curious condition of Franco-American commerce seemingly tolerated by the French Court. Dunkirk, Saint Malo, and Martinique are the objective points of Stormont's attack; while Hodge, Wickes, and Cunningham are the names most often in dispute, amid the endless assertions and assurances, reassertions and reassurances. Were it possible to read these papers in a wholly unrelated way and without the memory of subsequent disparagements, by their own acts, of the finely drawn arguments here urged by the English, it would be difficult indeed not to sympathize in the main with the course of their diplomatic conduct as manly and unyielding. Stormont certainly, in his letters to Weymouth, appears to better advantage than does Vergennes in the few here given from the latter to Noailles at London. In the light of history, and in the clear atmosphere which surrounds these intensely veracious documents, it becomes no longer a question of principles, but a contest of personalities.

In the first place, Stormont was not an easily deceived man; that he recognized himself at the best to be playing a close game is plain enough. In No. 1557 he writes: "I am convinced they wish to wound, but, weighing every Circumstance as well as I can, I do not think them ready for War, or willing to provoke it, and am persuaded that they will wait at least to see the Fate of this Campaign." It is difficult to understand, and the motive nowhere reveals itself in this volume, why Stormont chose to unbosom his feelings in the way he did to Maurepas. If Vergennes was not then an open friend to the "Insurgents" or to Beaumarchais and his marvellous business concern of Rodrique Hortalez et Cie., the trifling President of the Council of State certainly was. This careless and purposely forgetful Maurepas could not have deceived where the evenness of Vergennes wholly failed. It is probable that Stormont echoed in his heart the sentiment of D'Aranda, "Je cause avec M. de Maurepas, je négocie avec M. de Vergennes." The period covered by this volume ends with August 8, 1777, two months before Burgoyne's defeat and four months before the settlement for which Stormont had so steadily striven, yet which proved so contrary to his anticipations. To the requests and finally to the menaces of the English Ministry, Vergennes had constantly been acquiescing in much the same spirit in which a boy will pay out the string of a kite which is cutting his fingers off; partly because it was the best thing to do, and partly because he must.

To come back to the personal element in this affair, it is also evident that Vergennes understood Stormont. This is seen in one of his despatches (1590) to Noailles, in which he remarks: "He has no moderation except on entering my closet. It is said that he is longing to go to Scotland to build a country-house there with the fruit of his savings; this motive, as you see, well deserves that several hundreds of thousands of men should be shot or perish, and perhaps a greater number be ruined." For discerning "comments" of this sort, Stormont shows no relish; his forte, in his own estimation, was to drive things "home" to Vergennes, and on the whole he did it in a homely and direct fashion, English-wise, and after a while this persistency had its result upon Vergennes. On one occasion, however, Stormont allowed himself a rather wide departure from his diplomatic rectitude. He asserts in No. 1568 that he told Vergennes of news from America to the effect that the "Rebel Emissaries" had said to Congress in substance as follows: "We do not see the French Ministers often, but we frequently see those who are deputed by them—which comes to the same thing; they give us every assurance of friendship and express the strongest desire of our success; they say that we are able to defend ourselves, and wish not to interfere for the present, but they declare they will run every Hazard rather than suffer Great Britain to reduce us to Obedience; and in the meantime, they promise us every secret succour." On the same page he admits that he did not in the least gain this interesting news from American sources. This personally convenient use of language Stormont calls putting his remarks "into Historical Shape." Vergennes was the last person to be hoodwinked in this way, although he could not gainsay the general truths brought out by this sort of indirection. Writing later a little more nervously than usual to Weymouth, Stormont tells of the report that Franklin and Deane have been urging the acceptance of the Treaty of Alliance. The story ran that Sartine, whom Stormont would call Sartines, zealously spoke to Vergennes, who dissuaded him, and "made use of this extra[ry] expression Il n'est pas Tems encore."

But besides these two astute statesmen there was another *dramatis persona*, with whom Stormont, as is evident enough now, felt it necessary to reckon. In the second of two despatches of the same day he records himself as saying to Vergennes: "We sir shall never consider any Articles that relate to *Nations* as applicable to these Rebels any otherwise than as what is called an Argument *a fortiori*" (No. 1568); in the preceding despatch (No. 1567), however, to Weymouth he quotes himself as follows: "I have observed Sir with great Regret, that when I have made Representations to you, they have been attended to for the Moment, and fair Promises made, but some secret invisible influence, has always counteracted my Representations, and rendered your promises without effect." Behind all these things which baffled him, Stormont seems here to have reluctantly hinted at the influence of Franklin, who, almost unrecognized as yet, was silently impressing France by his generous abilities and his charm of manner, never idle, yet never seeming to act. Against this individuality mere diplomacy was growing powerless. Stormont practically admits it all when he exclaims, almost in exasperation, to Vergennes, who urges rather feebly that he has only seen Franklin twice, "Il est Tout excepté un Sot" (No. 1556).

The method of arrangement of this collection still appears to be mysterious. It certainly is not strictly chronological, for in vol. iv. the Burgoyne defeat was well over, and France had made the desired concessions, while here we are, in vol. xvi., back among the intricacies which preceded these events. If it has been the plan of the editors to group documents in such a way as to dispose of definite events or episodes, it is hard to explain the introduction into the midst of the Stormont-Vergennes papers of the two highly interesting numbers 1571 and 1573—the only two papers giving direct news from America. The first is from Brigadier-General Simon Fraser to his kinsman John Robinson, dated "Skeensborough," and relating to his attempt to keep open the line of communication between "Ticonteroga" and Crown Point, and to his investiture of the former place and of Mount Independence. His account is graphic of a sharp action at Huberton, when 2,000 Americans and 850 British met. Fraser was supported by Riedesel, who, after the engagement, started off on his own account, being Fraser's senior officer, towards Skenesborough, making, according to Fraser, "a march rather more rapid than when he moved to my support." No. 1573 is a letter to the Earl of Dartmouth from Col. Philip Skene, full of adulation over the condition of things under Burgoyne, from whose breast "flows every degree of humanity." Skene was one of the picturesque lesser figures of the royal side, and it was he who, it will be remembered, in a spirit of mock humility, signed himself on the parole of honor after Saratoga as "a poor follower of the British Army."

For good reasons the translations are literal rather than idiomatic, but occasional slips need attention, as, "the motives of which you have been informed of" (No. 1578), and "that no captive or capture be allowed to remain nor receive any help" (No. 1581). Neither the technical beauty nor the general purpose of these facsimiles would in any wise suffer if, in the case of the more faded documents, the dimmed lines and words should be lightly restored with a pen before the impression for the final work is taken. Great convenience to scholars, especially to those with senescent eyesight, would be secured by such a restoration of No. 1592, which is a conspicuous instance of the difficulties attending the reading of a too precise reproduction of an obliterated original. It is of interest to note that Nos. 1583, 1584, and 1586 are three of the twelve papers captured on the *Lexington*—three already having been issued in previous volumes.

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*The Great Barrier Reef of Australia:* Its Products and Potentialities. By W. Saville Kent. With a chart, 48 mezzotype plates, 16 chromo plates, and figures in the text. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1893. 4to, pp. xii, 387.

SINCE the appearance of Dana's magnificent 'Report on the Zoophytes of Wilkes's Exploring Expedition' nothing has been published containing so much new information regarding polyps as the superb volume before us. It contains a popular account of the fauna of the Great Barrier Reef by W. Saville Kent, Commissioner of Fisheries to the Government of West Australia. The report is also interesting to the naturalist from the detailed account, accompanied by colored figures and photographs, of numerous species of corals taken from life. Unfortunately, the colored sketches are not as successful as the photographs. The chromolithographic plates of the fishes, the sea-anemones, the holothurians, the alcyonarians, and echinoderms, as well as of other animals living upon the reef, can hardly be compared for accuracy or for beauty to such illustrations as accompany Dana's 'Zoophytes,' Semper's 'Holothurians of the Philippine Islands,' or some of the colored sketches of tro-

pical fishes published by the Godeffroy Museum.

Mr. Kent has, nevertheless, done more for those who have never had the good fortune to visit a reef than all the descriptions of former writers. He is not only an excellent naturalist, but also a most skilful photographer. The forty-eight photo-mezzotype plates give us pictures of the Great Barrier Reef of Australia of the greatest beauty. It is difficult to imagine that any illustrations could convey to one who has not seen a coral reef so admirable an idea of its structure and appearance. The greater number of the reefs which have been described are found in districts where the tide has but little rise and fall, so that naturalists have usually limited their accounts of a growing reef to what could be seen through a water-glass, and from a boat floating over the submerged reef. Mr. Kent worked in a region where the tide has, in some cases, a range of eighteen feet, and was thus able to photograph extensive tracts or detailed portions left bare at very low tides. In some cases his camera has even reproduced patches of corals below the surface, so that it becomes an easy matter to imagine these vast fields of corals as they would appear when covered by the rising tide. The great rise and fall of the tides, subjecting parts of the reef to extreme atmospheric influences, naturally explains the existence of extensive tracts of dead corals between the living banks and high-water mark.

As Fish Commissioner, our author naturally devotes a good part of his volume to the practical side of his subject. He has interesting chapters on the pearl and the oyster-fisheries, and deals also in a very interesting manner with the holothurian fishery, which is the most important of the Queensland marine industries, yielding about £23,000 a year. The bêche-de-mer are collected by hand at low water and are prepared entirely for the Chinese market. As their food consists mainly of foraminiferal sand, they can hardly be called succulent. As soon as collected the holothurians are boiled for a short time, split open, gutted and smoked, and are shipped when dry and crisp. To a European they are not attractive, looking like so many charred sausages; as eaten in Japan, cut up in small slices and thoroughly disguised by the sauce in which they are served, they become nearly as palatable as a piece of cartilage properly seasoned.

While we owe to Mr. Kent so valuable an account of the appearance of the Great Barrier Reef, he has added comparatively little to the description given by Jukes, between 1842 and 1846, so far as it relates to the general theory of the formation of coral reefs. The discussion by Mr. Kent of the coral-reef theory is limited to a reproduction of its essential points as given by Darwin, to a short statement of its acceptance by Dana, and further to the practical adoption of Bonney's objections to the attacks on the Darwinian reef theory by Murray and others. Even granting that subsidence has been in many districts the principal factor in the formation of coral reefs, it by no means follows that subsidence is the only explanation for the formation of coral reefs in an equal number of other districts. Many of those who oppose the Darwinian theory merely state that it is not sufficient to explain the simultaneous existence of fringing reefs, of barrier reefs, and of atolls in certain areas, and they look for simpler natural causes to explain their growth. It is no answer to their arguments to call the atolls of those regions pseudo-atolls, or to exclude them altogether, as is frequently done, from the discussion.

The bases for the growth of corals may as well have been formed by elevation as by subsidence; there is no greater improbability in the one than in the other theory. In fact, many of the observations made by Mr. Kent fully support the objections to the theory of subsidence as explaining the formation of all coral reefs; and were he more familiar with the recent literature on the subject, he would have learned that the coral-reef theory is not quite as simple as he gives his readers to understand. It is becoming more and more apparent that nothing short of a renewed study of the elevated reefs of some favorable locality, coupled with borings carried to great depths through an atoll in a region of subsidence as well as through the outer edge of a barrier reef, will once for all settle questions which are now answered by more or less lucky guesses.

Mr. Kent looks for the conditions of subsidence which have made the formation of the Great Barrier Reef possible in the former undoubted connection of Australia with Tasmania and New Guinea; and if that is not satisfactory, he is quite ready to call upon a still greater subsidence of the Australian Continent as shown by its presumed connection with New Zealand. If, as is probable, and as Mr. Kent suggests, the Great Barrier Reef existed as a narrow fringing reef in the late Tertiary, there has elapsed more than ample time also for its transformation into the Great Barrier Reef of to-day from other causes than those called upon by him. The Great Barrier Reef has entirely obliterated the Australian coast-shelf itself, and it may have found upon that all the conditions of depth necessary for the vigorous growth, both vertically and laterally, of the original insignificant fringing reef of the northeastern coast of Australia.

The Government of Queensland is to be congratulated upon having placed so competent a naturalist as Mr. Kent in charge of the exploration of the Great Barrier Reef, and also upon having published so valuable a contribution to marine zoölogy. Nothing would do more for the practical objects which the Government has in view than the establishment in Torres Strait of the Biological Station suggested by Mr. Kent. The problems which the fisherman wishes to have solved can be attacked by naturalists only when working continuously at a spot so admirably located for all marine investigations as Thursday Island, and within easy reach of the rich fauna of the Great Barrier Reef.

We may state for the benefit of instructors and others that twelve of the characteristic reef views have been enlarged for use as illustrations, and are to be obtained separately from the publishers. Lantern slides of any of the photographs can also be purchased.

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*Japan As We Saw It.* By M. Bickersteth. With a Preface by the Bishop of Exeter. Illustrated. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. xvi, 354.

THIS is a pleasing account of a twenty weeks' trip over the beaten tracks of travel in Japan in the autumn of 1891. Written by an Englishwoman, the daughter of one bishop and the sister of another, it recounts, in diary fashion, but with a smooth and quiet straightforwardness of style, all the details of the journey, from the scenery of the St. Lawrence at one end to the chimes of Exeter Cathedral ringing a welcome home at the other. But the title of the volume should have been '[The Church of England Mission in] Japan As We Saw it.' This was the object of the tour, and this is the scheme of the book. Incidentally much else is noted down, but scarcely anything that is not found already in other books of travel. Of Christian missions in general there is a studious effort, once in a while unsuccessful, to see nothing and to say nothing. Naturally the writer's peculiar point of view affects all her observations. The Japanese are regularly termed "heathen"—country, people, institutions, and religion. This narrowness often results in statements deliciously ridiculous in their simple-mindedness; *e. g.*, "We could see with our own eyes what my brother called 'the Christian look' in the faces of those who had been reached by the Mission. We could note the effects of long, unbroken heathenism on the thousands who, of necessity, were left untouched." Apparently the "Nonconformist" American missions do not succeed in producing this "Christian look."

The writer's cast of mind has prevented her, moreover, from doing justice to some topics very germane to her chosen subject. For instance, there is scant mention of the work and personality of Archdeacon Shaw, who is one of the truest Christians and noblest workers in that country—probably the most popular missionary (alike with Japanese and foreigners) in Japan to-day, if we except Dr. Hepburn (now absent) of the Presbyterian Mission, and possibly Dr. Verbeck of the Dutch Reformed Mission. The author's brother, "the Bishop in Japan," would have a very different showing to make for his jurisdiction if he had not Archdeacon Shaw as his viceroy in Tokio. But, of course, his sister could not be expected to see this in a twenty weeks' tour under the guidance of "my brother, the Bishop in Japan." However, everybody who has ever lived in Japan knows what a sterling work the Archdeacon has accomplished, even if his bishop's sister does not.

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*Joseph Bonaparte en Amérique*, 1815–1832. Par Georges Bertin. Accompagné d'un Portrait. Paris: Librairie de la *Nouvelle Revue*. 1893. 8vo, pp. 423.

M. BERTIN traces his subject from Joseph Bonaparte's arrival in this country, through his daily life, his various peregrinations, his establishment at Bordentown, his correspondence with relatives and friends—making a very minute study of a man and a career really of little importance or interest. Joseph Bonaparte fills a small place in the long roll of distinguished foreigners who have made this country a temporary place of refuge, but, coming as he did just on the fall of Napoleon, and representing the family by right of seniority, he naturally attracted a good deal of attention and drew around him many of his countrymen. He shared the belief, then current abroad, that the ownership of a large body of land would be serviceable; indeed, there was some rumor that he intended bringing together all the Frenchmen loyal to his famous brother, and in some way rescuing him from St. Helena and restoring him to power in Europe. At all events, he bought from Le Ray de Chaumont—an agent for Mme. de Staël, who was one of the large number of French people owning land in this country—a vast body of land on Black River in Northern New York, said to contain one hundred and fifty thousand acres. There he gave small farms to a few French settlers, mostly old soldiers in exile, but finally sold

the remainder to John Lafarge of New York for $80,000, about half its cost. Then, upon looking over the country, he bought at Bordentown, N. J., a farm of more than eighteen hundred acres, at a cost of $106,000, and spent a very large sum, said to be $150,000, in building and laying out the grounds. He brought over from Europe many valuable pictures and much fine furniture, relics of his successive thrones in Naples and Madrid, and, what with occasional visits from his daughters and a large family of French companions and dependents, he maintained a degree of state then quite unknown in this country. Finally, on the death of the Duke of Reichstadt, Napoleon's son, once King of Rome, he returned to Europe to be the head of the family, and to maintain a system of intrigue that revealed, if need were, his utter incapacity to represent the name once made famous by his younger and greater brother. He sold his old masters in London and Paris for more than $130,000—a large sum for those days, leaving only those sold in Philadelphia in 1845, which have supplied so many doubtful pictures "from the gallery of Joseph Bonaparte." He had a house full of fine furniture of the Empire, bronzes, candelabras, decorations from the Luxembourg Palace, portraits and busts of the family, pictures of Napoleon's great battles, pieces of Sèvres of great value, a gallery of paintings, and a library of 8,000 volumes, many of which were sold to meet his lavish outlay, for he lived and entertained on a generous scale. Among his visitors were Regnault de St.-Jean-d'Angely, Réal, Grouchy, Clausel, Bernard, Lakanal, Vandamme, Hulin, the Lallemands (one of these married the niece of Stephen Girard, the other planned a settlement of old French soldiers in Texas), and a host of others, French, Italian, and American, who paid their respects to him. Among his American friends were the leading men of Philadelphia, and he testified his appreciation by the characteristic bequest to Dr. Chapman, a noted wit and successful practitioner and teacher of medicine in Philadelphia, of a copy of Voltaire's works, and to others of portraits and statuettes of the great Napoleon and others of the family. To Mr. C. J. Ingersoll he gave a good deal of material relating to France for his 'History of the War of 1812,' and to Dr. Lieber he supplied details for an article in the 'Encyclopædia Americana,' while he inspired many articles in Robert Walsh's *United States Gazette* and in the *Courrier des États-Unis*. All of these and much else M. Bertin has unearthed with infinite pains, and found a suitable place for them in his book, which has a value as a picture of life in this country during the fifteen years of Joseph Bonaparte's secure and inglorious self-imposed exile.

There are full chapter summaries and an index of names.

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*La Femme aux États-Unis.* By C. de Varigny. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

ALTHOUGH every one would admit the attractiveness and the importance of the subject of this book, no one will be likely after reading it to feel inclined to pass it on to a friend or to go back to it for a second or a third perusal. The impression it first leaves, in fact, is that it is more remarkable for its faults than for its merits. The generalizations are both tedious and flippant, forced and superficial. Cases of breach of promise are detailed in the most sensational style of French journalism; an account of the life of Jay Gould is followed by another, equally irrelevant, of the divorced American wife of Jerome Bonaparte, spending her days in Florence and her wit in railing at her countrywomen; while the American public-school system is gravely expounded from two sources of information, the College of Punahou, near Honolulu in Hawaii, and Mr. Richard Malcolm Johnston's 'Oddities of Southern Life.'

Yet, notwithstanding their various absurdities, there is reason to be found in these pages why the young American woman and her friends should pause and reflect. In them she is to be seen pretty much as she must appear to any observant foreigner who brings over with him some letters ("good" ones or otherwise), a keen eye for the superficial aspects of society, and an untarnished faith in the newspapers as true and infallible exponents of national manners and customs. That such an observer should suppose "flirtation" to be the fundamental feminine and even national institution it is here described as being, she has only to thank her own behavior in public—at watering-places, in the streets, at entertainments, and even while she is making foreign "tours." If she is supposed, when she marries on small means, to be driven to the sad alternative of life in a boarding-house or hotel, or of domestic drudgery because of the dearth of service at reasonable remuneration, the supposition comes near enough the mark to cause us to blush for its truth. That a foreigner should be able to understand either our apparently supine helplessness before the "incapable German and recalcitrant Irishwoman," or the willingness of young couples to put up with a life in which they "must already have lost, together with respect for the domestic fireside, the notion of the refinements of married life and the duties of paternity," is too much for even our aggressive self-esteem to expect.

Since they have had no share in making the laws by which they may be summoned, tried, and convicted, American women can hardly be held responsible in the same degree for the figure they cut in the divorce courts. That they appear there in numbers sufficient to justify the allotment of a goodly portion of a book about them to this phase of their collective careers, is an undeniable fact, however bewildering its bearings to a Frenchman who has the racial respect for "the family." That such an observer should feel himself confused in presence of the chaos of differing divorce laws in different States is not to be wondered at. Still less surprising is it to find him having a quiet fling at the boasted superiority of institutions under which prostitution has in such brief time reached such large proportions. He touches lightly on this theme, however, and shows himself at all points a convinced believer in the purity and native integrity of the American girl, notwithstanding the paradoxes of her conduct. Finally, in spite of M. de Varigny's elaborate admiration for the women of the United States, it is impossible to lay aside his book without being reminded afresh that they belong to a nation which, if it has fewer vices to conceal, has more social vulgarities to expose to public view, than any other civilized nation in the world.

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*A Leap in the Dark;* or, Our New Constitution. By A. V. Dicey, Q.C., etc. London: John Murray. 1893.

IT must not be taken as any want of respect to Prof. Dicey, or any failure to appreciate his character and his writings, if we do not devote a lengthened notice to this his latest tract. It is such a purely trenchant onslaught on the Home-Rule idea and upon the Home-Rule Bill, paragraph by paragraph, that any minute review would be too polemical for our columns. Instead of 'A Leap in the Dark' it had better been styled 'To Destruction by Daylight'; for certainly if one-half of Prof. Dicey's contentions are well founded, Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Morley, Mr. Bryce, and Earl Spencer are working naught but the destruction of the British Empire. The Constitution of the United Kingdom at present, as Prof. Dicey so clearly points out, is each for all and all for each. A representative from Kerry has as much right and duty to guard and decide the interests of a Surrey hamlet concerning a new pump as has the Surrey representative to question the length to which a Kerry constable is to grow his beard. There is something sublime in the idea, but it works out to strange conclusions. For while the two or three gentlemen who know anything concerning the pump or the beard are fighting out their differences, 667 other gentlemen, the chosen of the land, are, if not away paired, kicking their heels on the terrace, or in the corridors or libraries, and will decide the matter one way or the other, not according to the merits, of which they can know nothing, but according to party ties or personal friendships. The maintenance of the system may be necessary to the greatness of Britain—Prof. Dicey thinks it is. The other English-speaking peoples over the globe work upon different lines, and may be excused from recognizing the certainty of ruin in any change. Moreover, there does appear some want of proportion about the present arrangement; for while 670 gentlemen are devoting their attention each to all and all to each within their own borders, they are leaving practically in the hands of permanent officials, and unattended to, the lives and interests of millions under their sway—of an empire such as was not dreamt of by Alexander or Augustus. As we read in this volume and pondered on the author's sinister anticipations as to the evils likely to arise under home rule, we found ourselves constantly noting on the margin, "How now?"—to what extent are not such anticipations certainties under the present system?

This book is the quintessence and boiling down of the speeches being now, day after day and week after week, delivered by Unionist orators in the House of Commons. Rather it is the stock from which the arguments and method of their speeches are derived, and in brilliancy and concentrated force the author far surpasses all but the ablest of them. What will be the outcome of the present sustained argument it is impossible to say. Never did a proposition put forward by a responsible Ministry meet with anything approaching to such vigorous and patently sincere opposition as the Home-Rule Bill. If Mr. Gladstone and his party are discredited, if the British people again determinedly set themselves to the pacification of Ireland and its amalgamation in thought and feeling with the rest of the United Kingdom on the lines of the present Constitution, it will to no inconsiderable degree be attributable to the publication of works such as Mr. Dicey's.

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*Hypnotism, Mesmerism, and the New Witchcraft.* By Ernest Hart, M.D., etc. 12mo, pp. vi, 182. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

THIS book is made up of rather popular papers from the *Nineteenth Century* and the *British Medical Journal*. They served a very good purpose as articles, but they have no place in book form. They aim to expose the abuses

which have arisen in many quarters about the phenomena of hypnotism. All these abuses should be exposed, although such an exposure edifies only those already convinced. What medium is ever led to confess that he is a fraud? No doubt such papers are wholesome, but a book should have a more serious purpose than that of exposing some humbug, especially when all the humbugs exposed are known to all good people already to be humbugs.

Dr. Hart's book also associates "Hypnotism and Humbug" in such a way that those not "well up" in the former might conclude that it is all humbug. This is the more to be feared since such is the opinion entertained by those who have not looked into the subject, especially medical men. Dr. Hart does not believe this—on the contrary, he recognizes the facts of hypnotism; but in our opinion he does not discriminate well even among the humbugs which he exposes. It is certainly unfair, for example, to the British Society for Psychical Research to bring it in for indiscriminate reproach along with the impostors of Luys's clinique, the clairvoyants of the shady side of Paris, and the soothsayers of the Orient. Dr. Hart certainly deserves credit for improving his time while in Paris (by official invitation to the Pasteur celebration, as we are told twice, for no adequate reason) by investigating Dr. Luys and Col. de Rochas; but it has been an open secret among competent observers for some time that these men could not stand investigation. To refute the claim that "sensibility may be transferred to inanimate objects" and that "layers of air may be sensitivized" is to advertise shams, no matter what "great institution in Paris" may harbor such charlatans. Dr. Hart fills out his book by printing twice in full a letter from Dr. Olivier which says as much—*i. e.*, "a question which I ought to say has been decided by the vast majority of the French scientific public in a sense absolutely opposed to the results proclaimed by MM. Luys and de Rochas. . . . The opinion of these two experimenters finds no support in the French scientific world" (p. 137, and again p. 182).

As far as Dr. Hart expresses opinions about hypnotism, he seems to accept the view of the Paris school without much independence. He repeats himself, for example, in two sections (pp. 69 and 153), declaring, on authority, the "therapeutic uselessness" of hypnotism; and many other instances might be cited of unsupported opinions and of citations "in the lump." But the book is not worth more space. If the reader wants a good one on the subject, let him read Möll's 'Hypnotism,' in the "Contemporary Science Series."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bell, Rev. C. D. Poems Old and New. London: Edwin Arnold.
Chotteau, Léon. Mes Campagnes aux Etats-Unis et en France. 1878—1885. Paris: E. Dentu; New York: J. W. Bouton.
Cowan, Rev. J. F. Endeavor Doin's down to the Corners. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Craik, Henry. Selections from Swift. Vol. II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Dicey, Prof. A. V. A Leap in the Dark; or, Our New Constitution. London: John Murray.
Dyer, J. F. T. The Ghost World. London: Ward & Downey; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Emerson, P. H. On English Lagoons. London: David Nutt.
Emerson, P. H. Signor Lippo. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.
From the Highways of Life. Columbus Press.
Geddes, Prof. Patrick. Chapters in Modern Botany. [University Extension Manuals.] Scribners. $1.25.
Greene, Nanci L. Nance: A Story of Kentucky Feuds. Chicago: F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Howells, W. D. The World of Chance. Harpers. 60 cents.
Hume, Fergus. The Chinese Jar: A Mystery. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.
Hutchinson, G. W. C. Some Hints on Learning to Draw. Macmillan. $2.25.
Hutton, Laurence, Edwin Booth. Harpers. 50 cents.
Huxley, T. H. Evolution and Ethics. [Romanes Lecture, 1893.] Macmillan. 60 cents.
Jackson, S. Commercial Arithmetic. Macmillan. $1.10.
Janvier, T. A. The Aztec Treasure-House. Harpers. 75 cents.
Kirk, Rev. Robert. The Secret Commonwealth of Elves, Fauns and Fairies. London: David Nutt.
Knox, T. W. The Talking Handkerchief, and Other Stories. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co.
Lawrence, W. M., and Blackman, O. The Riverside Song Book. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 30 cents.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXXV. Mac—Mal. Macmillan. $3.75.
O'Neill, John. The Night of the Gods: An Inquiry into Cosmic and Cosmogonic Mythology and Symbolism. Vol. I. London: Bernard Quaritch.
Paysagistes Contemporains, Recueil de 101 Paysages publié en deux fasicules. Paris: Librairie de *l'Art*.
Potter, B. W. The Road and the Roadside. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Sayle, Charles. Musa Consolatrix. London: David Nutt.
Seely, Howard. A Border Leander. Appletons.
Street, G. S. Miniatures and Moods. London: David Nutt.
Tuck, Rev. Robert. Revelation by Character. W. B. Ketcham. $2.


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[*Continued on page* 56.]

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 20, 1893.

## The Week.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S letter on the subject of the Silver Purchase Law which goes by his name, must be taken, like most of his public communications, with a grain of salt. Mr. Sherman can always be depended on to say and to do the right thing, so far as, in his judgment, political exigencies will warrant him in doing so. Mr. Sherman says in this letter that it was necessary to pass the Act of 1890 in order to defeat a free-coinage bill. In reply to the counter argument that President Harrison could have easily vetoed such a bill and would have done so, he says, "We had no right to throw the responsibility upon him." Why not? The responsibility of the President in the passing of laws is of exactly the same kind as the responsibility of Congress. If Mr. Sherman means by this high-sounding phrase that he and his friends had no right to expose Mr. Harrison to the apprehended loss of votes in the silver-producing States, that is a matter of personal or party advantage, not of constitutional or political morality, as at first blush it seems to be. There is no word so well adapted to produce confusion in public debate as the word "right." When a man says, as Mr. Sherman does, that he had "no right" to do so and so, he may mean that he had no constitutional right, or that he had no legal right, or that he had no moral right. In any case he is bound to tell what he means, because it is certain that different people will understand him in different ways. Instead of telling what kind of a right would have been infringed if Congress had put upon President Harrison a responsibility that the Constitution devolves upon him, he says in the next paragraph: "I never for a moment have regretted the passage of the Act of 1890 commonly called the Sherman Act." Even here the Senator cannot tell what caused him to prefer the Sherman Bill to the preëxisting "Bland Act"—meaning the Allison Act. The real reason was that it contained the declaratory clause about keeping the two metals at a parity. This was a good reason. It was worth all that it cost, but Mr. Sherman cannot claim the merit that he is really entitled to because he maintained that it was the law already. So instead of making a good and substantial claim, he stuffs the public with a lot of unmeaning words about the advantage of using both gold and silver as "reserves." Reserves of what? The letter is Shermanesque in a high degree. As we have said aforetime, Senator Sherman has promoted more financial heresies by his words and killed more by his acts than any other man in our history.

It may safely be said that a very critical week, as well as one of great significance, closed on Saturday in the financial markets. Especially in London it had been expected that the regular fortnightly settlement of Stock Exchange accounts would develop serious trouble. Within the fortnight had occurred the violent break in prices consequent on the India Council's move, and the feeling in London had been very gloomy. Last week was bound to bring the situation to a test. Although the local monetary situation in New York had grown a trifle easier, it was feared that a further fall in market prices would precipitate trouble here. These double expectations were reflected last week in a bold and extensive movement, on both security markets, by speculative operators for the decline. The movement was conducted with the use of every expedient known to professional wreckers of values, including the reckless circulation of false rumors and sales of enormous quantities of "short" stock; but it failed almost completely. Neither in London nor in New York did the anticipated disasters come to light. In London there were perhaps a dozen broker failures, only one of which, however, was of any consequence, while nearly all were those of small business men, not members of the Stock Exchange, and described on the London market somewhat contemptuously as "jobbers." The end of the week's experiences has, therefore, been a distinct improvement in confidence; and confidence, at the moment, is the one thing needful. The incidents of the past week showed with unusual force how closely, in these days, the world's financial markets are bound together. In Capel Court and in Wall Street the week's experiences have been identical, both as to time and to character. A difference has existed in the fact that while New York has gathered encouragement from the increasing signs of a movement of foreign gold in this direction, London has regarded with some apprehension the drain on its reserves. It is, however, hardly possible that a steady improvement in the American markets should not far more than offset in London the incident of a heavy specie export. In point of fact, the Bank of England's gold balance has for a fortnight been larger in amount than at any period in the last fifteen years.

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Bank clearances for the first six months of the present year are published by *Bradstreet's* and the *Financial Chronicle*. The total is thirty-one thousand millions of dollars. If we double this amount for the year and add something to it for the banks whose transactions are not reported, we have clearings of $1,000 per capita per annum. This measure of business is no doubt too small for the whole country, since it takes no account of transactions outside the banks; but taking the estimate as it stands, we have this large amount of business done through banks whose book accounts cover but $72 per capita, while their actual cash holdings are but $10 per head. In other words, transactions in which payments are made by checks or other instruments of credit, amount to fifteen times more than the reported deposits of all banks, savings and trust institutions, and one hundred times more than the actual cash kept on hand. It is easy to see from these figures why distrust paralyzes trading, and why suspicion of the real value of our currency has so great an effect, since the $1,000 of bank clearings per capita is based upon the traders' confidence in the small cash balance back of it all. Clearly enough, too, it is not a large volume of currency that we need, since we should have to obtain and put in circulation an amount of money enormous and impossible, if each transaction were to be covered by actual cash instead of checks. Our supply is ample under good credit. We must have confidence in that currency if we would have it made the basis for expanding and prosperous trade. For every dollar of depreciated silver put out, we destroy hundreds of dollars in that exchange of credit by which modern business is alone possible.

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The preliminary report of exports of breadstuffs for the fiscal year ending June 30, embracing 98 per cent. of all exports of articles named, shows the quantity of wheat sent abroad to have been the largest since 1883, with the exception of the previous year. Unfavorable comparison month by month with 1892 has led us to lose sight of the exports, which are really large, if we glance back a decade for a true comparison. The average price per bushel was the lowest. On the other hand, the quantity of wheat flour sold abroad was the largest in our history, the record showing a constantly increasing number of barrels exported year by year. In 1893 (year ending June 30), 45 per cent. of all wheat exported was in the manufactured form of flour. This large proportion shows briefly and strongly the importance of our milling industry as bearing upon our exports of wheat. There is no reason to doubt that our totals of wheat exported would be much less were it not for the energy and business sagacity displayed by the flour-millers, who have doubled their foreign trade in ten years. Being of necessity unprotected by tariff duties, the growth and success of flour-manufacturing and the steady increase in foreign sales form a most encouraging sign of what American industries in other lines will be able to accomplish when the removal of absurd

tariff restrictions shall enable them really to compete for the trade of the world.

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The country is to be congratulated upon its good fortune in securing Mr. Morton as Secretary of Agriculture. His Department is, to be sure, a fifth wheel to our car of State, but he is managing it with such vigor and upon such sound principles as to do him the greatest credit. We have had abundant promises of economy and reform, but the expenditures of the Government do not so far show much sign of decreasing. Secretary Morton, however, no sooner took office than he showed that he had a firm grasp of the fundamental principle of governmental reform, by putting his department on a sound business basis. Employees were discharged in large numbers, not in order to make places for the nominees of politicians, but because they were incompetent or useless. Their places have not been filled, because there was no need of filling them, and the saving in salaries in the Bureau of Animal Industry alone is reported to be at the rate of more than $200,000 yearly. In other directions Secretary Morton has instituted similar reforms, and it seems probable that his department will furnish a unique example of that wise and economical administration of the affairs of our people which they are familiar with only in the platforms of the political parties.

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Secretary Morton's latest move is to suggest to the meat-packers that the principle that their products should be inspected and marked at the public expense is not unquestionable. At present the law provides that the Government shall inspect meats intended for export, but Secretary Morton observes that he is not required to incur any unnecessary expense in doing this. It seems that during the two years that the law has been in operation we have sold to countries demanding a certificate of inspection meat to the value of $3,547,000, while the Government has paid in salaries and expenses incurred in this work a sum equal to 8 per cent. of this amount. At the same time we have sold to countries that do not require this inspection meats to the value of more than $34,000,000, without any cost to the general public. As Secretary Morton says, if the law is supposed to create a demand for our meats abroad, it is evidently a failure. The situation is briefly this. Certain foreign Powers, notably France and Germany, desiring to propitiate the protectionist element, took advantage of some cases of trichinosis attributed to eating the flesh of the American hog, and threatened to prohibit its importation. Some of our diplomatists succeeded in effecting an arrangement by which the import was to be allowed if our Government had the flesh inspected and marked. Thus the astute foreigners practically imposed a duty of 8 per cent., under the guise of inspection, upon imports of meat from this country. The astute meat-packers transferred this duty to the American Government, and the guileless American people paid the duty, and proceeded to glorify our diplomacy and to listen complacently to effusive representations that "the foreigner pays the tax." The whole business has been a monstrous humbug from the beginning, and Mr. Morton deserves a vote of thanks for showing it up. France and Germany will certainly insist upon taxing imports from this country so long as our Government will agree to pay the tax; and in any event the meat packers of this country have a practical monopoly of a highly lucrative business in which they have acquired riches sufficient to enable them to fight their own battles.

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*Good Government*, the organ of the National Civil-Service-Reform Association, in its issue of July 15, contains interesting statements of the practical treatment of the civil service by the present Administration. There are a good many small things which are not encouraging. Among them may be noted the "clean sweep" in the Post-office at Bloomington, Ill., where the brother of the Vice-President has been made Assistant Postmaster, and where the new carriers are so ignorant of their duties that they have had to hire their predecessors with a bonus of $35 down and $5 a day to give them the necessary instruction. The stories of other post-offices, like that at Terre Haute, are also told. The editor finds, however, that even in the vexatious field of the Post-office Department there has been under this Administration substantial progress. During the first four months of the present Administration there were 3,226 removals of fourth-class postmasters; during the corresponding period of 1889 these removals numbered 7,460. Of this advance the editor says:

"It is more fully appreciated by one watching events on the spot than by an observer at any distance. The charges filed now in order to procure the removal of a fourth-class postmaster before he has served four years are often pitifully trivial, but at least they are charges. When Mr. Stevenson or Mr. Clarkson was wielding the axe, no charges were required."

Another article discusses the changes that have been made in regard to promotions in the different departments by Secretaries Carlisle and Smith and Postmaster-General Bissell. It says that in both the Interior and Post-office Departments, while the rules regulating promotions made by the last Administration have not been formally revoked, "they have been contemptuously ignored when the head of either department has had any promoting to do." Of the postal promotions it is stated that they appear to have been meritorious, while those of the Interior Department have been of a mixed character.

The printed arguments of the United States—each one of them signed by the author—presented to the Tribunal at Paris are striking in many ways. The seized vessels were condemned by the judicial tribunals of Alaska as forfeited to the United States, upon the contention that the United States had exclusive municipal jurisdiction in all the waters of Bering Sea east of the treaty meridian of longitude; but each and all of the printed arguments put the right of the United States to prevent pursuit and destruction on the high seas of the Pribyloff seal herd, upon the contention that the United States have a *property* in the herd which in public law and in self-defence the President can vindicate by force anywhere and everywhere in the open ocean. A distinction is drawn between exclusive municipal, legislative jurisdiction, on which the vessels were condemned, and executive right of self-defence on the high seas. In the last half of the volume is a very calm statement by Judge Blodgett of the indefensible character of the British claims for indemnity for injuries inflicted by the seizures, wherein he demonstrates that the real owners of the greater part of the seized vessels were not Canadians, but Americans. He makes it clear, on the evidence before the Tribunal, that even the notorious schooner *Sayward*, which was before the Supreme Court, was, with all her outfit and supplies, in fact, "owned by one Joseph Boscowitz, a citizen of the United States"; that Warren, the nominal owner, had no capital; that the money representing his share in the schooner was lent to him by Boscowitz and secured by a mortgage on the schooner; that in 1885 Warren became insolvent, and one Cooper, a brother-in-law of Warren, and a British subject residing in San Francisco, bid in the schooner on a sale for one dollar, and then mortgaged her to Boscowitz, all of which was done to get a British registry. Judge Blodgett shows eighteen vessels seized as Canadian, for which Great Britain claims damages, but ten of which with the supplies on board were owned by Americans.

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The *Hawaiian Gazette* says it is a great mistake to suppose that "the Provisional Government is merely temporary, and must make way for some form of irresponsible native government in case annexation is not immediately consummated." The truth is, it goes on, that the Provisional Government was "established to secure some form of stable government for Hawaii, and it will be maintained until that end is reached." Then the establishers lied like troopers. In their manifesto dethroning the Queen and seizing upon the Government, they said: "Provisional government for the control and management of public affairs and the protection of public peace is hereby established, *to exist until* terms of union with the United States of America have been negotiated and agreed

upon." As Judge Cooley has remarked, this was the most extraordinary provisional government the world ever saw, formed on its own showing expressly and solely to give the country away. That was audacious enough, but it would be still more outrageous and unheard of if the men who had seized the Government in order to turn it over to a foreign Power should now, after failing to dispose of the goods, go on to claim the plunder as their lawful property in perpetuity.

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The Sunday-closing question has at last been settled by the World's Fair directors so that it will stay settled. The Fair will be closed on Sunday because it does not pay to keep it open. The visitors who are not residents of Chicago refrain from Sunday attendance partly on religious grounds, and partly because they are so tired out by their week's work that they must have a day of rest. Some are deterred undoubtedly by the fact that the Fair is not fully open on Sunday anyway. The local population who would go to the Fair on Sunday because they cannot spare the time any other day is not sufficiently numerous to warrant the expense of Sunday opening. As this has been proved by experiment, there is no more room for dispute. As the Sunday closing now rests upon rational grounds, the dispute will cease.

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The London *Spectator*, commenting on the loss of the *Victoria*, raises some very serious questions as to the management of the new iron-clad vessels of the English Navy. The loss of the *Captain* was admittedly due to want of stability, but the *Captain* was an experiment, and no more vessels have been constructed upon that model. Yet within a few years there has been a series of disasters to the English Navy "sufficient to cripple the fighting strength of a third-class Power, and to deprive England during the present year of the services of a formidable fleet." The *Sultan* ran upon the rocks three years ago, and it will be a long time yet before she leaves the dry-dock at Portsmouth. She was manœuvring in a narrow channel at torpedo practice. Her captain was reprimanded. The *Howe* was got off the rocks only by blasting, and the lower part of her hull must be rebuilt; but it was decided that no one was to blame for this, as the rocks upon which she ran were not marked upon the ancient chart furnished by the Admiralty. The *Warspite*, which cost £500,000, although only a cruiser, was badly damaged by running on the rocks near Esquimault, and the *Undaunted*, a first-class cruiser, has also been upon the rocks. The *Naiad* and the *Apollo*, new cruisers, ran ashore during the last manœuvres and were much damaged. The *Victoria* was saved for her final calamity by a change of wind, which raised the waters of the Mediterranean where she was recently stranded and floated her off without injury. Her captain was reprimanded for his mismanagement. Thus during the last twelve months three ironclads, one belted cruiser, and three other cruisers have been unfitted for duty. It is scarcely credible that so many injuries to vessels should have taken place without incompetent management. The art of navigating these strange engines of modern naval warfare cannot yet be fully understood, or the executive officers of the British Navy cannot have mastered it. If they continue to lose ships as they have done in the past, it would only be necessary for a hostile squadron to keep to its harbor, and wait for the British vessels to destroy themselves by running into one another or grounding upon the rocks.

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What the policy of "revenge" is costing the French people in a financial way appears from the report upon the budget of 1894 just submitted to the Chamber. No one will maintain that after 1870 France was in the slightest danger from any quarter. She had suffered all that it was possible for her to suffer, and if she had not maintained a soldier in arms, she would have been entirely free from all risk of attack. She would, indeed, have been freer than she has been with all her preparations, for these very preparations at one time nearly brought on another attack from Germany. Her armament, therefore, has had but one object—the recovery of the lost provinces. But not the slightest progress has yet been made towards this recovery, for Germany watches every French move and prepares herself accordingly. For this miserable result the appropriations for military and naval purposes, including the colonial service, now amount to nearly a thousand million francs per annum, although under Napoleon III. they scarcely exceeded one-half of that sum. In this way the total cost of the war of 1870 is mounting up until it is now computed at 11,500,000,000 francs. The total debt incurred since 1869 appears to be over 17,000,000,000 francs, and the charge for interest has risen from about 600,000,000 in that year to nearly 1,300,000,000 in this. The budget submitted for 1894 calls for the expenditure of the appalling sum of 3,438,000,000 francs, and a deficit of 150,000,000 francs is anticipated, which in view of the bad harvests we may consider an underestimate.

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The revolution in the Brazilian State of Rio Grande do Sul nominally turns on a disputed election of the Governor. In November, 1891, a popular agitation began against Gov. Castilhos, which soon grew into something like a revolution, and at that time the Federal troops were called upon to preserve order. Then an agreement was entered into by both sides to settle all their differences at the ballot-box in the approaching State election, the Federal Government especially binding itself to abstain from all interference. This last promise was disgracefully broken, and the national troops were kept in the State to see that Castilhos was reëlected. That official, in fact, was declared elected by the military commander of the district in June, 1892, and was forcibly seated. Since then he has been able to keep in office only by the aid of Federal soldiers, and the dissatisfaction with this military rule has become intense, not only in the State affected, but throughout the whole country. So strong did the feeling become that two members of the Cabinet, the Minister of Marine and the Minister of Finance, threw up their portfolios on April 27 last, and published their letters of resignation, in which they severely scored President Peixoto for his conduct in overriding the will of a sovereign State. About that time Admiral Wandenkolk, a member of the Cabinet under Fonseca and then a Senator, set out from Rio for the scene of the insurrection, leaving behind him a letter to the newspapers, in which he said: "I now break for a moment the silence which I have imposed upon myself, simply to say to Marshal Peixoto, 'General, we will one day meet each other.'"

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It seems to be settled that two new saints are soon to be added to the calendar. The Pope is reported to have said that the canonization of Columbus would not be much longer delayed, and such earnest efforts have been making at Rome to canonize Joan of Arc that it is thought they cannot fail of being successful. Columbus's fitness for sainthood has long been a moot point with Catholic historians, but few would venture to oppose it in this quatercentenary year, when, as the saying is, it would be a peculiarly graceful thing to make a saint of the man whom all the world is delighting to honor. It might even reconcile the Duke of Veragua to that enforced poverty which so many of his "good friends" in this country are now invited to view with consternation and to help to abolish, to be known as the lineal descendant of a saint. In connection with the proposal to canonize Joan of Arc, fear was expressed by a considerate French prelate that such an act might wound English susceptibilities. Thereupon the Catholic hierarchy of Great Britain was consulted on this point, and reported that Joan as a saint would be "well received" in their country. In fact, she already has an English cult, many English tourists leaving marks of their regard at her native village, Domremy, and a group of English ladies having lately left a wreath at the foot of her statue in Rouen, with the inscription: "From Englishwomen to the great Frenchwoman." Even if there were any English objection to her canonization, it would doubtless be swept away by observing that it is written in the book of the prophet Shakspere:

> "No longer on Saint Denis will we cry,
> But Joan la Pucelle shall be France's saint."

*POPULAR FINANCIAL IDEAS.*

PROF. SIMON NEWCOMB has an article on "The Problem of Economic Education" in the last *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, in which he makes some shrewd and weighty remarks on the great gulf that is fixed between the conclusions of expert economists and what he calls the "popular political economy." By this phrase he means a body of old ideas, of the folk-lore order, about production and trade and finance, which have been handed down in almost unimpaired vigor from the Middle Ages or earlier to our own day, and subsist in spite of repeated demonstration of their falsity and harmfulness. In almost every other province of human thought and action, as Prof. Newcomb points out, the views of experts have finally come to prevail with the masses; but in the economical field the work and teaching of experts have made no permanent impression, so that "our public thought, our legislation, and even our popular economic nomenclature are what they would have been if Smith, Ricardo, and Mill had never lived, and if such a term as political economy had never been known."

Prof. Newcomb proceeds to prove this, as regards the subject of international trade, with disheartening clearness and force. What he has to say of the nature and danger of popular conceptions in that department might have been applied with equal cogency to those popular ideas of finance which have brought us into the present situation. The country is now in a financial slough on account of its jaunty disregard of the advice and warnings of financial experts for the past fifteen years. Because the question of money and the standard of value had come to be a political one, the idea arose that it could be settled by majorities, and that the "horse-sense" (or mule-sense, as we prefer to call it) of men who had never given ten minutes of steady thought to the monetary question was as good a guide as the opinion of one who had made it a life-long study.

Popular ideas of finance purport to be very clear and simple. They profess to go no further than plain, ordinary intelligence will carry a man, and boast themselves to be very different from the abstract and difficult conceptions of professional economists. Now just here, as Prof. Newcomb points out, is a great error, the truth being that the "use of abstract reasoning, to the exclusion of a due consideration of facts, is a vice in which the public far outdo any school of economists that ever existed." Take, for example, the popular axiom that money ought to be cheap and plenty. That seems as clear as daylight compared with the hard sayings of the economists about standards of value, and parity of exchange, and Gresham's law, and as definite a principle in as close contact with human needs as one could wish for. Yet it is really as abstract a proposition as was ever framed. It appears simple only because the words are familiar, but the idea underlying them is as remote from the facts, and as greatly ignores all experience, as any verbal juggle ever invented by the schoolmen of the Middle Ages. Translate the abstract principle into concrete facts, and your theory of cheap and plentiful money becomes the reality of lowered wages, impaired savings, general distrust, and final panic.

We see these results now in the process of realization, but they were just as clear and inevitable to the trained financier when the first steps towards a depreciated currency were taken as they are to day. No finer vindication of the scientific principles of finance was ever seen than the fulfilment in the last year of the predictions confidently made by professional economists from the very beginning of the silver craze. Why was no heed given these prophecies? Not simply because of popular ignorance. As Prof. Newcomb remarks, the great body of educated people who stand midway between the expert economists and the masses are the ones who are mainly responsible for the spread of popular economic error. They "are almost at one with the public at large in unwittingly accepting the doctrines of the popular political economy." No one who recalls the history of the past two decades can doubt that this has been true in our financial blundering at least. Think of the powerful newspapers, owned and edited by educated men, which caught up the popular cries, scan the list of college men who have repeatedly voted for free coinage in House and Senate, and it will be hard to deny that Prof. Newcomb is right when he says:

> "The question is not between intelligence on the one side and ignorance on the other, but between the handful of men who have made a special study of economics and the intelligence of the country at large. When that intelligence is won over to the side of the economists, we may expect with entire confidence that the ideas of the masses will soon follow."

It is the most encouraging feature of the situation that, on the silver question, the intelligence of the country has now been won over, and, not only that, but has become aroused and insistent in the cause of sound money, and there are gratifying signs that the masses are following after. Luckily, one idea has become fixed in the popular theory of money, and that is that one dollar must be as good as another at all times and places. This is one great achievement of our national banking system, which has made it for ever impossible to go back to the varying and uncertain currency before the war, and has done a great deal to give us, what England has had for eighty years, a popular idea of the necessity of a single and stable standard of value. It is this notion of the common people which is now working here and there positive discrimination against the silver dollar. The report has gone abroad that that coin is really worth only fifty cents, and we are continually hearing of cases where simple minded people are refusing to take it for more. This is a popular error, but it is one on the right side, and will do to set off against the many on the wrong side. The vital thing is that the masses have been stirred up to scrutinize the various kinds of currency, and to express their preference for the very best. All that is necessary for those who want to educate the people into sound conceptions on the money question, is to seize upon that fixed idea and keep it alert and in action until our currency shall, in fact, be only the very best. There will be no difficulty in getting all the votes needed for sound money when the voters are made to understand their immense personal interest in having it.

*LEGISLATION AGAINST THE RICH.*

THERE seems no probability that the country will derive any material gain from our experiment in maintaining the price of silver; but if only a few of the lessons that can be drawn from this experiment are learned, we may find it not unprofitable. Conspicuous among these is the lesson that legislation purporting to be in the interest of the poor as a class and against the rich as a class, while it may hurt the latter somewhat, is almost always especially disastrous to the former. Furthermore, while such legislation is injurious to some of the rich, it may be extremely advantageous to others, although it seldom benefits any of the poor.

A classical example of legislation of this kind is afforded by the usury laws. The theory of these laws is always that the money lender is hard-hearted and grasping; that he watches for the opportunity of driving hard bargains, and is never so happy as when he is taking advantage of the distress of his neighbors. On the other hand, the borrower is conceived as a simple-hearted, virtuous, deserving man who is the victim of unfortunate accidents. Assuming these conceptions to be correct, it seems absurd upon the face of it to undertake legislative interference. Interest beyond the normal rate is simply an extra charge for increased risk of loss. If the money-lender thinks that it would not pay him to lend to a borrower of doubtful solvency at 5 per cent., although he would take the chances at 10, what is going to happen if the law steps in and makes his contract for more than 5 per cent. void? Either the money will not be lent or the rate will be raised beyond 10 per cent., so as to cover the additional risk arising from the violation of the law. In either case it is evident that the poor man is worse off for the meddling of Government, while the rich man may be even better off. It may be asserted without hesitation that the usurer who lets people of doubtful credit have his money at the same rate as people of good credit, merely because of statutory obligation, will not

continue in business very long. If there are such usurers, they are evidently kind-hearted men, who will be ruined by their beneficence. The really wicked usurers at whom the statute is directed will thus be those who will chiefly profit by it.

Whether these conceptions were ever valid or not we need not inquire, for it is certain that they are nowadays simply grotesque. The money-lender, as an individual, is often known to his countrymen to be an extremely benevolent person. So far as morality in general is concerned, we have never been able to satisfy ourselves that the possession of money had much to do with it, since riches and poverty both have their attendant temptations to evil, and inducements to righteousness. But so far as benevolence is concerned, no man in his senses, except a Congressman or a demagogue, will deny that rich men in this country are astonishingly benevolent. They have covered the land with the evidences of their generosity to the public, and every one who has had any occasion to observe the private affairs of rich people is aware that their liberality to their poor kinsmen, and to the poor in general, is a serious drain upon their income. On the other hand, the poor man who is anxious to borrow because he is in straits, may or may not be deserving and honest. The spectacle of a poor man who is both honest and capable allowed by his well-to-do neighbors to be ruined through misfortune—"the righteous forsaken and his seed begging bread"—is not a common one in any part of this country with which we are acquainted. But it is perhaps nearly as common as that of the usurer engaged in sucking the blood of his victims.

As a matter of fact, however, the individual money-lender is nowadays relatively insignificant. The great lenders are corporations—savings banks, trust companies, insurance companies, banks, etc. Hence there is always an intermediary in the process, and this intermediary can never long carry on the practice of making loans with the expectation of foreclosing his liens and taking the property. Some of our great life-insurance companies have, it is true, made a good deal of money by the rise in the value of real estate which they had to take most reluctantly, but it was a "close shave" with them, and there was a time when they almost sank under their load. They had to assume this load, however, not because of their foresight, but because of their lack of it. They thought their debtors were solvent and their land good security, but they were mistaken in both respects. No doubt some of the investment companies operating in newly settled regions have charged extremely high rates for their loans. But it has frequently proved to be the case that these rates have been too low rather than too high, for the whole investment has turned out a loss. Again, it is to be remembered that until recently it was so common as to be almost the rule that a farmer taking up a quarter-section could pay its price out of the proceeds of the crop of the first year or two. If such abnormal profits are not immoral, there seems nothing very wicked in lending at high interest.

In short, when a man's business is lending other people's money, he cannot prosper long unless he learns to turn away from the seductions of high interest and to fix his mind upon the security. When a loan is offered, that is the first question to be settled, and if that is settled satisfactorily he will then get as high a rate as he can. But legislation in favor of cheap money as a boon to the poor man and a rebuke to the rich puts all these money-lenders on their guard. The "poor man" who clamors for such legislation may get it, but he will get no one to lend him money, be it cheap or dear; and even the honest poor man has a hard time of it. But the rich man who has money to lend, although he has to scrutinize his security very closely, finds much consolation in the rate of interest which the situation enables him to obtain. What has been the effect upon the banks of the hostility of the People's party and of the silver folly? Many of the poor ones have failed, thus losing the money of their depositors, who are not of the richest class. But the rich ones have, so to speak, coined money. As they did not bring on the trouble, and would gladly have been relieved from an unusual strain, they cannot be blamed for this. Whatever blame attaches to it belongs to the demagogues who insisted upon legislating for cheap money with the result of making it dear.

## *KNOWLEDGE ON SIGHT.*

THE French have long been famous for their quickness in seeing and their logic in applying great principles, and hence it is no surprise to find a Frenchman grasping and extending a principle which has been thought peculiarly an American possession. We refer to the great discovery made by pictorial journalists, that a picture is better than words to describe an event or convey a moral, that "cuts" will do what "text" cannot—whether it be a question of portraying a civil war in Samoa, or winning contributions for the victims of a calamity or votes for a great political party. It is in pursuance of this discovery that the conductors of our great dailies have taken the position that whoever will may write the editorials and print the news, if they may be allowed to educate the American people by newspaper pictures.

Now see how much better they do these things in France, as shown by the principles and practice of M. Grand-Carteret. His superiority over our newspaper practitioners is revealed, in the first place, by his profounder grasp of the truth which underlies the whole business. We have often tried to extract a coherent theory of the picturesque newspaper from the minds that are in control of it, but have never been able to get anything that was satisfactory. Some of the blunter editorial intellects have confessed that there was no rational principle in the matter whatever, and that it was all a simple question of "giving the public what it wants." Others, less frank and also less clear, have vaguely talked about "resting the eye," the "interdependence of the senses," the satisfaction of seeing a portrait of the man you are reading about, even though it turns out to be the portrait of somebody else. This fumbling after a consistent theory seems feeble and foolish enough beside the Frenchman's lucid exposition of the true principle. He goes to the bottom of things at one stroke by laying down the broad proposition, "People do not read any more; they only look."

Obviously this accounts for everything, and our puzzled journalists, who have been acting all this while on a great sociological truth without knowing it, ought to be devoutly thankful to M. Grand-Carteret for giving the only rational explanation of their conduct. But in strict logic, they ought also to be prepared to go with him in his thorough application of the principle, and do, what we have always maintained they would be, in the end, bound to do on their own principles, and that is to abolish "text" altogether and rely exclusively upon "cuts." With the basic truth once settled, that we must give the people pictures because they do not read any more, it is the merest paltering to stop short of the logical inference that it is a sheer waste of good type to put anything in the papers except pictures. The Frenchman has too logical a head for any such miserable truckling to antiquated notions as even our most picturesque editors are guilty of in still going through the motions of printing matter ostensibly to be read. Why print reading-matter for a non-reading public? asks M. Grand-Carteret; and really we do not see that there is any answer to that question.

He is truly a terrible fellow for logic, and does not at all limit the application of his principle to newspapers. They are but a part of the vast machinery of modern education, but the principle that applies there applies everywhere. "People do not read any more; they only look." Then what is the use of writing histories? "No use whatever," replies M. Grand-Carteret, with admirable consistency; "if you wish to teach people history, show them some pictures." With a faith in his public as sublime as his consistency, he proposes to issue a series of historical text-books—picture-books, we mean—based upon the supposition that they are to be looked at, not read. He forcibly argues that precisely that is what is done with histories printed on the old plan, and pertinently asks if those who come to scoff at history in uninteresting type may not remain to pray over history tricked out with all the charms of the illustrator's art.

So far, we confess, we have no fault

to find with M. Grand Carteret, and rather feel much in his debt for having given so convincing an account of the real origin of illustrated daily journalism. But we cannot so heartily go with him when he treats his theory that people do not read any more, and can have only a pictorial education, not only as a fact, but as a desirable fact. He seems to regard the growing aversion to reading, and the increasing fondness for labor-saving and thought-saving "graphic representation," as a part of the progress of civilization. To us, on the contrary, it has always appeared as a distinct reversion to barbarism, being nothing more nor less than a recurrence to the picture-writing and sign-language of savages. The step from such primitive modes of conveying thought to the more complicated but infinitely more rapid and accurate methods of spoken and written language, most sociologists have regarded as a mighty advance. Modern man can get along with the old ways, no doubt, and they might not be immediately destructive of civilization. We have read of an artist travelling in Sweden, ignorant of the language of the country, who was able to make his wants tolerably well known by the aid of his clever pencil—drawing a picture of himself getting out of bed when the sun was just on the horizon, for example, as a way of telling his hotel "boots" at what hour he wished to be called in the morning. But that seems to us civilization under difficulties, not its supreme and happy development.

It is argued in favor of teaching history by pictures that a vivid impression is best secured in that way. But the great desideratum is accuracy and fulness, not vividness, of impression. It is one thing to have such a work as Green's illustrated history of England, where faithful representations of the dress and furniture and architecture and ceremonies of the different periods do indeed help to complete the knowledge gained from patient study of the text; but what could be more shallow, what more misleading, than to give the idea that an acquaintance with English history could be had by looking at even the most admirable illustrations? And suppose the labels get disarranged, as so often happens with the daily illustrated press. What advantage is there in deriving from a picture a "vivid impression" of the seven bishops being rowed to the Tower, if it turns out that it is only a crippled Oxford crew that you have been looking at? Is it maintained that pictures will remain in the memory when words are forgotten? But there are other ways of cultivating the memory. There is the old way implied in the story about himself told by Benvenuto Cellini, that when he once saw a salamander crawl out of the fire, his grandfather immediately gave him a sound beating to make sure that he should never forget such an extraordinary occurrence. It was long a firm belief that a good whipping was an excellent mordant for the memory, and, for our part, we should be entirely willing to have the pictorial editors adopt that method of making the impressions derived from their illustrations not only "vivid" but lasting. They ought to offer a stout birch rod, instead of a chromo, with each issue, and in that way agreeably vary the torture they inflict.

## AUSTRALIAN BANKS.

SYDNEY, June 12, 1893.

BETWEEN the 5th of April and the 17th of May, there occurred in Australia a series of bank suspensions, involving sums of money of enormous magnitude considering that the total population of the Colonies is but three and one-half millions. On April 1, besides numerous smaller financial institutions, there were in operation eleven important banks of issue, having total assets of about $750,000,000, and liabilities to depositors of about $600,000,000. On the 18th of May only three remained open, their total assets being about $325,000,000, and deposits $250,000,000. It would seem at first that nothing short of a revolution could have caused such a collapse. As the suspensions rapidly followed each other, panic prevailed, and the Governments of the different colonies considered themselves called on to interfere, their first rash step being to proclaim in the colony of Victoria, which had suffered most, a five days' bank holiday. Government interference in such matters is seldom wise; but fortunately, in this case, the banks were wiser than their rulers, and the bold action of the two great banks, the Australasia and the Union, in disregarding the Government proclamation, and carrying on their regular business, so far as they legally could, established public confidence in their powers to meet any demands, and gave time for the frenzy to calm down.

One of the facts most strikingly brought into prominence by these events is the immense size and power of the three banks that remain. The Bank of New South Wales has a paid-up capital of $6,250,000, reserve fund $5,000,000, total assets $125,000,000, and deposits of $100,000,000. Of the deposits $11,000,000 is money loaned by English depositors, and $89,000,000 is borrowed in the colonies. Next to this in size come the Australasia and the Union, with figures about 20 per cent. less, except paid-up capital, which is larger, being $8,000,000 and $7,500,000, respectively. Of the banks that have suspended, two had assets of $70,000,000 each, three of over $50,000,000, and three of over $40,000,000; the proportion of British to colonial money on deposit varying from 3 to 60 per cent. Each had a paid-up capital of over $3,000,000, and none had been established less than forty years. Institutions of such magnitude must command respect in any portion of the financial world, and it seems probable, even on slight consideration, that it must be some defect in principle rather than in detail that has caused their suspension.

Banking in Australia differs somewhat from the systems in other countries. There are no private bankers or national banks; all foreign exchange, letters of credit, and Government business being arranged by the ordinary banks. Their business has been very profitable, one institution having for seventeen years paid dividends of 25 per cent. per annum, and accumulated reserve funds exceeding its paid-up capital by more than 50 per cent., its $100 shares standing at $600 on the Stock Exchange. The funds in the hands of the banks were in some cases twenty times as great as their own capital, these funds being placed with them by the public, repayable in from one to three years, and at rates of interest of from 3½ to 4½ per cent. per annum. In every case, more than the paid-up capital, reserve funds, and credit balances of current accounts, on which no interest is allowed, is tied up in the coin and bullion reserves and premises occupied. Hence, all profit for the shareholders and the interest due on the deposits must be earned by the use of the deposits. On an average, the banks probably had to pay 4 per cent. for money secured to them for two years, and this money they could use at 7 to 8 per cent. in regular banking business. A very large proportion of the business firms in Australia borrow from their banks on daily balances, paying a minimum of 8 per cent. per annum, the American custom of discounting notes for fixed amounts for a definite time being unknown. Three-quarters at least of the local transactions are settled by promissory notes at from three to four months, nine-tenths of which are discounted by the holders, who pay at the rate of 7 to 8 per cent. per annum for the accommodation.

But it is quite clear that the enormous sums described could not all be used in this way, and as labor troubles rendered capitalists less ready to use their money in manufacturing, and a general depression restricted mercantile business, more and more money was offered to the banks on fixed deposit, the owners preferring to accept a lower rate of interest and avoid the trouble and difficulty of investing for themselves, and to secure, as they thought, absolute safety. Hence, for years, all the banks had found their deposits steadily increasing in amount, and continually renewed as they fell due, and gradually they began to look upon these deposits almost as capital, and to think less seriously of the prospect of being called on to repay them. Hence, also, they began to use these funds in ways approaching the nature of fixed investments more nearly than has been found to be safe. Money advanced on buildings and land cannot be called in as needed, and though no doubt the investments were generally profitable, they were clearly suitable only for the use of funds over which the investors had absolute control. Even of the suspended banks all held from 20 to 30 per cent. of their liabilities to the public in coin and liquid securities, but when these reserves were once seriously encroached on, it proved impossible to realize on the investments rapidly enough to meet liabilities as they accrued from depositors calling for their money as due. Finding, therefore, that sooner or later their liquid assets must be exhausted, a decision was reached while good coin balances remained to close the doors and try to make terms with the creditors.

Just what caused the trouble to come at this particular moment it is hard to see; but one bank, finding itself hard pressed, decided to suspend, even though offered assistance by the others, and this suspension caused the runs on the others which have had such disastrous results. In a way, therefore, these suspensions are hardly actual failures, for they are modified a good deal by the fact that all show very much over the twenty shillings in the pound. The cause is an inability to meet an immediate liability with a deferred asset. The difficulty having arrived, a decidedly new method of solving it was devised, and schemes of reconstruction, so called, have already been put forward by all the suspended institutions, and good progress made with them. At first it was

proposed that depositors should take preferred shares for a portion of their deposits. This has now been abandoned, and practically simply an extension of time of from five to seven years has been granted to the banks in which to pay off their liabilities, calls being made on the shareholders for a portion of the liability on the shares, the money thus paid to be an additional security to the depositors. Difficulties have arisen in some cases from the difference between English and colonial laws; under the latter an arrangement acceded to by three-quarters of the creditors in number and amount and sanctioned by the Court is final. In England this is not the case, and already the English depositors are taking steps to test the validity of the compromises. Still it is perfectly clear that nothing better can now be done than to grant time, and the position must be faced by all.

What it means to the community at large is hardly yet realized; but so much wealth cannot be tied up for such long periods without involving an immense change in the whole scale of social life. A bitter time is before the Australians, and the strictest economy, public and private, will be necessary for some years to come. Yet, while the resources of the country —wool, wheat, and gold—remain as sound as ever, and continually increasing in value, and when Australia, as New Zealand already has done, proves its ability to do without assistance, assistance may again be safely looked for from Great Britain, where capital accumulates so much more rapidly than use can be found for it within its own confines. In future, too, it is safe to assume that the borrower will more carefully consider what he borrows, and not look on caution as the duty of the lender only; for as well as to the lavish borrowing of the past, some blame for the collapse that has occurred may fairly be attached to careless and foolish lending.

J. E. Bullard.

## PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.—II.

Paris, July 7, 1893.

The death of the Duc d'Enghien changed the disposition of many Royalists towards Bonaparte. Before this sad event, Pasquier had taken the resolution to accept office; he changed his mind. Chateaubriand resigned his diplomatic post. In Europe the effect of the execution of the Duke was even greater than in France; the law of nations had been manifestly violated. Bonaparte went his way, without minding the murmurs of a small opposition; he exchanged his title of Consul for the title of Emperor, was consecrated by the Pope in person, and his reconciliation with the Church became his real consecration as a sovereign. "What right," says Pasquier, "had a Frenchman to understand his duties differently from the chief of the Catholic Church? What could the Royalists say who had never separated the cause of royalty from the cause of religion? No; whatever may have happened afterwards, whatever part I may have taken afterwards, nothing will prevent me from saying even to-day that after 1805 Bonaparte was the legitimate sovereign of France, in the eyes of the nation taken as a whole." After Austerlitz, Pasquier changed his mind, and, feeling the need of some occupation, he accepted office.

"It was not, however," he says, "without great hesitation. I feared the discontent of the society in which I lived; I knew that many intolerant people would not forgive me for the step I was going to take. But there were many strong reasons to oppose to their criticisms. Was it possible to forget one of the hardest lessons taught by the Revolution? Had it not taught us that our reason commanded us to sacrifice our repugnance in order to work, with all our might, against the return of such calamities as we had seen? Was not the best method that which consisted in placing around the Government the men who could protect it against revolutionary ideas?"

Pasquier asked Cambacérès to place him among the *maîtres des requêtes*—a new creation, then, as now, attached to the Council of State; they make reports on the various affairs which are brought before this Council. Pasquier tells us with candor: "The cause of the Bourbons was the cause of misfortune, and had received my first attachment; I belonged to it by my birth, by my convictions, by the sacrifices I had made; it was impossible for me not to preserve the profoundest sympathy for it; but I had come to the conclusion that, if this cause could ever triumph again, it would be at a very distant date and after events which it was impossible to foresee." So his sympathies were shelved for an indefinite period, and we shall see him now in the Emperor's Council of State. Napoleon had become for him the "necessary" man. Pasquier gives us interesting portraits of those who became the chief and obedient instruments of the Emperor; of his former colleagues in the Consulate—Lebrun, Cambacérès—who had become archtreasurer and archchancellor; of Fouché, of Talleyrand, of Barras.

Fouché was fit only for the Ministry of Police:

"He had seen everything, known everything. I add that he cared seriously for nothing. Without affection for anybody; of a perfidy which was never equalled, capable of sacrificing for the smallest interest the man who considered himself the day before his best friend; possessing in the highest degree, if not the ability, at least the impudence, of a liar; gifted with a light, superficial mind, often happy in repartee, and maintaining always an imperturbable coolness, it cost him nothing to betray everybody, beginning with Bonaparte, though he had served him, in the first period of his elevation, with a fidelity which had all the appearance of devotion."

The portrait is not flattered, but it is true; but what shall we say of the portrait of Talleyrand? Hatred of Talleyrand seems to have been the moving, perhaps the only real, passion of Pasquier. He evidently considered him as the personification of all that is base, vile, and criminal. "M. de La Fayette told me, some time ago, that, on the day of the Federation, the Bishop of Autun was mounting the steps of the altar, with the holy chalice in his hands. He sees M. de La Fayette, commander-general of the National Guards, sword in hand, near the steps, and whispers to him: 'Don't make me laugh.'" Pasquier calls him "this worthy priest of all the revolutionary immoralities." He describes him as a gambler, a coward; he shows him coming back after the Terror, obtaining from Barras, through the influence of Mme. de Staël, the portfolio of Foreign Affairs, using his post for his private fortunes. "This talent for making money never abandoned him; he used it on all occasions, and no treaty is known which did not furnish him an occasion. . . . Later, secularization in Germany and the arrangements which the new territorial partitions occasioned, became a fresh source of profits, and much greater than the first. I have heard them valued by well-informed persons at four millions at least." Sainte-Beuve, who wrote a severe article on Talleyrand in his 'Causeries du Lundi,' says in it: "M. de Talleyrand values himself at the sum of sixty millions, which he received altogether from the Powers, great or small, during his diplomatic career."

Pasquier speaks of Talleyrand's marriage with Mme. Grand in these terms: "To marry an old mistress, who has been the mistress of twenty others, when nothing remains to her but a glaring and well-recognized stupidity, when all traces of her beauty are effaced, etc." Mme. Grand was remarkably silly, and it was said that Talleyrand married her because Napoleon ordered him to do so. The marriage took place furtively at Épinay, in the Valley of Montmorency. "If there was a circumstance on which M. de Talleyrand never opened himself to anybody, it was this. I have heard it said by M. de Choiseul-Gouffier, one of his intimate acquaintances, that he had employed all his acuteness (and he had much) in trying to make Talleyrand explain himself on this subject, and that he never succeeded."

The war with Prussia, the victory at Jena, marked the culmination of Napoleon's successes.

"At no moment of his career did he enjoy, with more apparent security, the favors of fortune. Generally, in the midst of his greatest successes, he affected an anxious air, as if he wished it to be understood that his great designs were not yet accomplished, and that people ought not to think that there remained nothing more to do. . . . I think I see him still as he was on that day [the day of a Te-Deum at Notre-Dame], dressed in a costume which, though it was a little theatrical, was noble and fine. His features, always calm and serious, recalled the cameos which represent the Roman emperors. He was small; still his whole person, in this imposing ceremony, was in harmony with the part which he was playing. A sword glittering with diamonds was at his side, and the famous diamond called the Regent was on the pommel. Its brilliancy did not let us forget that this sword was the hardest and the most victorious that had ever appeared since those of Alexander and Cæsar."

Pasquier describes the ceremony of the marriage of Jerome, King of Westphalia, with a Princess of Wirtemberg, which took place at the Tuileries, in the Gallery of Diana: "All the magnificence of the most sumptuous court was exhibited. The quantity of pearls, diamonds, precious stones of all sorts, was really prodigious, and we were all the more surprised because we remembered the miseries of the end of the century." Pasquier says incidentally, speaking of the King of Wirtemberg (he was only a Grand Duke before Napoleon erected the Grand-Duchy of Westphalia into a kingdom):

"This King, who gave his daughter to Jerome, could not be ignorant that Jerome had contracted a first marriage in America, with a person of the most honorable family, and that this marriage had been consecrated after the forms and the laws of the country where it had been accomplished. The Emperor had declared this engagement null and illegal, since he, as the chief of the family, had not given his consent to it; but could such a motive, borrowed from the customs of certain sovereign families, be valid out of France, and especially in America?"

Talleyrand seemed at the height of favor; but

"La Roche Tarpéienne est près du Capitole."

Napoleon was aware that Talleyrand often made reflections on the Empire's want of solidity. Talleyrand had told the Duc de Dalberg, one of his confidants, that if Napoleon died in battle, his brother Joseph ought to be chosen his successor. Talleyrand was made Vice-Grand Elector, a purely honorary title, and had to abandon the portfolio of Foreign Affairs. Napoleon ceased to work with him and kept him at a distance. Few persons perceived the change, but Pasquier understood it well. Pasquier was now thirty years old; he

had an independent fortune; he was not one of the creatures of the Revolution. "Napoleon," he says, "had an admirable instinct for appreciating the dispositions of those who surrounded him. I appeared, therefore, to him, from the beginning, as a man of whom one could expect good services, but who would never belong to him as completely as he liked." In reality, Pasquier never belonged completely to anybody but himself. He was the type of the servant of the State; so was Molé, who was more sympathetic towards Napoleon than Pasquier. The Emperor liked old names; and these names, if they did not belong to the old feudal nobility, belonged to the old parliamentary families.

Pasquier openly accuses Talleyrand of having betrayed Napoleon at Erfurt, and of having secretly helped the Emperor Alexander in the conference which took place in that town. He warned Alexander at the house of Princess Thurn und Taxis against certain projects of Napoleon; he considered himself less as a servant of the Emperor than as a sort of arbitrator of the destinies of Europe. "Napoleon's resolution to take M. de Talleyrand with him to Erfurt was an error. He had no need of him, and he showed too much confidence in a man who was secretly discontented and whose dangerous character he well knew." Talleyrand's discontent had free play during the expedition to Spain. He reconciled himself with Fouché, who had long been his open enemy; together they formed the project, if Napoleon died, to have him replaced by Murat, the King of Naples. While Napoleon was in Spain, letters were written to Murat, asking him to hold himself in readiness; these letters were intercepted by Prince Eugène, the Viceroy of Lombardy, and were sent to Napoleon. He came back from Spain; the storm broke at the first reception he held at the Tuileries. Pasquier gives us the whole detail of this terrible scene. Before all the high officers of state, Napoleon said to Talleyrand:

"You are a thief, a coward, a man without honor; you do not believe in God; all your lifetime you have betrayed everybody; there is nothing sacred for you; you would sell your father. I have covered you with wealth, and there is nothing that you would not undertake against me. For ten months you have had the impudence, because my affairs in Spain were going wrong, to say that you always blamed my enterprise there, whereas you gave me the first idea of it and persistently urged it. And that man, that unfortunate [the Duc d'Enghien], by whom was I advised of the place of his residence? Who incited me to be severe with him? What are your projects? What do you want? What do you hope for? Do you dare to say? I ought to break you like a glass. I can do it, but I despise you too much to take the trouble."

Talleyrand remained impassible; he was apparently insensible. The courtiers drew away from him. He allowed Napoleon to expend his rage, and went home silently without complaining. The Emperor maintained him in all his dignities.

# Correspondence.

## THE WILL OF JOHN WASHINGTON, 2D.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have discovered one more of the early Washington wills, which confirms what has hitherto been conjectural. John, the immigrant, had three children, of whom the eldest was a son John, and the second a son Lawrence. From this Lawrence the President traced descent. Of John almost nothing has certainly been known; and in drawing up my pedigree of the family, I was unable even to determine the name of his wife. The Hayward will, first printed in this journal, gave a family of four sons to a John Washington, and I conjectured them to be the children of this John. The matter was of some moment, as one of the children was named Henry, and that was a name not occurring in the immediate descendants of either immigrant. I have found the will of John Washington of Westmoreland, and it confirms the conjecture I made when noticing the Hayward will. The four sons are noted, and his wife Ann. His sister Anne, who married Francis Wright, may have died before the will was made, as she receives no mention, nor do any heirs of her body. The Francis Dade mentioned in the will married a sister-in-law of John's cousin, also named John, and son of the immigrant Lawrence. The document also proves that the power of attorney printed by Mr. Conway as executed by the widow of John the immigrant, was really executed by the widow of her son John, the maker of the will. The will of the immigrant was probated in 1677, and that of his son in 1697, while the power was dated 1698. Further, the name of Thomas Howes occurs as a witness to the will of John second and to the widow's power of attorney. The copy of this will which I use was made by George Lee, who married the widow of George Washington's half-brother, Lawrence Washington.

Worthington C. Ford.

Washington, July 13, 1893.

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In the name of God amen this 22d day of January in the year of our Lord, 1697-8 in the ninth year of the Reign of our Sovereign Lord King William I John Washington of Washing [ton] parish in the County of Westmld Being sick & weak of Body but of Perfect Mind & Memory thanks be Given to God therefore Calling into mind the Mortality of my Body & Knowing it is appoynted for all [ ] to dye doe make & ordain my Last will & Testamt in maner & form following, that is first & principally I give my Soul into ye hands of God whoe gave it me & for my Body I Commend it to the Earth to be buryed in Christian & Decent manner in ye Burying place on ye pla[n]tation where I now live, by my Father, Mother & Brothers nothinge Doubting but at the general resurreccon I shall receive ye same again by the Mighty power of God & as touching such [ ] it hath pleased God to Bless me with [in] this Life, I give devize bequeath and dispose ye same in Manner & form following first I give & Bequeath unto my welbeloved wife Ann Washington the plantacon I now dwell on at appamattox Dureing Her Natural Life. Item I give & Bequeath unto my Eldest son Law: Washington that tract of Land which I Bought of Mr. Francis Dade Commonly called Barnets Quarter it lyes on uper Machotickes In Stafford County. I give it to my sd son & His Heirs for ever. Item I give to my son John Washington that tract of Land wch I now live on after the decease of my sd wife, to him & his Heirs for Ever. but if it please God that my sd son John should die before my said Wife then I give the said Tract to my son Lawrence Washington to him & his Heirs for Ever, & if Both my sons John and Lawr should die before my sd wife or without issue of their Bodys Lawfully begotten then I give it to my son Nathaniel to him and his Heirs for ever, & if my three sons Lawr John & Nathl should die before my wife or without Issue Lawfully begotten of their bodys then I give the sd Tract to my son Henry Washington to him & his for Ever & if it please God that all my Four sons should dye before my sd wife or without Issue of their Bodys Lawfully begotten then I give to the next heir at Law to him and his heirs for Ever. Item I give to my son John Washington that Tract of Land Lying on pope's creek wch John Flewelling now Lives on to him & his Heirs for Ever. Item I give to my son Nathl Washington that tract of Land wch Lyes at ye Head of Appomattatox Creek which Anthony Rawlins & Joseph Smith & John Betts now Lives on to him & his Heirs for Ever. Item I give to my son Henry Washington that tract of Land which was Between me & Robert Richards John Whitcraft lives now on part of it it is in Stafford County on the Dam side which the head of [ ] Machotick makes I give it to my sd son & his Heirs for Ever. Item it is my will that if my son Lawe should dye without issue of his Body Lawfully begotten or before he arrives to the age of Twenty one years that then my son John Washington have the tract of Land wh I bought of Mr Francis Dade called Barnetts Quarter to him & his Heirs for Ever. Item It is my will that if my son John Washington should dye before he Come to the age of twenty one Years or without Issue of his Body Lawfully begotten that then I give to my son Lawe the tract of Land that I now Live on after my wife's decease to him and his Heirs for Ever and I give that Tract of Land on Pope's Creek that John Flewelling Lives on to my son Nathaniel Washington to him & his heirs for Ever. Item it is my will that if my son Nathl Washington should dye without Issue of his body Lawfully begotten or before he arrives to the age of Twenty one Years that then I give to my son Jn Washington that tract of Land at the head of Appamattax Creek which Anthony Rawlins & Jos: Smith & John Beatts Lives on to him and his Heirs for Ever. Item It is my will that if any three of my afores'd sons should dye without issue of their Bodyes Lawfully begotten or before they arrive to the Age of twenty one years that then all the Aforementioned lands I give to that son which is Living & if it please god that they should all dye without Issues of their Bodys Lawfully begotten, or before they arrive to the age of twenty one years, or if I have no more Issue that then I give to my wife those two tracts of Land that lyes in Stafford County to her and her heirs for ever. the other three tracts to bee divided between what Children it may please God to send my brother if he have but one I give it to him or her if more the Eldest son to have his Choice of the tracts the next Eldest his next choice if two sons if it be a Daughter, that she have her Choice after her brother to them & their heirs forever. Item it is my will that all my p'sonl Estate in Generall be equally divided into five parts, and that my wife have her first choice & my son Lawrence the next my son John the next my son Nathl the next & my son Henry the other. Item it is my will that if it please God any of my sons should dye without Issue of their bodyes Lawfully begotten or before they arrive to the age of Twenty one years that then his part of the p'sonall Estate be divided between my wife and the other three sons Living & if it please God that three of my sons should dye without issue of their bodyes Lawfully begotten or before they arrive at the age of twenty one years that then the p'sonall Estate be equally divided between my Wife and that son that is Living. and if it please God that if all my sd sons should die without Issue of their bodyes Lawfully begotten or before they arrive at the age of twenty one years that then my p'sonall Estate be Divided Equally between my Wife Ann Washington & my brother's children. it is my will that my brother &* tuition of my son Lawe Washington & that my sd Brother have the Keeping of my sd sons Estate & of this my Last [will] & Testamt. I make & ordain my welbeloved brother Capt Lawrence Washington & my Loving wife Ann Washington my full & whole Execr & Executrix. and I do hereby utterly Disallow revoke and annul all & every other former Testamt Wills Legacies bequests & Exts by me in any wise before this time named willed & bequested ratifying & confirming this & none other to be my last will & Testamt.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand & seale this day & year as afores'd signed sealed published pronounced & declared by the said John Washington as his Last Will & Testament in the Presence of

Item it is also my will that Mrs. Elizabeth Hardidge have my Watch that was given to me by Capt Wm. Hardidg's Will. Item it is my will that my welbeloved godson John Dudlstone have a Gold Signet which was given me by his father on his death bed. Item it is my will that my wellbeloved Capt Lawre Washington have my wearing Ring.

John Washington.

John Scott Thomas Howes
A. Webster Peter Hyott.

* Some words omitted in MS.

Westm'l'd. At a Court held for the s[d] county the 23[d] day of Feby 1697

The above will was duly provd & a probat thereof granted to the Exec[rs] therein named and ordered to be recorded, P[r] cur.

Recordat 5 May 1697

Ja Westcomb Cle. Comp. P[r]

Copy Test

George Lee

C. C. W.

## AN UNPARDONABLE AMERICANISM, ETC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: What is here specially alluded to is a misuse, widely current in the United States, of the verb *predicate*.

Before touching on that solecism, however, I wish to show to what extent words referable, for their source, to *prædicare* as employed in late Latin have been overlooked by dictionaries of the otiose school of Johnson and Richardson. For example, of the conjugates about to be exemplified, only one of them excepted, there is no recognition whatever by those lexicographers:

"A Magical Monk in Spain, or some Fryer *Prædicant*, was familiar with a Nobleman that had a fair wife." Rev. John Gaule, *Mag-astromancer*, etc. (1652), p. 355.

"Prayant as well as *Predicant*." "A dispirited, . . . proletary, *predicant*, not many degrees removed from a mendicant, condition." Bp. John Gauden, *Ecclesiæ Anglicanæ Suspiria* (1659), pp. 93, 250.

"That they be satisfied with the Title of Friers *Prædicants*," etc. Rev. John Sergeant, *History of Monastical Conventions* (1686), p. 56. Not to go outside of English, the construction here seen is that of *letters patents*, long very common.

"The last deceased and the new-born year join in presenting us with three *predicant* tourists." *Westminster Review*, vol. x., p. 197 (1829).

"Timorousness of *Predicants* occasioned thereby." "Holy liues of professors and *predicants*." "Or doe they well who presse it upon Monkish *predicants*, from Pauls example?" Rev. Dr. William Sclater, *Briefe Exposition upon II. Thessalonians* (1626), pp. 219, 220, 260 (ed. 1629).

"Dominicans or *Prædicants*." Rev. John Sergeant, *ut supra*, p. 37. Also pp. 55, 56, 57.

"But, though these strolling *Predicants* have allured some itching Ears," etc. Bp. George Lavington, *The Enthusiasm of Methodists and Papists Compared* (1749–'51), vol. i, p. 14 (ed. 1754). But earlier than the earliest of these quotations for the substantive *predicant* is one from Hooker, given by Dr. Johnson's editor, Archdeacon Todd, and, it appears, misunderstood by him, and, in his wake, by Webster, Worcester, Dr. Latham, and others, to signify "one that affirms anything." Does it mean, with Hooker, "a Dominican"?

"She likewise takes off Warburton to the greatest exactness; his very voice, and the mien of his visage, as he contemplates, and as he *predicates*." Thomas Amory, *Memoirs of Ladies of Great Britain* (1755), vol. i., p. 97 (ed. 1769).

"I propose coming up on Monday, the 12th, and *predicating* the 13th." Rev. John Keble (1832), in Cardinal Newman's *Letters* (1891), vol. i., p. 277.

"On account of the singularity of the *predication*, I wish some fair Arcadians of your acquaintance would mind it, who seem but little to regard the descriptions of a heavenly spirit from the pulpit." Thomas Amory, *ut supra*, vol. i., p. 28.

"If heresy is not increased by it, it must be immaterial to the feelings of Lord Sidmouth and of the Imperial Parliament, whether Mr. Shufflebottom preaches at Bungay, and Mr. Ringletub at Ipswich; or whether an artful vicissitude is adopted, and the order of insane *predication* reversed." Rev. Sydney Smith (1811), *Works* (ed. 1850), p. 198.

"How rational is it, then, to conclude (but I only offer it for Argument-sake) that, was Adam reposses'd of Paradise again, and premonished of Sin (as we are daily precautioned), whether or no it might not be thought to raise a Circumspection in him to evade the Serpent, the Sin, and the Woman's Temptation? Into this Opinion most Ages have crept; and our Modern Assertors and *Predicators* approve on't." Richard Franck, *Northern Memoirs* (1658), p. 7 (ed. 1694).

"The main design of their [the Dominicans'] Institution being to Read, Preach, Write, and Expound the Word of God, which gives the occasion of naming them Prædicants or *Prædicatories*." Rev. John Sergeant, *ut supra*, p. 55.

Here and there in literature, *predicate* seems, by a bold Latinism, to imply "commendation," "eulogy":

"The more her Vertue is *predicated* by her Cousen, the more she humbles her selfe." Anthony Stafford, *The Femall Glory* (1635), p. 66 (ed. 1860).

"That Colledge . . . will for ever . . . *predicate* yo[r] Bounty by w[ch] it hath beene so much beautified and inlarged." *Id.* (before 1641), *A Just Apology*, *ibid.*, p. xxiv.

"This Wisdom from Above, of which the Apostle so highly *predicates*, is, we see, the same as Wisdom revealed immediately from Heaven." Bp. William Warburton, *The Doctrine of Grace* (1750), book ii., ch. vi.

"The interest of such men requires that the spirit of arms and of arts be extinguished. They will *predicate* peace, that the people may be tractable to them; but a religion altogether pacific is the fomenter of wars and the nurse of crimes, alluring Sloth from within and Violence from afar." W. S. Landor, *Imaginary Conversations, Lucullus and Cæsar* (1829).

From post-classical Latin we have, farther, the ordinary *predicate*, that briefly definable by "affirm," which some one among our republican predecessors succeeded in setting on foot as a synonym of "found," "base." Long ago, as those who consult our Dictionaries are aware, it was such a synonym with Chief Justice Marshall and President John Quincy Adams; and, notwithstanding reiterated protests, it has been so with countless others, down to our own day, yet, as lately as 1880, it had the tacit approval of Dr. Webster's editors. As to its occurrence orally, an American who has not heard it a hundred times must have had an exceptional experience. Even Dr. O. W. Holmes has lent it his countenance; writing, as he does, in 'The Autocrat of the Breakfast-table,' ch. vi., of "any opinion *predicated* on the supposition that," etc.

Of the objectionable expressions which, far more freely than is generally supposed, besprinkle the pages of the late Mr. J. R. Lowell, here, relevantly to the abuse animadverted on, is a specimen:

"His moroseness, his party-spirit, and his personal vindictiveness are all *predicated upon* his Inferno, and *upon* a misapprehension or careless reading even of that." *Among my Books, Second Series* (1870), p. 46 (ed. 1876).

As usually employed, the verb *predicate* signifies not merely 'affirm,' but 'affirm as a basis of deduction.' Besides that the idea of affirmation is all-essential to the word, there is indication, by it, of a ground for something. In the American misapplication of the term, while the latter fact is recognized, the former is unrecognized. To come to Mr. Lowell, did he mean, by the sentence quoted, that moroseness, on the part of Dante, is asserted in consequence of the Inferno? Or did he mean that the imputation of moroseness to the poet is based upon the Inferno? His "predicated upon," to import 'affirmed because of,' 'alleged on account of,' is a mode of speech neither authorized nor tolerable. Clearly, he would never have written as he wrote except for his familiarity with the illiterate and unwarranted use of *predicate* just adverted to, and its unconscious influence on him. Missing both English and American, he has fallen between two stools.

Attractive to the eye, and no less seductive to the ear, from its seemly amplitude, *predicate* has, moreover, often been impressed, at least in England, to serve the place of *predict;* just as *prædicare* was substituted by Tertullian for *prædicere*. This blunder, according to a review-article in the London *Spectator* of July 6, 1867, conspicuously marked, at that time, "the language of Parliament." It has certainly been common elsewhere than in Parliament; and it has repeatedly been censured. Dr. W. B. Hodgson quotes for it authors so respectable as Mr. Anthony Trollope, Lord S. G. Osborne, Sir H. L. Bulwer, Mrs. Lynn Linton, and so on. He might have added the Rev. Sydney Smith, Charles Dickens, and leading articles in the London *Times*. I find it, indeed, in works published so long ago as 1789 and 1795. Has it yet crossed the Atlantic?

F. H.

Marlesford, England, June 24, 1893.

# Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' fall announcements include 'The Writings of Thomas Paine, Political, Sociological, Religious, and Literary,' edited in four volumes by Moncure D. Conway; the conclusion of Worthington C. Ford's edition of the 'Writings of Washington' (vol. xiv.), and the continuation of Paul Leicester Ford's 'Writings and Correspondence of Jefferson'; Rousseau's 'Social Contract,' translated by Rose M. Harrington, and edited by Prof. Edward L. Walter of the University of Michigan; 'Comparative Administrative Law,' embracing the national and local law of the United States, England, France, and Germany, by Prof. F. J. Goodenow of Columbia College; 'The Pottery and Porcelain of the United States,' an historical sketch by Edwin A. Barber, with more than 200 illustrations; the Marquis de Nadaillac's 'Manners and Monuments of Prehistoric Peoples' and 'Prehistoric America,' both illustrated, and both translated by Nancy Bell, and the latter edited by William H. Dall; 'The Jews of Angevin England,' inedited documents, collected and translated by Joseph Jacobs; 'Rambles in Historic Lands' (England and the Continent), by Peter J. Hamilton; 'Poems of Nature and Love,' by Madison Cawein; 'The Legend of the White Canoe,' by William Trumbull, with designs by F. V. Dumond; 'Parables from Nature,' by Mrs. Alfred Gatty, in two volumes, with illustrations by Paul de Longpré; 'Chinese Nights' Entertainments,' by Adele M. Fielde, with Chinese illustrations; and *éditions de luxe* of Julia Kavanagh's 'Woman in France during the 18th Century,' Frances Elliot's 'Old Court Life in France,' and 'Knickerbocker's History of New York'—the last uniform in size with the Granada and Alhambra editions of the past two years.

Macmillan & Co. announce Irving's 'Rip Van Winkle' and 'Legend of Sleepy Hollow,' with fifty-four full-page plates by George H. Boughton; Miss Mitford's 'Our Village,' illustrated by Hugh Thomson, and issued after the manner of Mrs. Gaskell's 'Cranford'; 'The United States: An Historical Sketch,' by Prof. Goldwin Smith; 'Chronological Outlines of American Literature,' by Selden L. Whitcomb; a translation of Prof. Friedrich von Wieser's work on 'Natural Value'; and a 'Dictionary of Birds,' by Alfred Newton, assisted by Hans Gadow.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish immediately, with many illustrations, 'Campfires of a Naturalist,' by Clarence E. Edwards.

Several important works on Dante are just now in preparation in England. Mr. Paget Toynbee, a well-known scholar in mediæval literature, has been for some years engaged on a dictionary of the 'Divine Comedy.' He has now determined to divide his task, publishing first the part dealing with the proper names in all Dante's works. Dr. Edward Moore, distinguished as a text-critic, is preparing a one-volume edition of all Dante's writings, and Mr. A. J. Butler, whose commentary on the 'Divine Comedy' has been, on the whole, remarkably successful, has just completed a translation of Scartazzini's 'Dante-Handbuch.'

Ginn & Co., Boston, have become the proprietors of Blaisdell's series of Physiologies, hitherto published by Lee & Shepard.

F. T. Neely, Chicago, takes advantage of the expiration of the copyright of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' to publish a new cheap edition, with a biography of Mrs. Stowe.

In like manner, David McKay, Philadelphia, profits by the lapse of copyright in Lowell's 'Conversations on Some of the Old Poets,' which, as being in a measure superseded by later and riper addresses, Mr. Lowell did not include in the Riverside Edition of his works. If any have thought this omission an unfinished window in Aladdin's tower, Mr. McKay has gratified them by imitating as far as possible the edition just mentioned; and though it falls a little short of its model, externally this unnumbered volume will take its place very well beside those issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It is marked "Third Edition," and contains a somewhat perfunctory preface by Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson.

Something may perhaps be said in favor of the growing practice of reprinting, as if for class-room use, critical essays which are by no means out of print, and which are not of sufficient importance to be put in the library of any one but the advanced student of comparative or historical criticism. We fail to see, however, why it is necessary to annotate reprints of this sort as if every letter of the original were sacred in itself, and every chance allusion worth being dragged out into detailed mention. Such is the practice in Prof. Cook's 'An Answer to the Question, "What is Poetry?"' (Ginn & Co.), a reprint of a pretty essay of Leigh Hunt's, in which the editor repeatedly calls attention in a note to the fact that Hunt inadvertently left out *the* or wrote *he* for *it* and *or* for *nor* in a quotation, takes advantage of a mention of Ariosto's hippogriff to lug in Pegasus and Hesiod, and furnishes us with the exact reference for Homer's comparison of Apollo descending in his wrath to the coming of night.

The preface to William Renton's 'Outlines of English Literature' (Charles Scribner's Sons) sets the characteristic note of the book when it states that "the consideration given to an author individually is [here] subordinated to that given him as belonging to a type or school." Following this plan, the author sketches, with compactness, suggestiveness, and individuality, the chief eras in the history of English and American literature. In the hands of an experienced teacher or a mature student, this little treatise of 250 pages might give good results. Conventional teachers and dull pupils, however, it would certainly mystify or lead astray by such marvellous formulæ as (s+p)s +(v+h) T, which expresses the constitutional quality of Shakspere's artistic power; by similarly amazing geometrical diagrams, which group in a philosophic and comparative fashion the authors of a particular epoch; and by such sweeping generalizations as the remark "that the singular energy of the American character, if intensity and force of expression are to be considered as its correlative, is inadequately represented in the higher American literature, which tends rather to the measured, the finished, and the minute, than to the bold and impassioned—to the manner of Boston or New Orleans rather than of New York and Chicago."

A very welcome addition to English Goethe literature is a translation, by Mr. Bailey Saunders, of the "Sprüche in Prosa," those incomparable reflections on art, literature, science, and life which, having first appeared sporadically in the 'Wahlverwandschaften,' in 'Kunst und Alterthum,' in the 'Wanderjahre,' and in the 'Nachgelassene Werke,' were subsequently collected by Eckermann and for the first time critically edited by Von Loeper. The present translation, which appears under the title 'The Maxims and Reflections of Goethe' (Macmillan & Co.), is the first one attempted by an Englishman, and it is safe to say that it will remain the best. It is accompanied by an admirable introduction dealing most pertinently with the nature and use of maxims and the peculiar value of those of Goethe. We also learn by the way that Mr. Saunders was assisted in his work of selecting and translating by such men as Profs. Harnack and Huxley and Sir Frederick Leighton.

We wish the same praise could be given to another work, presumably intended to facilitate the study of Goethe, viz., 'Einführung in Goethe's Meisterwerke,' by Dr. W. Bernhardt (D. C. Heath & Co.); but we cannot help protesting against the sort of bookmaking exemplified by this production. To cut up the works of a writer in a way to make the limbs fly in every direction, and then to bury these dissected fragments in a mass of "copious biographical, literary, critical, and explanatory notes, a vocabulary of difficult words, and an introduction containing a life of the author" (all this is promised on the title-page), is a proceeding which must be characterized as an attempted murder not only of the author himself, but of the good sense and judgment of his readers as well.

A disciple and admirer of Émile Montégut, Auguste Sautour, has, in a small book of some hundred and twenty pages ('L'Oeuvre de Zola,' Paris: Fishbacher), given us a concise and, on the whole, satisfactory estimate of the value of Zola's work. Taking 'La Débâcle' as his starting point, he examines the whole of the Rougon-Macquart series from the point of view of science, philosophy, morals, humanity, æsthetics, literature, ideas, and usefulness. That he condemns it in each successive review as false to nature and truth, as harmful in its immediate and its eventual effects, is not to be wondered at, nor that he succeeds in establishing his position in nearly every case. But one may justly wish he had indicated some of the better features of Zola's work and given more prominence to the fact that there are passages in these books unequalled for force and magnificence. This reservation apart, the *brochure* is a useful contribution to the formation of an opinion on the head of the naturalistic school.

As a result of the particular activity in the last two or three years of French interest in Algeria, the number of good books about the country is rapidly increasing. One of the last of these, 'Kabylie du Jurjura,' by Jules Liorel (Paris: Leroux), while it does not pretend to reveal any new facts, is an excellent comprehensive study of a region and people much less well known than they deserve to be. It is still the common belief that the population of Algeria is made up principally, if not entirely, of Arabs, and even the Government long seemed to share this delusion. The French are now beginning to recognize that for the future of the colony the Arabs are a far less important and hopeful element than the Berbers, chief among whom the Kabyles are attracting increased attention (see, for instance, the Vicomte de Caix de Saint-Aymour's 'Arabes et Kabyles,' published year before last). They are descended from the earliest inhabitants of North Africa, intermixed with fugitives from every new invasion. They were never thoroughly subdued by the Romans or any one else before 1857; and even then it was long after the rest of the land had submitted, and twenty-seven years later than the capture of Algiers, not seventy miles away. M. Liorel's book is full of curious and valuable information, though he will find few readers for his list of villages, which takes up some sixty-five pages. Especially interesting is his example of a "Kanoun," or code of village laws. The short preface by M. Émile Masqueray is better worth reading than advertisements of this kind usually are.

Prof. D'Ancona, the first two instalments of whose excellent 'Manuale della Letteratura Italiana' we noticed not long ago, has now published the second part of the first volume, covering the period from Petrarch to the end of the fourteenth century. Petrarch and Boccaccio are, of course, the principal figures, but they are not given undue prominence over a host of minor writers, many of whom, we think, appear for the first time in a work of this kind.

Dr. Angelo Solerti has extracted from his critical edition of the minor poetical works of Tasso, published by Zanichelli, his Bibliography of the same, thus completing his guide to the entire work of Tasso in prose and in verse.

The Pope has awarded a gold medal to Prof. W. M. Ramsay of Aberdeen University, well known for his explorations in Asia Minor, for his recently published work on 'The Church in the Roman Empire before A. D. 170.' This distinction, which is not only signal but curious, considering that Prof. Ramsay is presumably a Presbyterian, is bestowed, no doubt, because of his vigorous and convincing advocacy, among other things, of the Apostle Peter's life and martyrdom at Rome.

The Nestorian tablet which was discovered in 1625 in a wall outside of the city of Singan Fu in northwestern China, has been visited recently by a traveller who reports its serious mutilation. The stone, which is of coarse marble, was erected in 781 as a monument to the labors of the Nestorian Christians. The inscription is partly in Syrian characters, and eulogizes the propagation of Christianity in China, and is, according to Dr. Williams, "the most ancient Christian inscription yet found in Asia." A few years ago, the Chinese Government, on account of foreign representations on the subject, caused a roof to be built over the tablet in order to protect it from the effects of exposure to the weather. This roof has, however, been broken down and "several of the characters have been effaced, and there are other signs of malicious hands." At a meeting held last month in London, the Archbishop of Canterbury announced that the well-known traveller Mrs. Bishop (Miss Isabella Bird) was about to set out on another journey, one of the objects of which was to see this stone and to secure an accurate representation of it and the inscription. To this end she was receiving instruction in photography and would take cameras with her.

—Prof. Payne of Northfield, Minnesota, proposes the publication of a periodical devoted exclusively to popular astronomy, and issued monthly. The reading matter will be expressly prepared for, and adapted to, the wants of amateurs, teachers, students of astronomy, and popular readers; it will be plainly worded, untechnical in language, and fully illustrated, at the subscription price of $2.50 annually. There is in this country a large number of amateurs who have the desire and the time to undertake useful astronomical work, if only they knew what to do and how to do it. Co-operation in method and work ought to be mutually helpful under proper guidance. One purpose of this new periodical will be to point out useful elemental lines of work for small telescopes, the field-glass, opera-glass, naked-eye observation, and suitable methods of mapping subjects adapted to that kind of illustration. Tables of current celestial phenomena, with full and particular descriptions of the face of the sky, will appear from time to time, and suggestions will be made to secure effective work. Students and popular readers constitute other classes who are interested in astronomy, and who might be aided in plans for self-instruction—an idea which has never been worked out in any periodical, although perfectly feasible. A few of those eminent in astronomy to-day have gained their renown chiefly in this way. For the publication of this new periodical it is believed that the astronomers of Carleton College enjoy superior advantages.

—'The Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania, Series A: Cuneiform Texts, edited by H. V. Hilprecht,' has recently appeared as a reprint from the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, N. S. xviii., No. 1. There are fifty pages of text and fifty pages of plates. Thirty-five of the plates are photographic reproductions of autographic copies of Babylonian inscriptions found on door sockets, brick stamps, vases, lapis-lazuli discs, stone and clay tablets and cylinders, etc. Most of the inscriptions belong to periods but little known, and some of them come from kings not known heretofore at all. Fifteen of the plates contain photographs direct from the objects. The new material of this publication will be welcomed by all Assyriologists, while the beauty and accuracy of the copies made by the editor add greatly to the value of the work. It is estimated that the series will contain eight or ten volumes. These remains come for the most part from the temple of Bel at Niffer, one of the oldest seats of Babylonian culture, whence they were dug by Dr. J. P. Peters in 1889-90. A history by Dr. Peters of his expedition, with diagrams of his diggings, ought not to be much longer delayed. The specialist gains from the texts just published some idea of the success of the party, but there is a large reading public now which feels an interest in all such work, and for it, as well as for specialists, an account of the expedition should be published.

—Since Miss Fawcett, in 1890, outranked the senior-wrangler, both believers and sceptics in the mathematical normalcy of the female mind have scanned with interest the examination lists of the Cambridge Mathematical Tripos. This year, of the ten women who passed this examination, two are wranglers, and one (Miss Johnston of Newnham) stands between five and six on the list; the non-wranglers, with two exceptions, hold rank with the senior optimes. Such successes are no longer exceptional, nor are they confined to any special line of study. The two comparatively small women's colleges of Cambridge have this year won twelve first classes in the various triposes; and in the mediæval and modern-languages tripos and in the moral-science tripos *only* women appear in the first class. This term three of the Oxford women students took the final examination in natural science. Miss Shorrock of Somerville Hall obtained a first-class in chemistry, Miss Sharp of Lady Margaret Hall a third, and Miss Evelyn Berkley from Lady Margaret, who is the first woman to try the final honor School of Physics, took an excellent second-class. Our correspondent comments on Miss Berkley's good standing, as she had not been able to take previously a mathematical honor examination, as men generally do. At Oxford the past term has in several ways brought additional recognition of the women students. To recapitulate: three more honor examinations have been opened to them—theology, Oriental languages, and the examination for the degree of Doctor of Music; the University has decided to print officially the successful women's names in all class lists, with the name of the college to which each belongs; the Council has offered a room in the Clarendon Building as an office for the Association for the Education of Women in Oxford, and has further recognized this Association by appointing a University delegate on its committee; the University has, furthermore, consented to appoint a delegate to sit on the council of Somerville Hall, and will doubtless extend similar official countenance to Lady Margaret and St. Hugh's, when these bodies solicit it. Both in Great Britain and in the United States 1893 seems destined to serve as one of the mile-stones in the progress of higher education for women.

—"There is no gainsaying," writes a correspondent, "that whatever beauty London may boast is mainly the result of chance—the chance of atmosphere and light, of mist and fog and smoke. As a rule, the conscious effort to ornament its streets has, in modern times, resulted in failure—in buildings that are a discredit to the architect and statues that are a dishonor to the sculptor. By contrast, the unveiling of Mr. Gilbert's fountain, raised as a memorial to the late Lord Shaftesbury, is an event of no little artistic importance to London. The fountain stands in Piccadilly Circus, a site worthy of a fine monument. Mr. Gilbert is a sculptor of rare distinction, who, it was known, could not, if he would, have produced such an abortion as those which, for a hundred years and more, a well-meaning people have been offering to their heroes. Now that the fountain has been unveiled, the all but universal verdict is that it is an honor, not merely to Lord Shaftesbury, but to Mr. Gilbert, who, by it, has still further strengthened his reputation. It is distinguished by all those characteristics which hitherto have delighted in his work. It is vigorous and dignified in design as a whole; the detail is exquisite, but never too ornate in its marvellous elaboration; the different metals introduced are used in the pictorial rather than the sculpturesque spirit, but always with admirable result. Indeed, the chief charm of the fountain is, that, while the detail, especially in a beautiful arrangement of dolphins and water-babies running around one of the three basins, bears the minutest inspection and study, the fountain, as a whole, impresses by its sobriety and restraint. There are none of the swirling draperies and flying figures of the Bernini School, no *rococo* excesses. It is almost stern in its simplicity of outline, and, consequently, it is in perfect harmony with London gloom and melancholy. Without question, though its jewel-like finish may be criticised, it is one of the modern world's finest pieces of street sculpture. There is hope for the future loveliness of London if its decoration henceforth be intrusted to its Gilberts, instead of the Boehms, who heretofore have been first in favor."

—Dr. Max Kaluza's observation that the Middle English translation of the 'Roman de la Rose' falls into three fragments, of which the first contains little or nothing that contravenes Chaucer's rules of language and versification, was first made public in the *Academy* for July 5, 1890. He has recently published the last results of his studies on this subject in a book of some two hundred and fifty pages, under the title of 'Chaucer und der Rosenroman' (Berlin: Felber). Dr. Kaluza's book has been received very favorably in Germany and in England, and the conclusions at which he has arrived seem in a fair way to meet with wide acceptance among scholars. These conclusions are, in brief, that lines 1–1705 and 5811–7692 were really written by Chaucer, and comprise the whole of his translation, but that lines 1706–5810 are the work of an imitator. This thesis Dr. Kaluza supports by an elaborate argument from metre, vocabulary, and style, with a collection of parallel passages covering almost a hundred pages of fine print. By these parallel passages he supposes that he has proved a similarity so close between Chaucer's phraseology and the phraseology of the first and third fragments of the translation that it is impossible longer to deny the Chaucerian authorship of these parts of the English 'Romaunt.'

—Though this collection of parallels is a valuable contribution to our knowledge of Middle English phraseology, it is impossible to accept it as evidence in the sense intended by its compiler. German scholars are very prone to yield to the seductions of this parallel-passage argument; but never, perhaps, has so astonishing a collection been made as this of Dr. Kaluza's. In many instances the resemblance confines itself to one or two words, and those among the commonest in the language. Thus, the fact that Chaucer and the translator both use the phrase "to go to bed" seems to Kaluza of sufficient importance to deserve a note, and there are many other illustrations of quite as trivial a character. A large number of parallels, again, simply show that the translator followed his original very closely, and that some word that he found there was also well known to Chaucer and used by him whenever he chose. What else is to be inferred, for example, from the fact that the translator uses the word "engender" where the French has the same word, and that Chaucer uses engender now and then, when he sees occasion, as everybody else did and does? Dr. Kaluza's belief that Chaucer's translation of the 'Roman de la Rose' was confined to the parts included in the first and third fragments of the extant English version, is, besides, in flat contradiction to the evidence that may reasonably be extracted from the prologue to the 'Legend of Good Women.' His theoretical considerations about the way in which the translation reached its present form are curiously at variance with probability and with each other. He even makes the suggestion that a part of the version was prepared by Chaucer "for his private use." What private use a poet who was perfectly acquainted with French should have for an English translation

of a French poem which was one of his favorite pieces of reading, is a question that Dr. Kaluza would find some difficulty in answering. As a whole, this investigation must be regarded as a valuable contribution to Chaucerian literature, but as very far from settling the question who wrote the extant English version of the 'Roman de la Rose.'

—A complete edition of Martin Luther's sacred and secular poems with notes has been issued as a "Festgabe" on the occasion of the restoration and reconsecration of the Schlosskirche at Wittenberg. The couplet,

> "Wer nicht liebt Wein, Weib und Gesang,
> Der bleibt ein Narr sein Leben lang,"

so often quoted and so generally ascribed to the Reformer, is not contained in this collection, and indeed there is not the slightest evidence that he ever wrote it. It is simply the translation of a verse current in Italy long before his time:

> "Chi non ama il vino, la donna e il canto,
> Un pazzo egli sarà e mai un santo."

It was first printed in the *Wandsbecker Bote* in 1775 as follows:

> "Dir wünsch' ich Wein und Mädchenkuss,
> Und deinem Klepper Pegasus
> Die Krippe stets voll Futter!
> Wer nicht liebt Wein, Weib und Gesang,
> Der bleibt ein Narr sein Leben lang,
> Sagt Doctor Martin Luther."

This epigram was written by Johann Heinrich Voss and reprinted by him in the Hamburg *Musenalmanach* in 1777; it was accepted by Herder as Luther's in the first volume of his 'Volkslieder,' published in 1778, and passed into Methfessel's 'Allgemeines Kommers- und Liederbuch' in 1818. Voss never stated on what authority he attributed the couplet to Luther, and perhaps it was merely a facetious rhyming of the sentiment expressed in Luther's Table Talk: "Wie wollt ihr jetzt anders einen Deutschen vorthun denn ebrietate, praesertim talem qui diligit musicam et mulieres?" In some humorous verses written in the Palatine dialect, the Old-Bavarian poet, Franz von Kobell, extols the wisdom of Luther's saying, and as a good Catholic only regrets that a man of this genuine stamp should have been such a "horrid Lutheran":

> "Drum hot der alte Martin Recht,
> Sei Spruch is schö un klar,
> Un's is nor schad, dass halt der Mann
> Erschrecklich luthrisch war."

## KELTIE'S PARTITION OF AFRICA.

*The Partition of Africa.* By J. Scott Keltie. London: Edward Stanford. 1893.

FEW people know precisely in what way Africa has been divided between different European Powers, and still fewer have more than the haziest notion as to how this division took place. And yet the opening up of the Dark Continent and its partition among civilized nations constitute an event of tremendous importance, whose full consequences it is impossible to foresee. So quickly has this been accomplished that it has been very difficult to get a connected idea of what has happened, and why and how it has happened. At the present time, therefore, when there seems to be a lull in the scramble, which is by no means over yet, we are especially grateful for a work that gives us in the smallest possible compass, while hardly omitting an important detail, a clear, dispassionate account of this extraordinary phenomenon. Mr. Keltie's book is not only most timely, but is good enough to be of value under any circumstances. All that he says is so much to the point that it would take a volume as large as his own to analyze and discuss it properly. After a few introductory chapters on the earlier history, he describes the furious rush of the last ten years, and ends with an excellent short study on the worth of what has been acquired. Mr. Keltie's name on a title-page is a guarantee for accuracy, though we wish to call attention to two small slips. It is probably a typographical error which makes him say (p. 2) that there are "some 130,000,000 of people of European origin or descent" on the American Continent; and momentary forgetfulness when (p. 260), speaking of the chiefs "Ahmadu" and "Samory," he gives "Samadu" as the alternative name of the former instead of the latter.

In reading a discussion of such recent political events, each of us can disagree with this, that, or the other of the author's conclusions, according to our own opinions. All must do justice, however, to the great fairness and calmness of his views, even if we find in him a natural tendency to rejoice whenever England has been quicker than a rival in grabbing something. He evidently belongs to those who believe that the larger the Queen's empire, the better, not only for it, but for the rest of the world; yet there is a refreshing absence of cant or declamation in what he writes. Although he likes to mention cases where native rulers, through some friendly consul or mere traveller, have spontaneously (?) sought British protection, which has been refused by a self-denying Government, he does not mind telling us that "many similar so-called 'treaties' have been signed by African chiefs in favor of various Powers. It is doubtful whether, as a rule, these chiefs have any idea whatever of the significance of what they are doing."

Among the things left unsaid, two are curious and rather significant. In the account of the Anglo-Portuguese dispute, there is not a word to remind us that a solution was reached by the simple method of an ultimatum on the part of the stronger Power. In the appeal for the retention of Egypt, with which the book comes to a close, we miss any reference to the main difficulty in the way of the British, viz., their solemn and repeated promises not to make their occupation permanent.

The most important steps in the partition of Africa were the Berlin Conference (1885) and the treaties of Great Britain with Germany, France, and Portugal (1890 and 1891). Plenty of other treaties of demarcation were concluded at about the same time, and plenty more will be in the future, but none of quite the interest of these. Germany "stole a march" on England several times in annexing vacant territories; but the latter, by playing on German pride and patriotism about Heligoland, got altogether the best of it in the final arrangement. This is easy to explain: in one case Lord Granville was matched against Bismarck, in the other it was Salisbury versus Caprivi and his master. The French, on the whole, fared well in their agreement—better, indeed, than they have ever been willing to admit. To be sure, their dream of completely owning the Niger vanished for ever, and much of what they got was Sahara—what Lord Salisbury called "very light soil"; but the dream was hopeless by that time, and in another year or two the English were far more likely to get above Say, the present dividing point on the river, than they themselves were to get below it. Besides, the recognition of their protectorate over Madagascar greatly outweighed any interests they abandoned in Zanzibar.

In dealing with the controversy between Great Britain and Portugal, Mr. Keltie, like other English writers, takes great pains to show on what flimsy foundations Portuguese pretensions were based. So they were, and it is also perfectly true that the English govern their possessions much better than the Portuguese do, and it is better for civilization that the former have acquired Nyassa, Zambezi, and Matabeleland. Still, the Portuguese had hard measure dealt them. As claims in Africa go, theirs were rather superior to the average, and much older, while it is hard to see that the British had any claim at all (except their "interests") to most of the regions in dispute. In other words, here was valuable property which they wanted, and took in a somewhat brutal manner, utterly scorning the appeal of Portugal for arbitration. However, we need not quarrel with an author who says of England, with pleasing frankness, that "at the worst she can only be accused of obeying the law of the universe, 'Might is right.'"

'The Partition of Africa' would be impossible to follow or understand without maps. Fortunately, those in the work are numerous and satisfactory, the only exception being that of population, which ought to have been colored. The most important is that of the political divisions; and it is worth our while to examine it closely, because it shows the grand result of the events narrated in the text, and also because it is not easy to find two good political maps of Africa that agree. This one differs in several respects even from the one in Mr. Keltie's own 'Statesman's Year-Book' for 1892. South of the equator, almost all national boundaries have been clearly fixed by treaty. The only important question still unsettled is the limits, on the upper Zambezi, of the Barotse, a people in the British "sphere of influence," whose frontier Mr. Keltie has pushed, at the expense of the Portuguese, much further west than it is given on most maps. We may hear of trouble about this frontier some day. When he comes to East Africa, he is also very generous with his pink (color of British possessions), and capricious likewise, as there is no reason why, if he is going to include the region of the upper Nile and Bahr el-Ghazal, he should not add the rest of the former Egyptian Sudan. In point of fact, English influence does not as yet extend beyond Lake Albert. We think that the Belgians, who have now established themselves at Emin Pasha's old capital, Wadelai, will succeed in advancing the boundaries of the Congo Free State to Lakes Albert Edward and Albert and the Nile, although England has so far steadily opposed this, and may exact something in return for her final consent. If the French can push forward in time to Bahr el-Ghazal—and it is not improbable—they will pay but little heed to the article of the Anglo-German treaty that seems to hand it over to Great Britain; nor will they listen meekly, as the Italians did about Kassala, to the assertion that the guardian of Egypt cannot surrender any territories that once belonged to her protégé, no matter who holds them now. This would mean more trouble. Still, if a good deal is claimed in this quarter, we find, to our surprise, nothing in map or text about the coast strip below Morocco, between Cape Jub and Cape Nun, where there is a fortified British factory; it is colored as a possession in the 'Statesman's Year-Book.'

The English and Germans have been reluctant to recognize the rapid progress in Africa of the French. Their color, blue, is the one on Mr. Keltie's map whose limits are most open to question. In general, there is not enough of it, but with two exceptions. The oasis of Ghat is assigned to the French, though they do not always dare to claim it; and it is most astonishing to find an English map conceding to them

the Hinterland of Dahomey, thereby connecting their colonies and separating those of England. As this is in contradiction with what is said on pages 284 and 286, it would seem to be accidental. On the other hand, French dominions are curtailed in several instances. Beginning near the equator, we notice that the treaty boundary between Cameroons and French Congo is carried more than a degree too far to the east. It really ends at the fifteenth meridian, beyond which it is not likely to be prolonged, as De Brazza has already turned it and penetrated further north. The effects of the treaties concluded by him, Mizon, and Maistre (the last named since this book was written) with various native States, up to and including Adamawa, yet remain to be seen.

On the Guinea Coast, the district between Cape Palmas and the San Pedro River is allotted to Liberia, not to France. The latter, which has already occupied it, will probably keep it, in spite of the remonstrances of the United States. German maps, which formerly gave it to Liberia, have begun to realize this. In the interior, Massina, Aribanda, and Mossi should not be left white: they are French, or rather will be, for, like many other parts of the map, they represent future, not present, European possessions. The frontier line, running from Say on the Niger to Barrua on Lake Chad, is still uncertain, and likely for a while to remain so; but since the expedition of Lieut. Monteil, it looks as if it would be more to the south than it is here given (compare p. 285). On the northwest, the region called "Spanish Protectorate" represents what Spain claims, though hardly what she will get. On the other side of Africa, at the entrance to the Red Sea, we find the colony of Obock reduced to its smallest possible dimensions; and finally, for some unknown reason, Madagascar, instead of being blue, has only a blue border. It is true that the hold of the French on the island is at present very slight, but it is at least as good as that of Italy on Abyssinia; and they are not going to let go, as the Italians may have to do for lack of money.

Altogether, it is very evident that the partition of Africa is not yet definite or complete. When it is, let us hope for a new edition of Mr. Keltie's work with the end of the story which he has told so well.

## RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Mr. Charles F. Beach, jr., in his two large volumes of 'Commentaries on the Law of Public Corporations' (Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Company), has sought to "cover the entire field of public-company law in all its details, using the term 'public companies' in its widest modern sense." The book is designed to supplement the author's earlier 'Private Corporations,' making with it "a complete treatise . . . on company law in all its phases, from the Federal Government at the one extreme . . . to the most insignificant joint-stock association" at the other. This is an extensive subject, the very breadth of which seems to have led the author at times farther than was altogether profitable into the peculiarities of local law. It may be surmised that he would have come nearer to complete success in his difficult undertaking if he had not aimed so much at quantity in book-making as he appears to have done in recent years. He certainly writes useful books; but their merit, in the present instance at least, lies rather in the elaborate collection of authorities than in any original or historical exposition of the law, or careful criticism of the cases. In these points the volumes before us suffer as much by comparison with Judge Dillon's excellent book on 'Municipal Corporations' as did the author's 'Private Corporations' with the work of Mr. Morawetz.

Mr. Bigelow's new edition of 'Jarman on Wills' (Fifth Am. ed.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), published simultaneously with the fifth English edition, by L. G. Gordon Robbins, brings down to the present time one of those treatises, only too rare nowadays, which are to be judged by the highest standard of what a law book should be. The English editor, whose work appears to be excellently done, has added so much to the book that Mr. Bigelow has seen fit to strike out the brackets in the text which have heretofore distinguished the original from its later accretions. Among other things is a just criticism of the late case of Whitby vs. Mitchell (44 Ch. D. 85), containing many observations already made by Prof. Gray in his admirable book on the 'Rule against Perpetuities,' to which Mr. Bigelow makes proper reference in his notes. These notes, and the not infrequent monographs which accompany them, are so good that we can only wish they were twice as many, and not concealed in microscopic type.

The second edition of 'Sheldon on Subrogation' (Boston Book Co.) is a thorough revision of a useful book. In the preface to the first edition the author observed that it was his aim "to state the doctrines which have been laid down by the courts in applying the law of subrogation, without going, beyond the most limited extent, outside of the adjudications of this country and of England," and he added: "Regarding it as the distinguishing feature of our system of law that it is established by judicial decisions *a posteriori*, and not deduced from *a priori* reasonings, I have made no attempt to go further than the courts have gone." Such limitations upon the scope of the book (and it has not been changed in the new edition) have largely prevented the scientific and historical treatment which would have been of peculiar value in a subject so difficult, and so extensively derived from the civil law, as that of subrogation.

The subject of Mr. Henry F. Buswell's 'Civil Liability for Personal Injuries arising out of Negligence' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is open to the criticism of being either too narrow or too broad—too narrow for a comprehensive treatment of the law of negligence as a whole; too broad for a studious monograph on some one of its subdivisions. The practical justification of the subject is probably to be found in the large and increasing number of actions, in a sense a class by themselves, against corporations and others for personal injuries. But surely the needs of the practitioner in this class of cases will not be fully satisfied without some treatment of so important a head as the measure of damages. Mr. Buswell's work, within his field, seems in the main to be well and carefully done—witness his interesting discussion of the Employers' Liability Act. But it is not a little surprising to hear him refer to the antiquated and indefensible doctrine which imputed to the passenger in a vehicle the negligence of his driver, overruled more than six years ago in The Bernina (12 Prob. D. 58), as the "English rule."

'Death by Wrongful Act' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) is a more promising title, suggesting a branch of the subject last mentioned which might well repay careful investigation. We regret that we cannot say as much for Mr. F. B. Tiffany's treatment as for his choice of a subject. He has made a good collection of modern facts—statutes and decisions—but has thrown no great light on their antecedent causes or on the inferences to which they lead. Indeed, the discussion of so many different statutes in so small a compass could not well permit the precise examination of each so necessary to its right understanding. The practising lawyer will need to supplement this book by some more detailed commentary on the law of his own State. It should be observed that both this and the foregoing treatise give evidence of "padding" by their publishers.

'Black on Tax Titles' (West Publishing Co.) is the second edition of a very good book. Its method might to advantage be more historical, and the treatment of the general subject of taxation, especially on its constitutional side, is necessarily slight. But it has the free style and the clear and orderly arrangement of the author's other works. Especially to be commended is the handling of the local statutes, the number and variety of which must have made their proper subordination to the general principles peculiarly difficult.

## A FRENCHWOMAN.

*La Comtesse de Chambrun: Ses Poésies.* Paris: Calmann Lévy. 1893.

This is one of those books in which the preliminary memoir has an interest far beyond that belonging to the compositions which it precedes. It will be found especially useful to such as are afflicted with a chronic social distrust of our fellow-republicans across the Atlantic, and can see nothing in France except frivolity and corruption. Here we find, on the other hand, in the highest social circles of that country, and amid vast wealth, the record of lives that are singularly pure and high-minded; a glimpse of something quite outside the range of even the more favored class of ordinary tourists; a group of righteous souls who might save even Paris. We here find Frenchmen and Frenchwomen who enjoy beautiful and stainless domestic relations, surrounded by simple and refined social pleasures, and who show a constant devotion to public and private duty—devotion such as could not have been surpassed had they been brought up on Wordsworth's "Ode on Immortality" and under the shadow of Bunker Hill Monument.

Marie Jeanne Godard-Demarest, Comtesse de Chambrun, was born at Baccarat, the second daughter of the well-known glass-manufacturer of that place. She was educated as a Catholic, although her nonagenarian Béarnese grandmother was a stanch Protestant. In winters spent in Paris supplementing her mother's instruction, she cultivated music, both vocal and instrumental, with other arts of expression, enjoying to the full the privilege of Delsarte as a teacher. Not strictly beautiful, but attractive, gracious, and graceful, she was married at the age of twenty-six to Viscount Adelbert de Chambrun, relative of the Marquis of that name who has lately contributed to *Scribner's Magazine* his interesting reminiscences of Lincoln and Sumner. This marriage was brought about, as is not unusual in France, by the father-confessor of both contracting parties, and a friend writes: "Jeanne not only received at the hands of the Abbé de Sénac the spiritual guidance she craved, but also unhoped-for earthly felicity." In fact, though a childless union, it proved to be an exceptionally happy one: flawless, indeed, except for the nervous suffering to which the Countess was constitutionally liable. After her mother's death she writes in her journal: "Three months to-morrow! Three

eternities of grief in three distinct phases, each with its own characteristic torture—the bewildered despair of the first shock, my despair all alone, and then the same despair shared with my husband in which I feel all the harm my grief does him, and my sorrow thus redoubled becomes even more intolerable."

Six years the senior of his wife, a devout Catholic, though descended like her from Protestant ancestors, Joseph Dominique Adelbert Pineton, Vicomte de Chambrun, devoted himself from his youth to active political life as well as to philosophical studies. Three times elected Deputy and once Senator, he has always voted with the Extreme Right in the Corps Législatif and Palais du Luxembourg. Austere and tender, he writes constantly helpful letters to his school-boy brother, not only saying, "Prie et travaille," but setting him the example. It is a characteristic trait that during their honeymoon the "Quis mihi det ut moriar ?" of the Apostle Paul was constantly on his lips—"not very gay for a bride," Jeanne writes later; and in the poem called "Une branche de jacinthe rose" there is a pretty allusion to an enforced renunciation, in those early days of their married life, of some promised festivity, where the husband is made to say that he would gladly sacrifice all to her, but that other duties also claim him :

"Je sacrifierais tout à ma jeune captive,
Mais je me dois au bien, à la science, à l'art."

They were always unaffectedly proud of each other, and she was associated with him in every phase of his political life. While Prefect of the Jura he never once left his post during the prevalence of the cholera, and was at last struck down by the disease himself. His wife stayed by his side, encouraged to do so by letters from her heroic mother.

During the Franco-Prussian war M. de Chambrun went to the Lozère at the request of M. Guizot, but he insisted on his wife's remaining at Pau, where an ambulance was established under the auspices of "Les Petites Sœurs des Pauvres." After the battles of the Loire, wounded Bavarian soldiers were sent there, and Mme. de Chambrun tended them zealously, though many had the varioloid. There, when the epidemic was at its height, she made the acquaintance of a beautiful girl of German origin, who was fearlessly devoting herself to her suffering countrymen. Full of admiration for her grace and heroism, the Countess Jeanne forced on her acceptance a necklace of opals and diamonds, a present from her own mother. "Since it was not in my power," she said, "to have her decorated, I gave her the most beautiful thing I possessed.' She did more—they became inseparable, and the young girl remained with her as a companion as long as the Countess lived.

After the war, M. de Chambrun was a candidate for the place of Senator, and instead of making the customary profession of faith he sent this card to his constituents : "Comte de Chambrun, député en 1857, en 1863, en 1869. Sénateur en 1876 si vous voulez." He was elected. On this or some previous election, a local poet sang: "We gave our votes to the Count and our hearts to the Countess." In all sorts of ways, in fact, they were helpful reciprocally. The wife's ardor and excessive sensibility were regulated and checked by the calm philosophy and methodical habits of her husband. During a long visit to Rome in 1872, Mme. de Chambrun writes to the curé of Lons: "I am in a place where the days are all too short for the marvels, religious, historical, and artistic, by which we are surrounded. They inspire my husband with great, profound thoughts which he imparts to me sometimes, and which help me to appreciate the interest and grandeur of the places we visit." At this time, at the "Villa Médicis," M. Hébert was painting the portrait given in the frontispiece. It represents the Countess Jeanne, her cheek resting on her hand, and with a sweet, far-away look in her eyes. "Her lips are slightly parted by a smile, and she seems lost in contemplation of the ideal." Her husband called it "The Muse," and the name has clung to the picture.

At the time of the burning of the theatre at Nice, Gounod writes to Mme. de Chambrun: "In making you acquainted with grief God has enabled you to console all who sorrow," and her kindly help and heartfelt sympathy were always forthcoming in time of trouble for all sorts and conditions of men. We read in a letter sent to Baccarat at the time of the annual festival: "Greet for me all my townspeople and brethren, workmen and employers, and say how sorry I am to be kept away from them at this time." In the Lozère her relations seem to have been rather more feudal. She was temporarily in the Pyrenees for her health a long time after they had left that department, when she learned that 3,000 pilgrims from Lozère were on their way to the shrine at Lourdes. Supplying herself with 3,000 medals to distribute, she went to meet them, and the pilgrims almost lost sight of the object of their visit in their joy at seeing their benefactress and being remembered by her. The humble were especially dear to her, and at one time she denied herself the pleasure of returning to Paris, where her husband was impatiently awaiting her coming; and remained in Baccarat watching over the dying-bed of her old nurse, to whom she was a great consolation.

It was in this power of comforting, of giving something of herself with her alms and benefactions, that she reaped the harvest of her own pain, for it can hardly be said of her that she "taught in song" what she had "learned in suffering." This wind-harp of a woman breathes strains that are sweet and sad, but her poems want consistency and are more plaintive than profound. Then she never quite mastered the difficult art of French versification. Her ready sympathy and faculty of assimilation should have made her a good translator. Among the fragments of verse we find these lines, evidently translated from the "Wi' lightsome heart I pu'd a rose":

"D'un cœur léger je cueillis une rose
Trop attirante en son arbre épineux;
Mon faux ami m'a pris la fleur éclose,
Et m'a laissé l'épine pour adieux."

The epigraph of these poems is simple and pretty:

"Ah ! si mes vers avaient des ailes,
Ils tourbillonneraient vers vous,
Comme à nos toits les hirondelles
Quand revient un souffle plus doux.

"Ils vous murmureraient des choses
Qui vous feraient vibrer le cœur,
Dont jamais de vulgaires proses
N'auraient eu l'ardente saveur.

"Mais ces pauvres vers n'ont pas d'ailes;
Ils tomberont sur le chemin,
Oiselets aux plumes trop frêles,
Si vous ne leur tendez la main."

And M. Caro says of the poem entitled "Une Marche de Pierre," "I have just read these pretty, melancholy verses, and must say how graceful and charming they are. It is a surprise to find lines inspired by De Musset from such an austere pen." But the tone soon changes, reverts to sadness, and she dwells at last on the final refuge, on the great day of His coming. The verses on "La Roma Sdegnata" of M. Hébert have more vigor.

"Oui, je te foule aux pieds, Rome antique et chrétienne,
Je jette ta poussière aux quatre vents des cieux;
Ta gloire de martyre ou ta grandeur païenne,
Je réduis tout en poudre, et tes saints et tes dieux.

"Sur ton sol profané j'étends ma griffe avide,
J'écrase tes palais, j'arrache tes cyprès,
Et je m'installe en roi dans cette Rome vide;
Je suis maître du monde et m'appelle Progrès."

Of all Mme. de Chambrun has written, nothing, however, is so widely known as her "Passiflore":

I.

"Voici, sur mon déclin,
La fleur que j'ai choisie,
D'aucuns l'appelleront
Fleur de la passion,
Je la nomme fleur de la vie.

II.

"Qu'importe ? c'est le même nom:
Elle a la couronne d'épines,
Et l'échelle qui mène au ciel,
Et l'éponge aux gouttes divines,
Tour à tour d'hysope et de miel.

III.

"Elle a le vert de l'espérance,
Elle a le violet du deuil:
C'est la joie et c'est la souffrance,
C'est le berceau c'est le cercueil !

IV.

"C'est donc, sue mon déclin,
La fleur qui j'ai choisie;
D'une teinte pareille au jour qui va pâlir,
Elle est l'image, l'image de la vie:
C'est le passé, c'est l'avenir !"

Dom Pedro, then Emperor of Brazil, translated this poem into Portuguese, and his daughter sent the author a copy printed by her boys on the little printing-press in the palace at Rio Janeiro. The French original was set to music by both Gounod and Ambroise Thomas, neither of whom was aware that the other had undertaken to do so; and the Countess Jeanne sang it herself to the dethroned sovereign and his family in her villa at Nice. There, and in their splendid hôtel, "Rue Monsieur," in Paris, the De Chambruns gave the choicest musical entertainments, both sacred and profane, with such artists as Patti, Nilsson, Krauss, and Materna for performers, accompanied by the orchestra of Colonne or Lamoureux. The sacred concerts took place in the chapel of the hôtel, a miniature copy of the Sainte Chapelle of Saint Louis. At one time they issued invitations to a course of lectures on the history of music, illustrated by these celebrities; and in 1880, when the Comte de Chambrun's sight was failing, he engaged the best lecturers to speak on the philosophical subjects in which he took such a deep interest. They came on regular days, as for a public course. A great admirer of Wagner, the Countess Jeanne never rested till she had converted her husband, who ended by surpassing her in enthusiasm, and they made together the annual pilgrimage to Bayreuth.

Inheriting from her father vast wealth, of which she made noble use, Mme. de Chambrun never seemed to attach any importance to what was factitious in herself or others; and, Legitimist that she was, it would seem that, even when dealing with royal personages, their woes were the best passport to her favor. Though frail and suffering, she led the life of a Sister of Charity at Pau, at Versailles, and at Paris after the Commune, and her deeds of mercy were numberless.

She had a strong love for the drama, and was fond of acting in her own private theatre, preferring the plays of Shakspere, De Musset, and Feuillet. Sometimes she wrote a "proverb" herself, and created the principal part. At the time of her death, which took place in Paris in the summer of 1891, after a few days' illness, her husband directed that the funeral rites should be of the simplest kind, and would not allow them to emblazon with armorial bearings the black draperies of the church or those at the porte-cochère of the hôtel. The pathetic, dirge-like lament written by him as he sat, blind and desolate, in his sick-room, while the bell of St. François Xavier near by was toll-

ing for his wife's funeral, recalls the "He and She" of Sir Edwin Arnold. At the funeral services in the Montmartre Cemetery, M. Émile Ollivier said, in his eloquent farewell to the Countess Jeanne: "She was buoyed up with a great hope. God has welcomed her to a peace which passeth understanding."

The curtain falls. It has seemed almost indelicate, even like a breach of confidence, to call public attention to these intimate revelations of the wedded life of M. and Mme. de Chambrun, of which more can be read between the lines than appears on the printed page; but the book may do missionary work in more than one way.

*Comparative Syntax of Greek and Latin.* By Eustace Hamilton Miles, B.A. Part I. Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

THE study of syntax has for years been profoundly influenced by evolutionary methods, and nowadays he who studies syntax studies the laws of life, the laws of growth. The old logical apparatus has been discarded, and psychological instruments of precision have been introduced. The assemblage of facts goes on as it did of old, but with an exhaustiveness of which earlier schools did not dream. It is true that abundant illustration and acute observation are not of yesterday, and that many discoveries of recent days are old stories to the few who know the history of grammatical research, and who recognize traditions and reminiscences in many of the theories that are put forth by minuscule scholars as personal contributions to the advance of science. But, for all that, there is no questioning the fruitfulness of modern methods, the value of modern results. The lucubrations of a great scholar like Gottfried Hermann are almost incredible to our generation. On one page Latin is tortured to express subtle differences of Greek syntax that often exist only in the imagination of the interpreter; on the next a theory is supported by examples drawn from the most diverse spheres of Greek literature. Even Cobet had no true historical sense. His orthodoxy brooked no variations. All that was not Attic was of evil, and in failing to understand pathology he failed to understand physiology.

The historical study of syntax has led to the comparative study of syntax, the historic to the prehistoric. We go back to the parent speech, to the arborescent forms of the original stock, each with its several office. We watch the fusion here, the differentiation there. We see three case functions covered by one case form, and abandon our old abstractions of genitive, dative, and ablative; and yet we are haunted by the thought that to the men who used the language there must have been unity where we see diversity. We interrogate our own consciousness as to our own language, in which also form and function are at variance, and try to reconstruct by sympathy the scheme of the popular grammar. It is a fascinating study, a subtle study. It is a study to which no one scholar is equal. The student of form must be content to learn from the student of function, and vice versa. Through myriads of examples, through the shifting phases of periods, dialects, departments, authors, the patient explorer must feel his way, assembling his facts critically as well as exhaustively, tracing organic growth here and disturbing (not to say "false") analogy there, and the end not a dogmatic certainty, but a modest provisional hypothesis. Such is the syntactical study of the present day. It is yet in its beginning: hosts of problems remain to be solved, and there is room enough for any number of new workers.

Now, into this quiet company of students comes Mr. Eustace Hamilton Miles, B.A., scholar of King's College, Cambridge—"comes with a whoop, comes with a call, comes with a good will," in the approved fashion of the nursery rhyme. Prof. Brugmann "had most kindly offered" him "the advice" "to devote" himself "to thoroughly sifting and working out some small detail"; but Mr. Miles is evidently afraid lest the study of detail might interfere with the full and free exercise of his robust common sense, and finds it much more "funny and nice," if one may use his own choice language, to bully-rag Prof. Brugmann than to follow his wise counsel. "To dote upon a thousand items," he says "(sometimes to the exclusion of an exceedingly practical and undeniable principle of common sense), characterizes very much of German work, much of American work, and not a little of English work"; and it is in the interest of practical and undeniable principles of common sense that this comparative syntax has been written. It is impossible to take Mr. Miles seriously, but it is equally impossible to be angry with him. His light-heartedness reminds one of Brer Rabbit and his way of going to work; of the chapters in which Rabelais describes the adolescence of Gargantua. Like the youthful Gargantua, he runs after butterflies, returns to his muttons, puts the cart before the horse, catches larks when the sky falls, looks a gift-horse in the mouth, falls between two stools, *trop embrasse et mal étrei t*, and all the rest. A more determined young fellow to break down an open door, a more zealous schoolmaster in teaching dolphins how to swim, is hardly to be found in the limbo of grammatical infants. His "main contention," in black-faced type, is "that our evidence does not often justify that dogmatism with which prehistoric forms or constructions have hitherto been mapped out as certainties, and that many views hitherto stated and accepted as certainties still remain to be proved to be certainties." This main contention will hardly seem to be a desperate novelty to any one who is acquainted with the tendency of recent research, which is more and more cautious, more and more reserved, more and more averse to large conclusions, more and more prone to keep within the sphere of phonetic sequence and homely analogy.

The armor in which this *enfonceur de portes ouvertes* is clad consists chiefly of native resolution. "This is not a learned work," he acknowledges. "My knowledge of Sanskrit is small." And yet, strong in his common sense and uncommon assurance, he proceeds to treat Brugmann and Delbrück very much as Brer Rabbit treated the tar baby. Of the history of the department he knows nothing, and wastes both praise and blame on the wrong persons. His tumultuous list of authorities is of a piece with the tumultuousness of the book. In brief, Mr. Miles has been at a great feast of grammars and stolen the scraps, and now proceeds to pelt the grammarians with what he does not find to his taste. It is a performance such as would be impossible outside the British Isles, in which all things grammatical are possible; and the American grammarians, whom Mr. Miles does not spare, will not be much more disturbed by his censure than Brugmann and Delbrück, who are also taken to task in a most schoolmasterly way.

*Fragments of Earth Lore.* By Prof. James Geikie, D.C.L., LL.D., F.R.S., etc. Edinburgh: Bartholemew. 1893. Large 8vo, 428 pages, 6 colored maps.

THE brothers Archibald and James Geikie both possess to a remarkable degree the combination of professional ability of a high grade with an attractive style of popular writing that fits their essays for preservation in handsome volumes on library shelves. Their official positions, the first as Director of the Geological Survey of Great Britain and Ireland, the second as Professor of Geology and Mineralogy in the University of Edinburgh, have not prevented their making contributions to magazine literature as well as to the proceedings of scientific societies, to which professors of the sciences too commonly restrict themselves. Both science and general intelligence are promoted by meetings of the specialist and the general reader on common ground, under the leadership of such men.

Fourteen essays by the younger brother, James Geikie, are now gathered under the title, 'Fragments of Earth Lore,' which we commend highly to those who are too busy to read widely enough to follow all the better popular scientific articles that appear nowadays, but who nevertheless do not like to abandon entirely a field of reading and information from which in their college career they received suggestive information and entertainment. We find a particular interest in the essays entitled "The Physical Features of Scotland," "The Cheviot Hills," and "The Glacial Succession in Europe." The first of these, neatly illustrated by a relief map, gives an admirable account of a most attractive country, and impresses the lesson which so many teachers of geography are slow to learn, namely, that a rational understanding of the physical geography of a country can be had only through an understanding of its geology; and that an essential preparation for any one who would properly teach any stage of geography but the most elementary, is a training in geology. It emphasizes a further fact that our States might take note of—namely, that no good geographical teaching can be expected in their schools until their teachers are supplied with reasonably good local maps.

The second essay, on the Cheviot Hills, is an excellent illustration of the common sense of geology; a leisurely presentation of a series of facts that all together make up a truly complicated history, although every one of them taken alone is simple enough for elementary teaching. The border land of England and Scotland, a district of no great scenic reputation, but attractive from its picturesque succession of hill and dale, and full of historical associations, is here described in so entertaining a manner that the traveller should be tempted to stop in the Cheviots, if only for the satisfaction of reading on the ground an essay that gives much pleasure even when read far away. We need many an essay of this kind in our own country.

The third of the three essays above mentioned is one of the best illustrations of ingenious geological argument that have recently come under our observation. The discovery of new facts may call for changes in its conclusions, but it is not to be expected that they will overthrow its essential thesis, that the glacial period was a complicated succession of events, to which no justice can be done by regarding it as a single geological epoch. There were advances of the ice sheet during colder climates, retreats of considerable duration when a mild

climate prevailed, and readvances of the ice under a colder climate again. Indeed, Prof. Geikie is persuaded that five epochs of advance can be discriminated. This is truly a remarkable development of the primitive glacial theory, which classed all the northern drift as the product of a single glacial invasion. It testifies strongly to the opinion of our leader in this line of study, Prof. Chamberlin of Chicago, to the effect that the investigator should now enter the field without preconceptions as to the unity or complexity of the glacial period, and that his conclusions should be based only on critical interpretation of facts gathered from a broad region. As Prof. Geikie is a specialist in glacial geology, it is natural to find that subject receiving the most attention in his writings, and we do not doubt that this will be gratifying to the general reader, for there are few theories in geology which attract more widespread interest than this almost incredible belief as to the effects of former climatic changes. A large number of the civilized people of the world now live on lands which were not long ago swathed in ice, even as Greenland is to-day; and when so good a story as that is well told, it is well worth the reading.

The illustration of the volume by maps from the geographical establishment of Bartholemew adds greatly to its value and beauty. Bartholemew's work is coming to be widely known to geographers through his illustrations in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, from which some of the plates are here reprinted. It is a good thing for geographical science in a country to have a publishing-house so successfully devoted to illustration of the subject.

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*Women Adventurers.* Edited by Ménie Muriel Dowie. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan & Co. Crown 8vo, pp. 288.

We have in the volume before us (number fifteen of the "Adventure Series") the biographies of four female soldiers of fortune, edited, or, more properly, reëdited, by a writer who has won much praise by the narrative of her own adventures as 'A Girl in the Karpathians.' As an editor, Miss Dowie (Mrs. Norman) has chosen to wear her responsibilities somewhat lightly. That she is not deeply impressed by the veracity of the three histories she has resuscitated bodily (with the title-page of each apparently in facsimile) from their first incorporation in type, in the middle of the last and early part of the present century, she very frankly confesses in the preface with which she precedes them. She would "as soon," to quote her own words, "disturb the immemorial crust upon some pale and spiritualized '34 as disperse the gathered must and bloom on these old histories." To this point of view an exception is made in favor of the heroine whose adventures lead the list, and who, it is stated, "stands upon a different, a more serious platform, for she is of our own day, and plenty of men now living must have known her as Lieutenant Harry Buford."

The exploits of the lady thus vouched for, Mme. Loreta Janeta Velazquez in private life, were given to the world by a Hartford publisher in 1876. The first engagement she took part in, as an officer of Independent Scouts, C. S. A., was the battle of Bull Run, where, if we are to accept her own authority, "no man on the field that day fought with more energy or determination than the woman who figured as Lieut. Harry T. Buford." Failing, in spite of her valor, to get herself attached to a regular command, and "annoyed beyond expression" at the "slow and inconclusive progress of the military movements," this unrecognized military genius transformed herself into a spy, and continued thenceforward to alternate between the rôles of spy and soldier with a versatility worthy of her sex. In her matrimonial feats she is approached by only one of her compeers in the volume, whose partners in matrimony number three to her four. In inclination for independent warfare she is equalled by none, though all were able to undergo hard service in the Low Countries, in the East Indies, and, under Lord Howe, on board the war-ship *Brunswick*. All, like herself, escaped the tragic fate of battle and ended their days by natural causes in scenes of peace.

All were also able, for long periods and under circumstances the most unfavorable, to preserve intact the secret of their disguise as men. This, indeed, is the point of resemblance by which these lives have been brought into the intimacy of a common title and cover. That women may, if they choose, without too great difficulty, deceive the world as to their sex, may fairly be taken as the moral of the volume, if moral there be. A fourfold enforcement of this sentiment seems, however, of small practical value at a time when, again to quote Miss Dowie, there is no longer any need for women to put on the garb of men "in order to live, to work, to achieve, to breathe the outer air." Neither in physical endurance, in contempt of danger, nor in sustained courage do any of her adventurers surpass others of their sex who will readily occur to the memory. In refinement of nature and nobility of purpose they all fall far short of an ideal standard. Retold in Miss Dowie's own rather adventurous English, their histories might perhaps have gained a literary charm that would have made them live to be more than a nine days' wonder. As it is, the dulness and heaviness of the style in which they are for the most part written will be likely soon to drag them back into the oblivion from which they have been temporarily rescued.

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*The New Era;* or, The Coming Kingdom. By the Rev. Josiah Strong, D.D. The Baker & Taylor Company.

The author has not abated one whit of that religious chauvinism which, in his former book, 'Our Country,' made Matthew Arnold stare and gasp. He has only come now to give the scientific reasons for the faith that is in him, and these we have in a little series of "fundamental laws and principles" which have governed the development of the world up to the present, and from which it follows with the most irrefragable logic that the Anglo-Saxon race is the flower of all creation, and the United States its destined garden—or, as Dr. Strong puts it in startling italics, "Now for the first time in the record of history the greatest race occupies the greatest home."

In one chapter of twenty-four pages we are given the great "principles" operative in the history of civilization, which "seem to afford the true key to history, though I find no recognition of them in Hegel, Guizot, Buckle, Draper, or any other writer on the philosophy of history." What these principles or "characteristics" are, the reader can find out, by an easy short-cut, through learning that "the miracle" is that they "are all united in one and the same race"—that lucky Anglo-Saxon, of course, in its American variety. Dr. Strong lays it down, in the usual italics, that "the civilization of all peoples is inversely as their isolation," and that it is one of the signs of being on the verge of the millennium, or whatever the new era is, that steam and electricity "render isolation and, therefore, barbarism, impossible." But a little further on he tells us that "the cranial capacity of the Australian is forty cubic inches less than that of the European. It would be impossible to raise the intellectual life of the former to that of the latter until his brain had been equally developed." This looks as if something besides "isolation" were the trouble; or would the Australian's brain at once double in size if he were dragged out of the bush and clapped down in Union Square? We think the author is bound to maintain that it would, not only as a deduction from his great principle that to get rid of isolation is to get rid of barbarism, but also from his enumeration of "the telegraph, the press, and the ballot-box" as "all the means which the intellectual life of a perfect social organization would require for its exercise and expression." The small-skulled Australian could have all these, with the telephone, the electric motor, the Ferris wheel, and all the other instruments for the perfecting of character by which, we are assured, it is the intention of Providence to "Anglo-Saxonize mankind."

Dr. Strong seems to fear that his readers will be inclined to stand still and see his great principles work out the salvation of the world unaided, and so, in the last half of his book, drops his principles for the most part and takes up practical difficulties. Here we begin to see that the greatest race has the toughest job on its hands. We are told of the extent of "popular discontent," of the "steady deterioration of our rural population"; we learn that "the church and the home are weaker in the city than anywhere else," that "those who are not Christians are on the increase in the world." This is pretty discouraging, but Dr. Strong always comes to the rescue just when things look blackest. Under the "Problem of the City," for example, he says, there are three alternatives possible: present tendencies may go on and the churches fall still further behind; the cities may find their growth arrested; or the churches will awake. The first alternative is ruled out because to accept it would be "to despair of our country." The second is impossible because of the "great world-movement towards the cities." Therefore, the third "shall be. *The churches will awake.*"

We have thought it worth while to give up space to this book, not only because it is doubtless destined to considerable vogue, but because it is the very flower of a kind of taking writing and speaking on great subjects, by good and able men, which is accepted by multitudes in lieu of sounder thought, and particularly as an excuse for doing no thinking themselves. These neat generalizations, even supposing them not to be preposterous, as they often are, are but so much feeding upon the east wind. Of his "principles" Dr. Strong says he is "absolutely sure"; that they must be applied if civilization is to be saved, he "cannot doubt"; but of "specific methods of applying them" he must "speak with diffidence." This puts us on track of the essential vice of such appeals to the emotions in great swelling words of vanity, followed up by such a pitiful modicum of practical example and direction.

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*Letters from Queensland.* By the *Times* Special Correspondent. Macmillan & Co. 1893. Pp. 110, 8vo.

The main object of these letters is to show what inducements Queensland has to offer for

English capital and labor, and at the same time to indicate the progress which less than half a million white men are making in developing a country three times as large as France. In order to do this intelligently, the writer travelled through the sugar district stretching along a thousand miles of coast, visited the great mining centres of Mt. Morgan in the east and Charters Towers in the north, and rode over some of the largest sheep-ranges of the interior. Each of these industries he describes with more or less detail, but gives most attention to the first, as upon its success apparently depends the development of tropical Australia. He shows, by facts taken from the experience of planters, and by carefully prepared tables of figures of the outlay necessary for breaking in new land, that "modest fortunes" are to be made in the cultivation of sugar by the small farmers and peasant proprietors. This is dependent, however, upon the employment of Kanakas, for on this vexed question of colonial politics the *Times* correspondent takes decided ground. As the result of his investigations he holds that native labor is absolutely essential to the profitable raising of sugar, and also that the labor traffic is now so safeguarded by legal restrictions and official oversight that the old abuses are no longer possible. After inspecting the quarters and rations of the islanders on plantations in every part of the sugar district, he says: "I have never in any country seen the lot of the average manual laborer so well cared for." Their contentment is proved by the fact that "two-thirds of the Kanakas now in Queensland are time-expired"—that is, men who have voluntarily renewed their contracts rather than return home.

There is an interesting account of Mt. Morgan, a hill rising 700 feet above the plain, "of which the core is seamed and traversed and permeated with gold." This is being gradually taken out, and the timbered chambers in the heart of the mountain "resemble rather the halls of a spacious castle than the burrows of a quartz vein." More important, however, than this mountain of gold is the gold field of Charters Towers, with 113 mines, having an output of 20,000 ounces a month, about which has sprung up a substantial town of 20,000 inhabitants. The letters descriptive of pastoral Queensland are perhaps the most entertaining and suggestive of all. A graphic picture is drawn of the shearing-shed at the height of its activity, as well as of the strange life of the shearers and their associates, known as the "rouseabouts." Though living like brutes, many of them are "decent, intelligent, and thoroughly respectable men," who were "ready to discuss theories of social and political economy. They are readers of George and Hyndman; Bellamy's 'Looking Backwards' is to be found in every shed." Very striking, also, is the account of the labor meeting in the bush. The closing letter states clearly and impartially the arguments for the division of Queensland and the serious difficulties in the way of accomplishing it.

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*The Chronicles of the Sid;* or The Life and Travels of Adelia Gates. By Adela E. Orpen. London: Religious Tract Society. 1893. 8vo, pp. 413.

We have here a very entertaining account of a remarkable woman. The Sid (Arabic for mistress) is an American lady who has been a Lowell factory-girl, a schoolmistress, a student at Antioch College, in later life a flower-painter by profession, and, after having attained the age of threescore, a traveller. To many readers the first chapters, giving graphic pictures of life on a Kansas prairie during the civil war, will prove the most attractive. We single out an episode of the battle of Mound City:

"I stopped at a friend's house some four miles nearer the front than we were. She was standing outside her door, with her little children gathered around her, and their faces were anxiously turned towards the direction of Mound City—the gathering point of the militia.

"'Is there any news?' I asked.

"'Hush! we are listening,' said she.

"'Listening for what?' I asked.

"'Dare's 'nudder one,' said the youngest child, a little tot who was just beginning to talk. 'Tannons.'

"Sure enough, I heard now a sound that my horse's hoofs had prevented me from hearing sooner, a faint soft boom that floated across the still autumn air. Gently vibrating upon our ears, these soft faint booms followed each other at intervals of about thirty seconds, and were triumphantly listened to by the little babbling baby, who smilingly told me they were 'Tannons.'

"'We've been listening for some time,' said the mother gently—her husband was at the front, poor soul—'to hear if they get louder.'

"'And if they do?' I inquired.

"'Then we are going to your house, to go with you to the plains until the danger is past—those were father's directions.'

"'Dare's 'nudder tannon,' cried the little child gleefully.

"'Hush, baby, hush,' said the mother, kissing her tenderly. 'Don't say that.'"

From the West the scene abruptly changes to the Old World, and the remainder of the book is taken up with sketches of travel in the Sahara, on the Nile, in Palestine, Norway, and Iceland. These not only show unusual descriptive powers, but bring out very clearly the peculiar characteristics of Miss Gates as a traveller—namely, in addition to the ability to endure the utmost hardships, a perfect fearlessness and the faculty of attracting people of every class. In Southern Algeria it was an absolutely unheard-of thing to see a white woman travelling alone and like an Arab, and the sight called out all the hospitality and chivalry of the dwellers of the oases which she visited in quest of flowers to paint. Next in interest to these descriptions of life in the desert is the account of the journey up the Nile to the Wady Halfa, two hundred miles beyond the limit of the ordinary tourist. As this was made from Cairo on the deck of a native boat, it cost her "under four pounds ten shillings." The chapter narrating the Sid's wanderings in the Holy Land is written by Miss Gates herself, and contains many graphic descriptions, particularly of the people and their manner of life; but her style lacks the grace and charm of her biographer. The book closes with a brief account of journeys to Norway and Iceland.

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*The Microscope:* Its Construction and Management, including Technique, Photo-micrography, and the Past and Future of the Microscope. By Dr. Henri Van Heurck, Professor of Botany and Director at the Antwerp Botanical Gardens, etc., etc. English edition, augmented by the author from the fourth French edition. Translated by Wynne E. Baxter, F.R.M.S., F.G.S. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. Royal 8vo, pp. xvi, 382.

The English edition of Dr. Van Heurck's important work is the last word on the microscope and its technique from the practical point of view of the investigator. The author's researches in the field of the Diatoms, in which he is a principal authority, led him into careful experiments with objectives of the widest aperture, whether used for direct observation or in photography. By the union of his great practical expertness with the theoretic ability of Prof. Abbe in the physical formulæ of lenses, and with the mingled scientific and mechanical resources of the great atelier of the Carl Zeiss Company at Jena, a coöperation was established which has given the world the standard of what may be accomplished to-day in the resolution and definition of minute structure and its exhibition by the photo-micrograph.

Prof. Van Heurck speaks, therefore, in the description of the microscope, the accessory apparatus, and its technique with a personal authority which will be recognized everywhere as of the highest. His chapter on photography with the microscope is the fullest and most satisfactory which has appeared in any general treatise on the instrument. The origin and development of the microscope are treated in an historical chapter well illustrated with drawings of the earlier instruments, from Hooke's and Cherubin's in the seventeenth century, downward. The whole is supplemented by a noteworthy communication from Dr. Czapski of the Zeiss Company on the future of the microscope, indicating the directions and the extent of the further improvements which the present state of science renders probable. The large size of the page chosen in the book has enabled the author to give the figures of various styles of instruments on so ample a scale as to make the comparison of their mechanical construction most easy and satisfactory. The list of English, French, and German microscopes thus illustrated is very full, and two or three of the leading American makes are included. The microtomes, in which development has been singularly rapid of late years, are also very fully described, and are illustrated on the same ample scale as the optical instruments.

Dr. Van Huerck has confined himself to the practical treatment of the microscope and its accessory apparatus, and has not attempted to give an encyclopædic view of its "revelations" in the various fields of scientific research. Within the scope he has thus set for himself, the work leaves little to desire and must be accepted as an authoritative standard.

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*Le Docteur Pascal.* Par Émile Zola. Paris: Charpentier; New York: Westermann & Co.—*Doctor Pascal.* Translated by Mary J. Serrano. New York: Cassell.

Zola's latest novel is also the summary and crown of his whole work, he tells us in the dedication to his mother and his wife. But it is not a crown of glory in any sense of the word. The book is disappointing; it is not the equal of 'La Débâcle,' of 'Germinal,' of 'L'Assommoir.' It displays abundantly enough the faults and vices of the writer, with but few of his better qualities and none of his great powers. It is a labored justification of his wholly false views of life, of his pet theory of heredity, which he lays down as a law. It is useful as containing in some twenty pages a rapid review of the characters and incidents in the whole of the author's work, and, scattered here and there, statements of his views on life, on realism, on truth, on morals (save the mark!). These views are already well known, and the minds of most thinking men are already pretty well made up on the value of Zola's opinions. His challenge to hostile critics, his semi-disguised appeal to posterity to place him in the ranks of finders of truth, and not merely of seekers after it, will scarcely

have much effect. An utterly false view of life, of society, of individual men and women, can never be the pedestal of an enduring fame. Foulness of the blackest, filth of the vilest, poured out in abundance, can never give a man a place among the great literary artists of France any more than maxims such as "One may be a murderer and yet serve God," make of him a moralist or a thinker of influence. One breathes a sigh of relief at the thought that 'Le Docteur Pascal' is the last of that series of repellent books in which passages of marvellous beauty and strokes of undoubted genius serve but to deepen disgust and to intensify regret.

As a story 'Le Docteur Pascal' is neither attractive nor very interesting. Not merely the approval of adultery, but its sensuous glorification, is in large measure the theme, and the trail of the serpent is over it all. The idea of a high-minded scholar earnestly striving after truth in the face of hostility, indifference, incredulity, unhappiness, cheered, however, by the enthusiasm and self-sacrifice of a pure, devoted girl, is prostituted to the illustration of the illicit amours of a sexagenarian and a girl whose mind, by study of so-called science, has been subtly corrupted. Pascal and Clotilde, the uncle and the niece, suffer eventually, but fail to awaken a spark of pity or sympathy in the reader's mind, for the author has made them despicable. The hideous and the gruesome have not been spared either—for this is a trait of the school: the maniac ancestress, Adelaide Fouqué; the idiot, Charles; the worn-out Maxime; the drink-soaked brute, Macquart; the harpy, Félicité, Pascal's mother, are paraded in all their deformity and repulsiveness. Death scenes, intended to be forceful but turning out simply ghastly, fail to convey any wholesome lesson or to produce any feeling save that of disgust. The book is laid down with thankfulness that the end has been reached at last.

The translation of the book published by Cassell is good and avoids dexterously some of the more offensive expressions of Zola. It cannot make his language quite unsuggestive, but it dulls the suggestiveness where it is worst and yet renders faithfully the spirit of the original.

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*Outlines of Roman History.* By H. F. Pelham, Camden Professor of Ancient History in the University of Oxford. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893.

THIS book is a "reprint, with many additions and corrections," of Mr. Pelham's article on Roman History in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Although it professes to be no more than an outline sketch of the lines of development from the founding of the city until the accession of Odoacer, yet it is much fuller than such sketches are apt to be, the plan is well conceived and carried out, and the author shows throughout a rare power of grasping the most important points and exhibiting them clearly and in simple language. It is undoubtedly the work of a man well acquainted with the best ancient and modern authorities, of one who certainly acknowledges his indebtedness constantly, and yet does not hesitate to differ frankly, when he feels that he must, even from such chiefs as Mommsen.

The most striking and useful parts of the work are perhaps the clear expositions, at all the different periods, of the Roman system of home and provincial government in all its forms. Society, too, and its manifold divisions, receive most satisfactory treatment, except that too little is said about the *collegia*. The reader's attention is directed in the main to movements and not to men, but the greatest "figures of the past" are treated in a remarkably sage and satisfactory manner, considering how short is the book compared to the period which it covers. It is not a cram book out of which a boy may "get up" his Rome for an examination; it is too broad in its scope to serve so debased a purpose. But to the thoughtful and intelligent reader it will be an excellent guide, and will tempt him on to deeper and more special study. Ample references to the authorities are given throughout. A slight slip on page 166, *dies fasti* (for *festi?*) deserves correction. It seems strange, too, that Mr. Pelham should cling to the view that *Roma Quadrata* was a term applied to the most ancient form of the city instead of to an altar. By the way, in the note on this passage (page 15), for *Testum* read *Festum*.

If we had a quarrel with Mr. Pelham, it would be because, in brushing aside the early legends, he does not pay them the compliment of telling what they are. Even a ten-pin must be set up before it is knocked down. A generation is growing up that knows not the kings, and to whom Horatius Cocles, Lake Regillus, and Virginia are mere inventions of Macaulay. Then, too, a history of Rome without a word about the Wolf!—an incredible thing to the two worthies of whom, as they stood gaping before the lightning-scarred bronze from the Capitol, one was overheard to murmur, "Think of what we owe to Romulus!" "Ah," sighed the other, wagging his head, "but just think what we owe to the Wolf."

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*Text-book of Comparative Geology.* By E. Kayser, Ph.D., Professor of Geology in the University of Marburg. Translated and edited by Philip Lake. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

MR. KAYSER'S book, first published in 1891, is a text-book of historical geology for the German empire, with numerous remarks on the equivalent formations in other countries. Mr. Lake, in translating this excellent work, has made large additions to the extra-German descriptions, and thus added to its general value. The additions, however, have not been uniform, most of them being found in the first half of the volume. Limits of space are assigned as the reason for the lack of additions in the latter part of the book; but as the total number of pages is only a little in excess of 400, the validity of this reason is not very apparent.

The fact is that no work would be more welcome to geologists than an historical geology in which the formation of all countries where considerable investigations have been made should be luminously sketched. No one man could achieve such a task; but if geologists of other lands would imitate Mr. Kayser, we should soon have a dozen volumes with dovetailed contents, from which an Edward Suess could produce an almost ideal bird's-eye view of the subject. In the meantime this instalment will be warmly welcomed.

The matter is very well handled, and the very numerous illustrations of fossils, though not fine as works of art, are clear and sufficient. The literary references are decidedly unsatisfactory, as is apt to be the case with books growing out of courses of lectures. The value of the work would be doubled were it practicable to turn at once from its pages to the memoirs on which it is founded; but this omission can readily be made good in a second edition. There is a curious mistake on p. 351, where it is stated that marsupials are at present confined to Australia and *South* America, implying that there are no opossums in North America. This mistake does not appear in the German original. Lake Lahontan (misspelled Lahonta) and Lake Bonneville are confounded, and there are other errors, but not such as to detract seriously from the usefulness of the book.

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*Sound Sense in Suburban Architecture:* containing hints, suggestions, and bits of practical information for the building of inexpensive country houses. By Frank T. Lent, Architect. With illustrations by the author. Cranford, N. J.: Frank T. Lent. 1893.

THE suburban house might be called the American specialty, for the American's country-house is usually only a suburban house standing apart, and, except in the large cities, his town houses are mostly the same houses crowded together. A rather surprising amount of good designs in their kind is distributed through the swarm of books made up of designs for houses which are issued to tempt whoever will build. The houses in Mr. Lent's slender book are better than the average in such books; his hints and suggestions are sound, as his title-page claims, though it did not need an architect to write them. The model specification which fills the latter half of the volume is careful, and, except for the balloon framing, which is out of keeping with the rest, is reasonable; but, if we may judge by the prices given in one or two instances, there can hardly be a close correspondence between it and the houses.

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*A Winter in North China.* By the Rev. T. M. Morris. Fleming H. Revell Company.

THE Christian missionary work is so well established in China that it is the custom of the great missionary societies to send out, from time to time, delegations from home, for the encouragement of the missionaries, or for inspection of their work. The Baptist Missionary Society of England has sent out two of its ablest and most experienced men, Rev. T. M. Morris of Ipswich, and Rev. Richard Glover, D.D., of Bristol—the latter furnishing an introduction to the volume under review—for the purpose of examination and criticism. The missionaries in the field complain that their work has been frequently criticised by those who have never seen it, or who have known little or nothing of the circumstances in which, and the conditions under which, that work is being carried on. On the other hand, their work has never been described but by themselves, and they reasonably acknowledge that there are many who think that the maker of converts is not the best person to describe either the quantity or quality of conversion. They therefore prayed for two men, in whom there was mutual confidence, to come and spy out the land.

These two gentlemen of years and experience, practical Englishmen, went out to China, taking in Japan by the way. They noticed how the Gospel could lay hold on a mobile, artistic, but withal sensual people, and commend itself to thousands as the best guide for nations and for men. In China, all sorts of questions, of keenest interest, met them at every turn. As sociologists, students of history and of comparative religion, and as Christians anxious to convert their fellowmen reared in a faith of different form and spirit, they found a field replete with interest. Hence this account of their travels and expe-

riences, though of less value to the critical student who would study the great moulding forces beneath the surface, is of great popular interest, because everything appeared to the travellers so fresh and full of novelty. Every nerve seemed to be sensitive to the new impressions, and the author writes with all the joy and sparkle of one who sees an old thing for the first time. After the usual initial chapter concerning San Francisco, the Pacific, and Yokohama, we have a glimpse of Fusan and Jinsen and Korea, a glance at Chefoo and Tien-Tsin. A journey of five months in the interior, travelling by cart, wheelbarrow, and other strange conveyances, was made over eighteen hundred miles or more, the average rate of speed and travel being about three miles an hour. Most of the time was spent in the three great provinces, Chih-li, Shantung, and Shansi, though passing visits were paid to six other provinces, and most of the treaty ports were visited.

The special impression one gets from this book is of the vastness of the inland traffic of China despite the vileness of the roads. The wind-sped wheelbarrow, equipped with sail, is a notable means of transportation. The chapter on the Great Plain of China is of much interest, because it discusses in an interesting manner the life of the millions of cave-dwellers in the precipitous loess cliffs. Whole villages are made up of these troglodytes, who live in the excavations which rise terrace above terrace in this remarkable geological formation, which is believed to be of sub-aerial origin. Mr. Morris discusses the opium question from a point of view dear to the heart of the British taxpayer, who does not like to be troubled with principle: "As a set-off to opium-smoking there is no visible drunkenness in the interior of China; in the parts at least I have visited, I have not seen a drunken man. I have scarcely seen a Chinaman taking anything stronger than the weakest of weak tea or hot water." The writer is not insensitive to the beauties of art or the interest of folk-lore, and tells with gusto the pretty legends of fair virgins who cast themselves into the crucibles of molten metal in order to secure the successful casting of the great bells. One of these summoners to prayer always utters, in accents as of a female voice, "Hsie, hsie" (Shoe, shoe), because the spectator who rushed forward to seize and save the maiden was in time only to catch one of her shoes, which came off in his hand, and Ko-ai still calls for her lost shoe. The invariable interview with Li-Hung-Chang was sought for and obtained, and, as usual, the great Chinaman praised the medical missionaries, while still clinging to Confucianism, which he thinks is best for the Chinese. There is a very fair chapter about the religions of China, and the statement and discussion of missionary work and methods are unhackneyed, suggestive, and stimulating. Take it all together, this is a work worthy of wide reading.


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[*Continued from page iii.*]

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 27, 1893.*

## The Week.

SENATOR SHERMAN has been talking again, and says that "the Democratic position of friendliness to the free coinage of silver was largely assumed in order to cripple the Republican party by winning over the support of a dozen or so Republican Senators from the silver States." But why was the Republican position of friendliness to the silver lunatics assumed? Why did a party whose President vetoed the Allison Silver Bill, and whose Presidents and Secretaries of the Treasury year after year advocated the repeal of that measure, suddenly turn about in 1888, "condemn the policy of the Democratic Administration in its efforts to demonetize silver" (these efforts being simply a continuance of those made under Hayes and Arthur), denounce Cleveland as a foe of silver, and promise that Harrison would be friendly to it?

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The Hon. Stephen B. Elkins throws the responsibility for the present financial troubles on the people of the United States. We had almost said that he does this boldly, but a more careful reading of his interview in the *Tribune* shows that he does it rather inferentially and covertly. He says that the trouble is all due to "the Democratic success in November." This enables the casual reader to understand that the responsibility is due solely to the Democrats. If they had patriotically refrained from voting last November, all would have been well. Their untimely exercise of the right of suffrage has been the cause of all the subsequent misfortunes. As this kind of misfortune is liable to happen again, we feel impelled to ask the Hon. Stephen why he does not point out a remedy for an evil so flagitious and to which the country is so much exposed. Nothing short of a change in the Constitution will meet the case. This instrument provides for national elections once in four years. Of course the people are always liable to vote wrong, as they did last November. The only sure way to prevent this is to prevent them from voting at all—that is, if the right party is in power—the risks of a financial panic being so great. Even this remedy would not always be effectual. We had a panic in 1873, much worse than the present one, although there had been no change of Administration or of political control, President Grant having been elected in 1868 and again in 1872. Still, Mr. Elkins's remedy would be well worth trying. We call it his remedy because, although modesty prevents him from avowing it, it is evident that this is what he means.

Mr. Depew has contributed his views on the financial situation, and he takes issue sharply with his fellow-Republicans, "Bill" Chandler and "Steve" Elkins. It is true that he feels bound to ascribe some share in our present troubles to the success of the Democratic party in the last Presidential election, but he does not make this element at all prominent, and he furnishes abundant evidence, from his observations abroad as well as at home, that the chief difficulty is the distrust in our financial system caused by the Silver-Purchase Law. "If," he says, "Europe believed that we were to be, and remain, on a sound financial basis, our stocks and securities would be bought within a few weeks to such an extent that money would go begging for people to borrow it." He proceeds as follows:

> "The first and at present only condition which will release us from this thraldom of fear, and bring to us the confidence of our own people and of the world, is the repeal of the purchasing clause of the Sherman Act. By just the number of days that Congress fails to do this will the present distress increase. It will not make much difference what they do afterwards. If they do nothing, the country would not be harmed. As long as all believe that the indefinite continuance of this acquisition must be stopped or we shall get on the silver basis, the country has fixed its mind on repeal as the solvent of these troubles. The repeal once effected, confidence will be restored in our finances."

Mr. Depew is a Republican of at least equal eminence with either Senator Chandler or Mr. Elkins, while his views have this claim to consideration above theirs, that they emanate from a Doctor of Laws.

---

President Andrews writes a long letter to the *Sun* from Colorado Springs to inform "our friends at the East" of "the woe which has come to the people of the Rocky Mountain region in consequence of the fall in the gold price of silver." He describes the closing of various mines and the general depression, and is really gloomier about the outlook than the natives themselves. He says it is not true that the agricultural product of Colorado is as large as that of the silver mines, and says that, even if it were, the point of importance is that "agriculture cannot subsist except as the mining population provides it a market." So, too, with the production of coal, iron, and steel: it "is all but entirely dependent on the activity of the silver mines." This is in flat contradiction with what Senator Teller and Mr. Wolcott have said, and will not, we believe, ingratiate President Andrews with the distressed business men of Colorado. They will find it harder than ever to borrow the money they need if he is to go on sending such dismal tales and prophecies for Eastern bankers to peruse. In so far, therefore, Mr. Andrews's self-constituted championship of Colorado is calculated to do that State more harm than good.

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The absurdity of the Colorado demands in behalf of silver-miners and mine-owners is forcibly shown by the Detroit *Tribune*, through a comparison of their industry with the iron-ore industry of Michigan. According to the census of 1890, the value of the iron-ore product of Michigan was $16,000,000, the number of employees engaged in the industry 13,120, and the total amount of wages paid $6,353,741. According to the same census, the value of the silver product of Colorado, at its market value, was $16,000,000, the number of employees 13,196, and the total of wages paid $10,114,682. In other words, the number of employees in the two industries and the value of their products were almost identical, the only difference being in the excessive and extravagant wages paid to the silver-miners. The parallel can be carried a step further, for the iron mines of Michigan are nearly all shut down on account of the depression in the price of their product, as is the case with the silver mines in Colorado, and there are nearly as many iron-miners out of employment in Michigan as there are silver-miners idle in Colorado. There is exactly as much reason why the iron-miners and owners of Michigan should insist upon the rest of the country buying their products at the old prices as there is for a similar stand on the part of the silver-men in Colorado.

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The remark of the Governor of the German Bank in Berlin that the attempt to revive bimetallism would be "merely flogging a dead horse," hardly bears out President Andrews's view that the Brussels Conference had created profound respect in Europe for the bimetallic theory. But many things have happened since then. It was hard enough on the bimetallic horse to have Germany and Austria leave off feeding him, and he began to wheeze painfully; but when India came along and cut off half his rations at a stroke, he fell heavily on the boundless prairies of the West, like an abandoned mule in the wake of a caravan. Yet his poor worn-out carcass is not to be allowed to lie in peace, but is to suffer a pitiless cudgelling between now and the 7th of August. Gen. Warner is a master at flogging galled jades, and the swish of his rawhide will be heard in the great bimetallic convention to be held in Chicago. Colorado is to send a delegation of her most expert whippers, whose lash has been so successfully held over Congressmen and political conventions. But the horse is dead, and his remains ought to be spared these useless indignities.

A despatch from San Francisco reports that a meeting has been held in that city at which speeches were made in favor of free coinage. Considering how easy it is to get a number of men together in favor of any proposition, it is not strange that such a meeting should have been held, but California is the last State in the Union which should look with any favor upon the prospect of a silver basis for our currency. Gold is used there almost exclusively as a circulating medium, and business has always been transacted on a gold basis. Even gamblers refuse to accept silver for chips. Every bank and every money-lender insists upon a specific promise that every debt shall be paid, both principal and interest, in gold coin, and the bonds issued by some corporations go a step further and specify that the coin shall be of the present standard of fineness. All public indebtedness, State, county, municipal, or local, must, by specific contract, be liquidated in gold coin. So unpopular is silver that at one time, about a dozen years ago, when a large proportion of the local taxes were paid in that coin, and county officials, school-teachers, and laborers on public works were compelled to accept a portion of their pay in that metal, they would promptly convert it into gold, even when they had to submit to a considerable discount.

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It seems absurd to suppose that people who have enacted that the credit of the commonwealth shall be based on gold, and who have volunteered to pay all their debts in that coin, should really want to see a silver basis substituted, and there is no good reason to suppose that more than a very small minority do want it. Although both of the California Senators favored free coinage in 1890, yet when the contest came on for the vacancy caused by Mr. Hearst's death, Mr. Felton was chosen to the place, although he was an outspoken supporter of the gold basis and his opponents tried to arouse prejudice against him on that score. No reason appeared to suppose that Mr. Felton lost, or his free-coinage rivals gained, a single vote by reason of his attitude on this question. Like the election of Gen. Palmer, an opponent of free coinage, to the Senate from Illinois, and the reëlection of Congressman Catchings of Mississippi by an increased majority after his speeches against free coinage, this California case sustains the theory that the silver craze has never been half so violent among the people as the politicians have professed to believe.

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The Australian ballot has had its first trial in Florida, the new system having been used in the municipal election at Jacksonville last week. The report is the familiar one, of unqualified satisfaction with its workings. "The election," says the local column of the *Times-Union*, "passed off very quietly and peacefully, the new law preventing any gathering at the polls and the pulling and hauling here and there of voters." On its editorial page the same journal says further: "On every hand and from all parties and factions alike are heard expressions of satisfaction at the working of the new ballot law—the Australian system. It worked like a charm." The Jacksonville trial of the law has been awaited with interest throughout Florida, the general opinion being that, if it proved a success, the next Legislature would apply the system to the whole State.

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The Labor Commissioner of Iowa has been investigating the subject of teachers' salaries, and finds that they are extraordinarily small. Returns from about one-tenth of the whole number, which appear to be thoroughly representative, show an average salary of only $243.16 a year for women and $298.30 for men. This is much below the wages paid unskilled labor, and hundreds of teachers obtain their subsistence only through help from relatives and friends, their pay not being enough to secure food and clothing. The schools are already suffering by reason of the small salaries given teachers, since men and women of ability are more and more loath to enter so ill paid a profession. The old rule was to refuse a certificate to any applicant for a teacher's place who could not correctly answer at least 80 per cent. of the questions asked at the examination; but so low has the standard sunk that some county superintendents have been compelled to issue certificates to applicants who failed to answer correctly more than 55 per cent. of the questions, in order to get any teachers. Iowa has always been proud of her school system, and these revelations of its decadence are a disagreeable surprise.

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The most flagrant case of the abuse of pensions yet brought to light is that of Justice Charles Dean Long of the Michigan Supreme Court. He has served upon the bench for a number of years, and receives for such service a salary of $7,000 a year, which he doubtless earns. Yet it appears that he has for years been receiving a pension of $72 per month for the loss of the left arm above the elbow and a gunshot wound of the left hip, resulting in alleged "total helplessness, requiring the regular aid and attendance of another person." He made his original application early in 1884, and was then granted $30 a month, since which time he has not been examined. Later in 1884 the allowance was increased to $50 a month. Soon after Tanner became Commissioner of Pensions in 1889, Judge Long went to Washington, and on the 6th of May had his pension rerated and $50 a month granted from June 4, 1874, and $72 a month from June 17, 1878. The case was taken up without legal application or declaration of any kind on May 6, 1889; examined on May 6, 1889; reviewed on May 6, 1889; medical action taken on May 6, 1889, and certificate issued on May 6, 1889. In other words, the whole thing was rushed through in one day, and the Judge took about $6,000 in arrears back to Michigan with him. On thinking it over, he seems to have been surprised at the moderation exhibited by Tanner and himself, and in June he applied for and, of course, secured a further rerating at $25 per month from June 24, 1862, to June 6, 1866, and $31.25 per month from June 4, 1872, to June 4, 1874, which netted the Judge about $1,000 more in back pay. There appears to be no question as to the truth of these statements, and the only defence advanced by the Judge's friends is that he was badly wounded, and to this day suffers seriously from his wounds, although such suffering does not interfere with the discharge of his well-paid duties on the bench.

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The manner of Street Commissioner Brennan's removal from office—for that, of course, is what his "resignation" amounts to—is thoroughly characteristic of Tammany methods of government. That the man was unfit for the position, leaving out all questions of personal character and political affiliations, was morally proved by his extraordinary performances in the streets last winter, and was legally proved by the evidence laid before Mayor Gilroy by the City Club. But it would never do to turn out a faithful member of the organization just because it had been shown that he was an incompetent official and had violated the law; if such things were to be valid reasons for removal from office, what Tammany man would be safe? Oh, no, that is not the way to run the affairs of a great city, and so we were treated to the spectacle of Brennan's vindication and the Mayor's stern rebuke of the City Club for malicious interference, and the renewed and repeated demonstrations of Brennan's unfitness to do anything except to keep the streets and the force and himself in a perfect pickle, winding up with this belated and shamefaced confession that the City Club and all men with eyes in their heads were right, after all, and that Brennan was really intolerable. Of the shuffling about in the offices and the organization to get his successor, we need only say that it is a thoroughly *bouffe* performance. The last question in the Mayor's mind was, "How shall we get the streets cleaned?" and the first was, "How shall the 'plums' be redistributed in the Tammany baskets?" We say this without meaning to prejudge Brennan's successor, who must be estimated by his works.

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A curious instance of the unforeseen results of well-meant legislative measures is noted by the *Financial Chronicle*. Un-

der the law of the Dominion of Canada banks issuing their notes as money are required to limit the amount to the amount of their unimpaired capital, and the note-holders are given a first lien upon the assets of the banks. These notes, moreover, bear interest at 6 per cent. from the time of suspension of payment on the part of a bank until they are redeemed. It seems that the Commercial Bank of Winnipeg, which recently suspended, had a paid-up capital of half a million dollars, while in May last its outstanding notes amounted to only about half that sum. Assuming that its capital was unimpaired, it was thus entitled to issue a large amount of notes, and it is asserted that it paid off certain depositors by issuing these notes. The effect of such a proceeding would of course be to make these depositors preferred creditors, by changing their status from that of depositors to that of note-holders. These depositors, therefore, instead of having a fourth lien, would have a first, and would also have the same lien for their 6 per cent. interest. The incident deserves to be studied in view of the currency legislation which we must presently consider.

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There is a certain grimness in the demand of the colliery proprietors in the Midland coal-fields of England that the miners' wages shall be reduced 25 per cent., coming as it does so soon after the demand of the miners upon Parliament that eight hours shall be the limit of a day's work. When a law of Parliament comes in conflict with a law of nature, the struggle may be severe, but it generally has but one issue. In view of the state of British trade and the prices obtained for iron, it seems inevitable that some reduction of wages should take place, although a reduction to the extent of one-fourth is certainly severe. If the proprietors of the mines cannot sell coal for enough to pay their rents and operating expenses, they must obviously either reduce their operating expenses or stop their operations. It is to be borne in mind, moreover, that between July, 1888, and August, 1890, the miners' wages were advanced four times, each time by 10 per cent. While wages have fallen since then in other mining regions, they have been maintained in the Midland districts, until the proprietors declare they cannot go on without having them reduced. As the Miners' Federation refuses to consider the proposition of the masters, the probability is that a strike involving several hundred thousand men will presently occur. This strike will probably bring about the result which the masters say is necessary. The wages of the men will cease altogether for a time, the production of coal will be greatly reduced, and after a time prices will rise. By that time the miners will be driven by want to listen to the masters' terms, or at least to some reduction of the present rate of wages, and the industry will be resumed. There may be some loss to the proprietors from the cessation of mining which will not be recouped to them by the advance in the price of coal when it comes. But the loss to the men from the total cessation of wages is not likely to be made up by any advance over the present rate, and it will not be offset by their eventually holding the present rate.

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The July numbers of all four of the leading English political magazines contain articles on the controversy between France and Siam. All declare that France is unjustly despoiling a helpless State, a country where British interests are predominant, one whose independence or dependence on Great Britain is necessary to the security of the Empire. The ethics of the original boundary dispute are of little consequence. The French have no intention of letting themselves be confined to a narrow strip of seacoast; and if their historical claims to the left bank of the Mekong are flimsy enough, those of the Siamese are of no great value. England herself is the last nation that would heed any such claims on the part of an Asiatic State if they conflicted with her plans. The quarrel has lasted some time (complicated as usual by "incidents"), until, as happens in these cases, the strong civilized Power has lost patience and undertaken to settle matters in its own way. This is a very old and familiar story. The difficulty in the present instance lies in the jealousies and rival interests of Great Britain and France. Rightly or wrongly, the English cling to the belief that they must have no European neighbor to India, as long as they can possibly avoid it. When King Thebaw of Burmah prepared to accept a French protectorate, eight years ago, they instantly picked a quarrel with him, and invaded, conquered, and annexed his dominions before he could carry out his intention. Up till now, they have not minded much the colony of Indo-China, as it was some distance off, and its struggling existence made it seem harmless; but a territory stretching to the Mekong, an influence equalling their own at Bangkok, are a very different affair, a contingency to be prevented. On the other hand, the French, who have invariably found the English in the way of their expansion, are in a temper to resent promptly anything like interference. As the French have already practically seized the lower eastern bank of the Mekong, they will keep that much in any case. If they extend their occupation northward until they reach the Chinese frontier, thereby becoming immediate neighbors to Burmah, and obliterating a "buffer State," and still more if they open hostilities against the Siamese capital, it is difficult to foretell what may happen; but in any event Mr. Gladstone will hardly welcome this diversion from the business of his Home-Rule Bill.

Cuba stands related to Spain and Spanish politics very much as Ireland does to England and English politics. Cuban affairs take up a disproportionate amount of time in the Cortes; the Cuban Deputies rival the Irish members of Parliament in a fatal fluency of speech and readiness to denounce the Government on the slightest provocation; and a standing cause of perplexity and dismay to Spanish Cabinets has been the problem of governing Cuba in a way to maintain Spanish supremacy and to satisfy native sentiment at the same time. The Minister for the Colonies recently brought in a bill for the reorganization of the Cuban Government, which provides for a considerable degree of home rule and distinctly diminishes the despotic power of the Captain-General. Upon it public opinion in the island and in Spain has been divided, some maintaining that it was a legitimate concession to the desire for self-government, others contending that it was a first and dangerous step towards complete independence. Minister Maura has planted himself on the very modern ground for a Spaniard that it is impossible to govern a free people without having some way of consulting their wishes, and that the majority in Cuba should be allowed to decide on affairs of local government. On the whole, the preponderance of opinion in Cuba seems to favor the plan; and as the Minister has Sagasta's full assent and backing, it seems probable that the bill will be given a trial. It will be nearly as interesting and instructive to watch its operation in Cuba as it will be to observe the working of the new Irish Parliament in Dublin.

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As the fuller accounts of the late rioting in Paris come to hand, they show conclusively that the students, who set the mischief on foot, had really no grievances to speak of, but went into the thing out of pure animal spirits. Some of the transparencies they carried in their processions were lettered in such whimsically desperate fashion as to show the essentially frolic nature of the affair. One of them, for example, bore the terrifying legend, "Fire, Blood, Death!" and it is easy to imagine what fun the young fellows thought it. But Paris is a dangerous city to try the experiment of a mock mob in, and the jocose students soon found themselves joined and outnumbered by the worst of the riff-raff, who were out for blood and fire and death in good earnest. By that time the students found out that the joke had ceased to be amusing, and then they disclaimed all connection with the rioters and came forward as volunteer policemen to help preserve order. But the mischief was done, and it took bayonets and cartridges to quell the riot which began in a bit of boyish folly. It is estimated that the total cost of the joke, what with damages to pay for and the expense of moving in large bodies of troops, will be hard on to a quarter of a million dollars.

### THE RULES OF CONGRESS.

THERE has been a good deal of talk about the need of adopting the parliamentary rules of the Reed Congress, if the Silver-Purchase Law is to be repealed at the extra session of Congress. This has come mostly from Republicans who are anxious to see the Democrats stultify themselves by adopting methods which they were bitterly denouncing three years ago. Then we had a hint a few days ago from Senator Jones of Nevada that the Senate would prove intractable, no matter what the House might do. He said to a reporter of a New York paper:

"I can, if I wish, tie up the Senate from now until the terms of its members expire. Of course there is likely to be a prolonged debate. Stewart, Teller, Wolcott, and the rest of us who demand free coinage, or something akin to it, will have a great deal to say. If we get tired talking, a motion to adjourn, to go into executive session, or indeed any motion at all, will continue the delay."

"But what if a closure is attempted?"

"There is no more chance of a closure than there was during the Federal Elections Bill fight in the Fifty-first Congress. The gold men must come to us. We shall not surrender to them by any means."

Now, as regards the rules of the House, we see no reason why those of the Fifty-second Congress are not perfectly adequate, provided the Committee on Rules uses its power. It is always in order for that Committee to call up a report fixing an order of business and the hour for taking a final vote on any pending bill. Under this provision of the rules filibustering is absolutely cut off. It was under such action of the Committee that Bland was able to bring the House to a vote on his free-coinage bill a year ago last March, when it was beaten. It is, no doubt, true that many flagrant instances of filibustering were exhibited at various times during the last Congress, but this was only because the Committee on Rules did not use their power to put a stop to it. Speaker Crisp had no authority, as Speaker Reed had, to rule out motions he did not like, or to count a quorum. There was no need then, and there is not now, to lodge such autocratic power in the hands of one man. As it was well explained in the debate on the rules of the Fifty-second Congress, what was proposed was "not to vest the power in the Speaker, one man; not to vest it in the filibuster, one man; not to vest it in the Committee on Rules, a set of men; but to vest it in the House, by authorizing the Committee on Rules to ask the House whether it is its desire to proceed with business, and its desire that the filibuster be stopped."

It is perfectly clear that under that rule the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law can pass the House in three days after its organization, if the House so desires. There is no occasion whatever for reverting to the Reed rules. All that is necessary, in the interest of either fairness to a minority or justice to a majority, is amply secured by the provision which enables the House to fix a time, after reasonable debate, for the taking of a final vote on the main question. This is all Mr. Gladstone is doing in the House of Commons. He has by no means taken a leaf out of Speaker Reed's manual. He has simply revived the practice, first introduced by the Tories in 1887, three years before the rise and fall of the Reed rules, under which he gets the House to vote that certain clauses of the Home-Rule Bill shall be brought to a vote at a certain day and hour. The rules of the Fifty-second Congress may need some strengthening in the way of making it incumbent upon the Committee on Rules to use their power more frequently and rigorously; but even if these remain unchanged, they are strong enough to put the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law through the House with all reasonable expedition. Even the Colorado dervishes recognized this in their address, when they admitted that their cause was lost in the "subservient House," and pinned all their hope upon the noble Senate.

The case is different and somewhat puzzling, it must be admitted, when we turn to the Senate. The "courtesy" of that body has thus far left it possible for it to affront common sense and all decency by unlimited talk against time, on occasion; and its adoption of the previous question, or any other device to shut off debate, does not now seem probable. The surest way to bring about the enactment of a stringent rule of that sort would be for Jones to fulfil his threat of standing up single-handed to defy the unanimous demand of the business of the country. If he is really anxious to preserve the dignity of the Senate, he had better forego his intention, or he and his kind will find themselves closured in short order. The more likely result will be a motion to sit in continuous session until Jones gets through. Unless he begins his speech much further back of the use of silver by the pre-Adamites than he customarily does, and marches down the ages much more slowly than is ordinary with him, even he would have told the world all he knows in the course of a day and night of steady talking. Then a vote could be taken, and Jones left to revise his remarks at his leisure.

All the signs now point to speedy and definite action by Congress. It is not possible that Jones or any other Senator can stand up in Washington to try to talk to death a measure favored by a great majority of the Senate and practically the whole country. If he tries it, some way will be found to put a hook in his jaw. But he will not try it. He and his companions in misery will be given a fair opportunity to air their woes, and unlimited "leave to print." Then there will be a vote and a great calm.

### SENATOR ALLISON ON THE SILVER LAW.

THE Sioux City *Journal* publishes a letter from Senator Allison to Mr. J. Fred. Meyers on the present aspects of the silver question. The letter is important by reason of Mr. Allison's distinguished rank in the Republican party. Next to Mr. Sherman he holds the foremost place in the Senate, while in the matter of silver legislation he has been perhaps even more prominent than the Senator from Ohio. He was Chairman of the Committee on Finance when the Bland Free-Coinage Bill passed the House in 1878, Mr. Sherman being at that time Secretary of the Treasury. He caused the Bland Bill to be rejected by the Senate; the policy of buying silver and coining on Government account being substituted therefor.

This was nominally an act of statesmanship. If the Bland Bill had passed, the country would have gone to the silver standard at once. The bullion value of the silver dollar at that time was about eighty-nine cents. On that basis all debts would have been payable. Our gold would have been exported, and silver would have been imported to a corresponding amount. We should have had a panic at that time, and after a short experience of the inconveniences of silver we should have done what India has now done. We should have gone back to the gold basis, sending into retirement at the same time all the Congressmen who had voted for the Bland Bill. It might have been better for us on the whole to have gone through that experience and that valley of humiliation instead of wasting our substance all these years in the purchase of silver bullion and landing at last in the financial slough where we now find ourselves. On the other hand, by the substitution of the Allison Bill for the Bland Bill we escaped the stigma of virtual repudiation of 10 per cent. of public and private debts, and the confusion that would have ensued thereupon. The useless silver that we have accumulated since the Allison Bill was passed is perhaps not too great a price to pay for avoidance of this stain.

Mr. Allison, in his letter to Mr. Meyers, approaches the main subject, viz., the repeal of the Sherman Law, with very careful steps. He says in the first place that "there is a school of statesmen and publicists in our country who desire to force us to the single gold standard." He agrees with Mr. Meyers that "this ought not to be done," because there is not enough gold and not enough silver taken singly to transact the business of the world. At the same time he is opposed to the policy of the Government purchasing silver bullion and storing it unless this is done by international agreement. If there could be places of storage for both gold and silver bullion, and if international paper money could be issued upon such bullion, which paper could be used in settling international balances, that would be the kind of scheme that would reconcile the Senator from Iowa to the purchase

of bullion which is to be stored but not coined. The gist of Mr. Allison's communication is found in the following sentence:

"I am willing to vote to stop the purchase of silver, leaving other questions to be settled later, on mature consideration and comparison of views, as the whole subject must be dealt with presently."

This is a sound position to take, and we do not see how Mr. Allison's correspondent, Meyers, or any other reasonable citizen of Iowa can object to it. Yet there will be some, of the unreasoning kind, who will say that the prospect of getting an international agreement for the purchase and storage of silver and gold bullion and the issue of international paper money is very slim, and that Mr. Allison, as a member of the recent Brussels Conference, ought to know this. For all such cavillers the Senator has a supply of alternative propositions. One is that we might change our ratio and make it 25 to 1, "and as silver bullion advances relatively, change the ratio." Another is that which Secretary Windom suggested, viz., "that the Government should receive bullion and issue paper money thereon, and then redeem these paper issues in silver bullion at the current price or in gold." This, however, the Senator does not favor. One thing he is sure of, and this will undoubtedly go far to silence any Republicans who might be disposed to cavil at Mr. Allison's positions. This is, "that the Democrats cannot formulate satisfactory legislation upon *any* of the great public questions now in the minds of the people." If we were inclined to be hypercritical, we might say, "Satisfactory to whom?" Satisfactory to Mr. Allison, or to his correspondent, or to the Republicans, or to the Democrats, or to the silver-miners? The Senator's letter ends in this way, rather abruptly as it seems to us, but we can assure him that if the Democrats formulate legislation for the repeal of the purchase clause of the Sherman Act, which Mr. Allison says he will vote for, it will be satisfactory to most people hereabouts.

## *FINANCIAL WHIMSEYS.*

THE monetary system of the United States adopted in 1878 has worn itself out. This system went upon the theory that a cheap dollar is a good thing for the poor. Silver was the cheapest material that could be found of which to make dollars, after paper had been rejected, as it was in the elections which followed President Grant's veto of the Inflation Bill. So silver was taken up as the next worse thing, and has been coddled and made much of during the fifteen subsequent years. But it is now plain that silver has done no good to anybody. Most people are beginning to suspect that what the poor man really needs is the best kind of money that the world affords, and not the worst kind. What would be the situation of the poor man, regarded as a savings depositor, if all his money should be repayable in funds worth only fifty-five cents to the dollar? What would be his situation as a laborer for hire if his wages should be payable at the same rate? "He would strike for higher wages," would he? Yes, he would be compelled to do that, unless he was willing to lose half of the pay that he had received before. Then the question whether the strike would succeed would be open to dispute and would not be settled under three years at least. The employer would say that he could not raise the price of his goods so as to recoup himself, because his customers would not pay the advance; and so forth and so on. If the poor man were once brought into close contact and acquaintance with the 55-cent dollar that Congressman Bland and Congressman Bryan want to force upon him, he would make it very interesting for them. They would be "held up" at every turn of the road. It is really a mercy to them to prevent them from doing what they want to do and then falling into the hands of their victims.

As the 55-cent dollar recedes from view a lot of other oddities come into the field of vision. Our table is piled with them. One of them is the "goloid dollar." This is an old acquaintance, composed of say 55 cents' worth of silver and 45 cents' worth of gold melted together. Another is a new system of bank-note issues based upon silver and gold in equal parts. This might be called the goloid bank-note. Still another is a proposed issue of interconvertible bonds, which can be turned into currency whenever money is worth more than three per cent. interest, and the currency converted back into bonds whenever it is worth less than three per cent. This is likewise a venerable Joe Miller of finance. It had great popularity before the silver craze set in. The latter "knocked it out," and now it comes up smiling after a retirement of fifteen or eighteen years. All these snuffy old things proceed upon the theory that if the Government will only devise some kind of cheap dollar the people will be able to get it easily, but that each dollar will still buy 100 cents' worth of all the commodities needed to keep house with, just the same as a gold dollar. This expectation is as philosophical as it would be to suppose that a dozen gamblers shut up in a close room could increase their total winnings by using pasteboard chips instead of wooden ones.

We do not mean to deal harshly with people who, with honest purpose, bring forward what they consider to be remedies for the troubles into which silver legislation has brought us. Most of them have had silver dinned in their ears until they really think that, in order to have any money at all, it is necessary to dilute it and make it half good and half bad. A writer in the *Tribune* asks that paper whether it is not true that the $322,000,000 of silver certificates outstanding represent that number of coined silver dollars, being the same, to all intents and purposes, as though the coins were in circulation. The *Tribune* replies that these certificates derive their gold value from the credit of the Government and its promise to keep the two metals at par with each other; hence that the existence of a corresponding lot of silver coins in the Government vaults is of no consequence whatever, and that these silver coins might as well be sunk in the Atlantic Ocean. Very true and very well put, but the *Tribune* goes on to say that the only real silver dollars that circulate are the $57,000,000 that are moving about in the pockets of the people. Now this $57,000,000 is just as much "fiat" money as any part of the $322,000,000 which takes the form of silver certificates. If these dollars were circulating at their bullion value, every one of them would drop to 55 cents and probably lower, since the commercial world would expect them to come on the market as bullion before very long. This the *Tribune* has not quite made clear to its correspondent.

One of the oddities of the situation is that many people who hear and read about the "fifty-cent dollar," understanding that it means the silver dollar, refuse to accept these dollars at all. They will accept two half-dollars, or a silver certificate, without question, but a "cart-wheel dollar" or a "buzzard dollar" they will have nothing to do with. Of course these people are mistaken, but can we expect that all the people will understand these intricate matters after Congress has muddled them over and over again for thirty years so that only a minority of the people know what it is to have a sound monetary system? These people who refuse the cart-wheel dollar in trade are not more obfuscated than the silver editors who insist that they can be compelled to take them. "Are they not legal tender?" ask these sapient writers. "Why then should not everybody be compelled to take them?" This phraseology betrays ignorance of the fact that legal-tender laws operate only on past contracts. They have nothing to do with the present and the future. Therefore if a grocer declines to take silver dollars for tea and candles sold over his counter, or if the customer refuses to take them in the way of change, the fact that they are legal tender is of no account.

For the first time in a whole generation, there appears to be the sign of a dawning of common sense on the subject of money and finance. When the present Silver-Purchase Law is unconditionally repealed, daylight will appear.

## *THE END OF A SOCIALISTIC EXPERIMENT.*

ONE of the earliest victories for human rights gained in the Revolutionary period in France was the suppression of the

trade-corporations or guilds. Whatever may have been the origin of these associations or their earlier purposes, they had become monopolies of a very oppressive character, and their exclusive privileges were exercised in restraint of the rights of labor. For a century all such unions remained illegal in France, but as the prohibition of association in itself, where no illegal purpose exists, is a violation of natural liberty, no opposition was made to a law passed some ten years since authorizing the formation of trade-unions or syndicates, provided certain regulations were complied with.

This decade, however, has seen a recrudescence of socialistic ideas, taking its inspiration largely from the principle that the whole product of labor and capital is due to the laborer, all profit being nothing but robbery. Hence, a general sympathy for Labor as something downtrodden and oppressed became fashionable, and whoever assumed to speak for Labor was listened to with respectful attention. The more restless among the poor were of course ready to accept this sympathy and to demand this attention for their utterances. The formation of trade-unions gave them an opportunity to claim that these unions stood for Labor in general, and the spokesmen of these bodies at once became political powers. We have passed through an experience with these demagogues in this country which perhaps will not have to be repeated. In England they are now in the early stages of such an experience, but in France a picturesque culmination has just taken place.

Upon the theory that all those who work for wages constitute an oppressed class, it follows necessarily that the Government ought to do something for this class; and upon the theory that trade-unions represent this class, the Government ought to render its assistance to these unions. Accordingly, after much discussion, principally of a frothy character, the Government decided to establish a "Bourse du Travail," or gigantic labor exchange, at Paris, which should be the home of Labor, and furnish workmen a refuge where the tyranny of capital could not reach them. This large and magnificent building was, consistently with theory, turned over to the syndicates, who immediately demanded and presently obtained pecuniary subventions from the Government, which may be said to have provided them not only with lodging, but with board also. An important feature of this Bourse was an immense hall, where meetings in behalf of Labor could be held, and theories of reform and of government be discussed upon a grand scale. The rest of the building was principally given up to the offices of the syndicates, which soon came to be numbered by hundreds.

Undoubtedly a considerable legitimate business was transacted on this Bourse in bringing employers and workingmen together, but the leaders of the French syndicates were not content with this humble achievement. They insisted that, as they represented Labor by general consent, all laborers must submit to them, and their emissaries spread the doctrine that laborers who refused to join the unions ought not to be permitted to work: by such refusal they put themselves outside the social pale, as it were, and cast off their allegiance to Labor. Moreover, the leaders of the syndicates declined to comply with the provisions of the law by which their existence was authorized, finding that certain particulars required by the law as to the residence and previous history of members were inconvenient; and at the meetings in the great hall, sentiments were commonly expressed hostile to the Government and to the existing constitution of society. In fact, it was scarcely a year before the Government found that in organizing this labor exchange they had established a veritable hotbed of revolution.

The crisis was not long delayed. The recent riot in Paris was too much for the self-restraint of the syndicates. They heartily took part with the rioters, and denounced the police and the Government without stint. For the Government the situation was unpleasant if not serious. To be insulted and defied by Labor after it had been housed and warmed and fed was bad enough, but it would be worse if the Bourse should actually become the headquarters of a revolutionary committee. Accordingly the resolution was reached to compel the syndicates to comply with the law as to registration. The syndicates refused to obey, with loud protests against the persecution of a detestable Government. The Government then threatened them with expulsion from the Bourse if they did not submit; they replied that they would resist the Government with force. The last night of the struggle is described with much feeling by the reporters of the Paris press. The members of the syndicates found that large numbers of "laborers," not of their fraternities, but making the inconvenient claim to be equally entitled to occupy the Labor building, had volunteered to assist in the defence, and that it was impossible to decline their aid. These volunteers seem to have favored the view urged by one of the syndicate orators, that the true place for the audience to be was in the Latin Quarter assisting the mob. Against this another leader urged that their duty was to stay and defend the Bourse. Finally, after hours of wild uproar, it was proclaimed that the assembly was to separate into two parts, one to join the mob, the other to defend the Bourse. But though this assembly adjourned, another took its place, and pandemonium reigned during the rest of the night.

The following day a squadron of troops enclosed the Bourse du Travail, a detachment of police entered the building, and its defenders, protesting against the despotic act of the Government, accepted an invitation to withdraw. They are now frantically appealing to the trade unionists to "avoid all complicity" with the Government, and to engage in a universal strike. But the Bourse du Travail is closed. The great hall is empty. There remains only, as an epitaph for this experiment in Socialism, the inscription chalked upon a blackboard in this hall:

L'Anarchie, c'est le salut!
Vive la Révolution!

## THE FRENCH CHAMBER OF 1889.

PARIS, June 30, 1893.

A FEW weeks more, and the Chamber of 1889 will have ceased to exist. There is nothing in its character or work serving to distinguish it from its predecessors; but this very sameness and uniformity suggest certain reflections that may throw light upon some aspects of parliamentary life in France.

First of all, then, I may repeat that the Chamber of 1889 does not differ in composition from its predecessors; in other words, that the divers professions and trades of the country are represented in it in almost the same proportions. The computation that permits this statement to be made is a somewhat difficult one. It has nevertheless been attempted; and though, as may be easily understood, the results obtained cannot pretend to mathematical accuracy, the general conclusions one is able to draw are not without interest. For instance, it is remarked that of the three chief categories under which the labor of the country may be comprised—to wit, agriculture, industry, and commerce—there are very few representatives in Parliament. It may be replied, "Oh, that is easily accounted for. A tradesman or a merchant cannot find much time to give to any other interests than those strictly relating to his business." And yet if we compare the Chamber of Deputies with the English House of Commons in this respect, we find that in the latter the representatives of the agricultural and commercial interests occupy the first place as regards numbers. With us the majority of Deputies are either ex-functionaries of the State, who have left the public service to enter into politics, or else people belonging to the liberal professions. These latter are for the most part either country doctors or lawyers, whose calling and continual contact with the electors have permitted them to obtain a sort of popularity that at length arouses an ambition in them to offer themselves as Parliamentary candidates. One more class must be added to the former, a class which perhaps predominates over every other, that of barristers.

The preponderance of these elements in the Chamber necessarily introduces some inconveniences so far as concerns the carrying on of Parliamentary work. Thus, to begin with a small item, the barristers are naturally skilled in public speaking; and expressing themselves as they do with such facility, they never lose an opportunity of making a speech. They thus lengthen out useless discussions, and often excite debates of a frivolous character, the more so as they have a strong personal interest in putting themselves forward. The fact is that these people—doctors, barristers, and functionaries—are nearly all of them similarly situated. The posts they held were not very brilliant, and the future apparently in store

for them was not in accord with their ambition. Politics for them is the road leading to the honors they covet. And so they seek to bring themselves to the front by all the means in their power: make motions in the Chamber that are utterly devoid of utility, and are always ready with an interpellation from no other motive than to make a stir in connection with their name, and to acquire sufficient reputation in the country to assure their reëlection. Not that they really care about being Deputy. It is only ambition that prompts them; besides which, in many cases, the Deputies are men of slender fortune, and on the money score cannot be indifferent to the advantages of the position. As a matter of fact, 9,000 francs per year as salary, and a free pass on the railways, not to speak of other minor privileges, are not things to be despised. We may even go further, and say that though the cases are rare, yet there have been Deputies who, owing to the prestige of their parliamentary mandate, have increased their influence in the financial world, and have thus been enabled to make good strokes of business and signally to improve their pecuniary circumstances.

Another point of resemblance between the Chamber of 1889 and its predecessors consists in the large number of bills that it leaves undealt with after having taken them up. It need hardly be explained here that all the inquiries and drafting of bills carried out by the committees and sub-committees of one Chamber, if they have not been converted into acts passed by Parliament before the dissolution, become null and void, and have to be gone through afresh in case of being taken up by the Chamber that succeeds. A great loss of time and work is caused by this state of things, and to remedy it a motion was submitted to the Chamber a few days ago, by which it was proposed to substitute in place of the present general-election system a partial renewal similar to the one used in elections to the Senate. It was proposed that one-half of the members should be reëlected every two or three years, so that Parliament would in a way become permanent, and the inconvenience just pointed out would necessarily disappear. The motion was, however, rejected by a considerable majority, and we need not linger over a discussion of it.

Still another feature common to this and to preceding Legislatures is that it is dying a natural death. And yet if any Chamber deserved to be dissolved before its term, it is surely the present one. It has been said that, when elected, it was charged to deal with two things—first, to combat Boulangism; and, secondly, to modify the tariff in a protectionist direction. When these two missions were accomplished—when Boulangism was defunct and the commercial treaties formerly existing were replaced by the double-tariff system—the Chamber, it was said, was at a loss what to do. There was at that time some talk of a dissolution. It may be remembered that in a previous letter I referred to this eventuality, and said that, for rather more than a year before the Loubet Cabinet came into power, dissolution had been a possible occurrence. The Government, however, took no action in the matter—a course which it must since have regretted, for, as if to prove that the current opinion was correct, since that time the Chamber has presented the spectacle of a body without real coherence in its parts. The list of important measures and useful motions dealt with in Parliament since that date is not a very long one. To counterbalance it we have the ridiculous conduct of the Chamber in the Panama affair, and the grotesque incidents provoked quite recently by an honorable Deputy who undertook to support his charges with documents pretended to have been stolen from the English Embassy.

Contrary to the spirit of the Constitution, which seeks to counterbalance the Chamber by other powers, the Deputies are gradually becoming the preponderating element in our political system. One can scarcely lay too much emphasis on this tendency, since it appears destined sooner or later to assume prime importance in politics. It is, moreover, patent at the present time that any Government must hesitate to use the powers conferred upon it by the Constitution against the Chamber of Deputies, inasmuch as, according to the principles avowed by one section of the Republican party, such an act would seem to be directed against the accepted doctrine of the national sovereignty; and, being as such condemned by many as a kind of *coup d'état*, it would be used in the country against those who had had recourse to it. To overcome the deterioration in the character of the Deputies themselves, some reformers would abandon the payment of members of Parliament. Such a proceeding would certainly suffice to modify the composition of Parliament in a very marked manner. But what Chamber would consent to pass such a measure, which, indeed, would be in open contradiction of the ideas current to-day, which even admit the remuneration of town councillors? A measure of this kind would be declared anti-democratic, on the ground that a large number of citizens would necessarily be shut out of the Chamber. Not only so, but if the payment of members were abandoned, this reform would not go very far towards remedying the defects of our present arrangement. It would still be necessary to create political ambition in the minds of a number of people who for the moment possess no such ambition; and it would still be necessary to persuade the electors to let themselves be deceived by certain appearances—which would be less easy than it is now—and to succeed in making elections the exact contrary of what they are now. In a word, it would be necessary to modify all the political customs of the country, and even in some respects to modify the character of the nation. S.

## A PROPOSED REFORM IN PARIS.

London, July 7, 1893.

Parisians are so prone to herald their innovations with noise and disorder that changes wrought in silence are apt to pass unnoted. Were one asked for this summer's chief event in artistic Paris, the answer to spring to one's lips would be, the riots over the ball of the Quart'z' Arts and the action of the authorities in its regard. An affair that resulted in an old-fashioned mob, in barricades and cavalry charges, in besieged Boulevards, would seem to lead in importance. And yet to all save students a movement set on foot shortly before the revolt against Lozé and the death of Nuger promises far more serious consequences, though hitherto it has made small stir among artists. This movement threatens, not the Prefect of Police, but the foreigners in Paris, and it has been formally inaugurated by the Société Libre des Artistes Français. Their resolution, that henceforth, at the Champs-Élysées, medals ought not to be bestowed upon alien exhibitors, is the "little rift": if it widen, it will eventually rob Paris of that fine tolerance which has made her the capital of the world of art.

The step taken by the Society deserves more attention than it has received. It is safe to say that in the end, if such a resolution were adopted, it would prove more disastrous to French artists than to the foreigner against whom they would protest. But the causes leading to it are worth considering. I have already had occasion, in writing of the two Salons, to point out that the principal triumphs—with few exceptions—in both, this year, must be attributed to the English and Americans, the Scandinavians and Germans or Belgians exhibiting; a fact scarcely pleasant to the Frenchman who has been so generous in his hospitality. It would not be natural if he enjoyed seeing himself ousted from the position of honor which he has held since the great achievements of the men of 1830. But perhaps he feels still more keenly the admirable impartiality of the Government, which, in making its annual purchases, has recognized no distinction of nationality where merit is concerned, and consequently, of late, has been buying the canvases of foreigners in increasing numbers. Times for artists, the world over, are hard just now, and here the Frenchman fears loss not only of fame, but of fortune for himself. It is not so much what the Government pays—it pays very little; it is the great advertisement (and it is an advertisement in the best sense of the term) secured by having one's picture hung in the Luxembourg, or even in one of the provincial museums.

Perhaps this danger would not have been so fully realized but for the recent rearrangement of the Luxembourg galleries. The present grouping of the foreign work emphasizes its importance in the collection. It is true, it occupies merely one of the smaller rooms; but it is equally true that this small room is by far the most conspicuous and interesting of all. There are fine paintings scattered through the others (and I am not touching now on sculpture, since, so far, French sculptors have scarce been subjected to the same severe competition from without): nothing can lessen the distinction of the Manet; the fine Aman-Jean relieves the mediocrity of the most commonplace section; now that it can be seen from across a wide gallery, Puvis de Chavannes's "Pauvre Pêcheur," with the marvellous distance stretching away behind the simple figure, and the still more marvellous atmosphere that fills the landscape, can be really seen as it never was when it hung on the walls of one of the narrower apartments; Pointelin's "Soir de Septembre" delights, as do his contributions to every Salon; and so, with many other pictures which are now overshadowed by the preponderance of poor work, but which, if placed in one room, would make a striking display. For it is the collecting together of the foreign examples which strengthens their force. Here, to begin with, one finds the masterpiece of the whole collection, Mr. Whistler's "Portrait of his Mother," occupying, as it should, a centre of honor. However, one almost wishes it back in its old position, near the Manet, where it hung a little lower on the wall, and was in a better light, and altogether was seen to greater advantage. But it would take a bad light, indeed, to disguise utterly its incomparable beauty. Opposite now is Mr. Sargent's "Carmencita," original, daring, clever, and gaining, not losing, by time. Next to the Whistler—truly a test—is Mr. McLure Hamilton's portrait of Mr. Gladstone. It is impossible in passing not to mention, by way of reminder, that these three, the most distinguished canvases in the room, are the work of Americans. There are also the "Retour" of Mr. Mosler—I believe the first picture by an American bought for the collection—and the "Bénédi-

cité" of Mr. Walter Gay, and the paintings of Marie Bashkirtseff (but these are typical of industry and notoriety rather than of genius). In one corner, a drawing by Burne-Jones hangs under Carlos Schwabe's design for the cover of the last edition of Zola's "Rêve." Mesdag, Zorn, and Edelfelt are represented, and so also are De Nittis, who belongs to a past tradition, and Alfred Stevens, who still seems modern even in the Champ-de-Mars. The general effect of this little collection is that which is always desirable, but seldom attainable, in a picture exhibition: there is hardly a painting which fails to interest. Naturally, therefore, its strength and excellence seem greater, it may be, than they really are, and every time the Frenchman goes to the Luxembourg he is confronted with this eloquent proof of the foreigner's success and influence.

It is trying, I admit. But it will profit him little if the foreigner be banished—for banishment practically it must prove if the latter be declared ineligible for competitions and honors at the Salon. It is their international character which has made the Salons so important. Because Paris is the picture market, not of France alone, but of the whole world, have buyers and patrons and dealers swarmed thither for many years. The breadth which has prevailed in the schools has been their chief virtue. England has demonstrated what danger there is in an undue pride in national art. If France in the present panic decide to follow her example and turn the back upon the stranger at her own gate, it must result in the consecration of the French artist to the petty and the mediocre. His fellow-artists will not be slow to seek new headquarters elsewhere. But the authorities at the Champs-Élysées may have the sense to foresee the evil, and so avoid it. N. N.

# Correspondence.

## THE CLASSICS AT WILLIAM AND MARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read with interest the note of Mr. William Garrett Brown published in your issue of June 22, 1893, concerning the admission of John Dawson of Virginia to Harvard College in May, 1780. I have tried for some time to find out something about his parentage, and Mr. Brown may be able to add to our information about him by an examination of the Harvard matriculation book. He was called "Beau Dawson," and was eminently popular in society and politics. Two Dawsons—William and Thomas—were presidents of William and Mary, but I am not satisfied that Hon. John Dawson was a son of either. Neither Greek nor Latin was taught at William and Mary in 1780. The College was reorganized in 1779 under the lead of Mr. Jefferson, and the two chairs of Divinity and that of "Humanity," in which the classics had been taught, were abolished. The great reformer, whose hand is seen in all departments of thought, substituted for the Divinity Schools the Schools of Law and Medicine, and for the School of "Humanity" the School of *Modern Languages*. He made his old preceptor, Chancellor Wythe, first Professor of Law; Dr. James McClurg, who represented Virginia in the Convention of 1787, Professor of Medicine; and an Italian gentlemen, Charles Bellini, Professor of Modern Languages.

I think that these chairs were the first of their kind in America. Up to 1783 there were only three chairs of regular professorships at Harvard. The professorship of Medicine was established in 1783 and that of Law in 1815. Mr. Jefferson's chair of Modern Languages, substituted for the Ancient Languages, at William and Mary, was, like his whole life, a revolt against the old order of things. But in 1794 the chair of Humanity was restored, and the study of Latin and Greek resumed, under John Bracken. The modern languages were found to be an excellent addition to the course of study, but it was also found that their study should not cause the study of the classics to be dispensed with. Jefferson had to admit that "while every other article could be as well acquired at William and Mary as at any place in Europe," the habit of speaking the modern languages could not be so well acquired.

Lyon G. Tyler.

College of William and Mary,
Williamsburg, Va., July 17, 1893.

## PROF. SIEMERING'S WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 1459 of your esteemed journal, a correspondent, writing under the signature "Help," from Philadelphia, June 6, enters his protest against what he calls "ruinous juxtaposition" to the venerable State-house of that city of a monument to be erected to the memory of Washington in the rear of said building. I do not purpose to engage in the controversy over that local question. In his eagerness, however, to save what he considers a sacred spot from encroachment, "Help" inflicts a great injury on the eminent artist who has created the monument in question, Rudolf Siemering of Berlin. Having been chosen by the Society of the Cincinnati of Pennsylvania for their great project upon the merits of his model, which was exhibited at Philadelphia in 1881, in competition with various designs from notable sculptors of different nationalities, Siemering has been at work on his task ever since, and bestowed upon it the fulness of his genius. When completed and shown here at last year's art exhibition, it was considered by the most competent judges as a work of art which, in sublimity of conception, originality of composition, and perfection in all parts, is to be ranked among the *chefs-d'œuvre* of all time. With the universal admiration, regrets were mingled that such a work should go abroad; but with its thoroughly American features it belongs to your nation, and Germans will be proud and gratified that it has been given to one of their kin thus to embody the glories of a kindred people.

To denounce such an achievement, as "Help" does, as "an obvious plagiarism of the design of the well-known figure of the great Frederick at Berlin," can be explained only by sheer ignorance of the subject on which he writes, basing his judgment avowedly on "newspaper cuts" only, and misled by some inconsiderate comparison as to the well-known monument of Rauch. There is nothing in the Washington monument that resembles it save the cocked hat worn by Washington and Frederick in the same way, after the fashion of their time. Of all this "Help" might have satisfied himself by taking a peep at the shop where the parts of the monument are stored in Philadelphia, before defaming a well-known artist whose name he suppresses. It must be mortifying in the extreme for a man of the standing of Prof. Siemering to see the work to which he has given his whole soul and devoted the prime of his life, greeted in such a manner, by being drawn into a local quarrel to which he is entirely foreign, having had in view rather a site in Fairmount Park for the sake of the wider range which a work of such calibre would seem to call for. This is the more to be regretted when ignorance, speaking of it as an incongruous pile to be set up, finds utterance in an organ of the tone which has ever characterized the *Nation*, in "juxtaposition" to certain performances of local Philadelphia sheets which appeal to the native spirit of the country for resistance to the "threatened Prussian invasion."

Very respectfully,

Dr. Johannes Rösing.

Berlin, July 10, 1893.

## ECONOMIC IDEAS IN NEBRASKA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having been compelled on account of ill-health to spend the past nine months here, and getting a surfeit of cheap-money gabble, I subscribed for my old adviser, the *Nation*. Thus fortified, I started out in a little missionary work, and have been successful in disabusing some minds of their ideas on money.

My object in writing you is merely to testify to the accuracy of your knowledge of the situation. Being sadly in need of capital, which could be used to great advantage to all concerned, and being compelled to pay a high rate of interest on what is obtained, the people here are willing to swallow anything that promises more money. Their willingness to be duped by mine-owners is exceeded only by the density of their ignorance in matters of finance. Some think that a circulation of $50 per capita means that they would have that $50.

During the past winter the Legislature passed a freight bill which had the effect of raising the freight on corn for through shipment. While complaining bitterly of the way they are robbed by railroads, not one in ten can tell the rate on grain to Chicago, or what the relation between prices there and here should be. Having bought 600 bushels of corn eight miles from the railroad, I must pay 4 cents per bushel to have it hauled those eight miles, while it costs only 16 cents to forward it to Chicago. I obtain not a little amusement in picturing the profits of a railroad for those eight miles, but so far have been unable to find any one who wishes to invest.

I am yours respectfully, K.

Nebraska, July 18, 1893.

# Notes.

Maynard, Merrill & Co. have nearly ready the twenty-second volume of their authorized Brantwood edition of Ruskin's writings, being 'The Elements of Drawing, in Three Letters to Beginners,' with the usual introduction by Prof. Norton.

Harper & Bros. have gathered 'Other Essays from the Easy Chair' as a second volume of selections from the late George William Curtis's contributions to their Magazine.

'Stories of the South' is the latest volume in the dainty series called "Stories from *Scribner*," and has its tiny measure filled out by Thomas Nelson Page, Harrison Robertson, Joel Chandler Harris, and Rebecca Harding Davis.

The International Limited Edition of the Waverley Novels (Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.) is continued with four volumes, divided between 'Old Mortality' and 'Heart of Midlothian.' The illustrations to the latter seem to us the best yet

issued in the present series. The single-volume Dryburgh Edition, on the other hand (Macmillan), adds 'Ivanhoe' to its eight predecessors, with woodcuts after designs by Gordon Browne.

The Herbarium of Harvard University has issued a pocket 'List of the Plants contained in the Sixth Edition of Gray's Manual of the Botany of the Northern United States,' embracing the territory east of the one hundredth meridian and north of North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas. Mr. John A. Allen is the compiler, his aim having been to facilitate herbarium exchanges and furnish a useful adjunct to the 'Manual.' An appendix of eight pages contains some corrections of the parent work.

Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago, have supplemented their general Guide to the World's Fair with 'A Week at the Fair,' in which, after some general information about Chicago and access to the Fair, the sight-seeing is apportioned among six secular days, with a chapter for each. The design is a good one. The guide is illustrated, and well equipped with diagrams. Laird & Lee, Chicago, send us a new edition of 'Hill's Guide to Chicago and the World's Fair,' which we have already characterized as particularly useful for the city. Its finding-list of articles on exhibition at the Fair will also be appreciated.

'Salem at the World's Columbian Exposition' is a catalogue issued by the Essex Institute, and no one can deny that the old Massachusetts city acquits itself handsomely in the great show. Two plates of old furniture adorn the pamphlet.

The July number of the *Library Journal* contains abstracts of the papers read at the World's Fair Congress and Chicago Conference of Librarians on July 13–22. In a paper read by Mr. G. Iles of this city, it is stated that next year there will be begun here a weekly index to periodicals, with this peculiarity, that each succeeding issue will repeat the titles already published. The Mergenthaler machine, or one operated on the same principle of casting type in solid lines of metal, makes this repetition with fresh alphabetization easy.

Apropos of this innovation, the Boston Public Library will hereafter publish weekly an alphabetical list of newly acquired books "printed from the type set up for new cards for the card-catalogue, so that the titles in the weekly list will be similar in all respects to those in the card-catalogue." This scheme involves the abandonment of the practice of printing in the Library's Quarterly Bulletin a *classified* list of new books. The space thus gained will be used in printing subject lists, special bibliographies, and reprints or facsimiles of original documents, prints, and manuscripts in the Library. The April number, for example, opens with a third and enlarged edition of its Chronological Index to Historical Fiction (including prose fiction, plays, and poems); the first instalment being of England to the reign of Victoria. Then follows a conspectus of works in the Library relating to the telegraph and telephone; a list of Transactions and like serial publications currently taken in the Library—a vast number; a list of books pertaining to Hawaii; and finally a facsimile of the earliest known chart of Boston harbor, prepared by the order of Gov. Andros. The alphabetical list of accessions may be subscribed for at $1.50 a year; the Bulletin at $1.00.

'Nicaragua,' by Courtenay de Kalb, is the title of a reprint from the Bulletin of the American Geographical Society, which proves to be a short but painstaking study of the Mosquito Coast. The political status of this former home of buccaneers was determined by the Managua treaty, as explained by an award of the Austrian Emperor in 1881. To almost all intents and purposes, the region governs itself, but it is subject to Nicaragua, while Great Britain, which formerly exercised a protectorate over it, retains a dangerous right to interfere in case of an infraction of the treaty. The arrangement works badly and produces trouble and confusion. The insignificance of the territory, with its 7,500 Indian, negro, and white inhabitants, has enabled it to get along tolerably so far; but the Nicaragua Canal would greatly increase its importance, and in time compel some sort of a new settlement, which may not be reached without serious difficulty. The country seems to be very healthy for the tropics, and its capital and chief seaport, Bluefields, has a future as the starting point of a railroad to rich lands in the interior. Mr. DeKalb's study, while mainly historical, derives interest from his observations of country and peoples on the spot. It may be had, for fifty cents, of the author, at Irvington-on-Hudson, N. Y.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for July 10 Gen. Greely enumerates the hundred most populous cities of the world in accordance with the latest censuses, which are dated in each case. Canton alone is estimated. More than half (52) are populated by English-speaking races or controlled by them; and seventeen of these are in the United States, which has twenty-eight cities whose population exceeds 100,000.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July opens with an account of the proceedings of the Anglo-Portuguese Delimitation Commission in East Africa. This is followed by an interesting sketch of the Campas, probably the best representatives of the uncivilized Indians of Peru, by D. R. Urquhart, who had many opportunities of observing them during a surveying expedition to the upper tributaries of the Amazon. They have no elected chief, and "probably have not had" since Pizarro slew Atahualpa. Their veneration for the last of the Incas is shown also in the hereditary and inextinguishable hatred for the descendants of his murderers, as well as by the fact that their women still wear a black strip round the dress as mourning for their great chief. Crime is rare among them, and they are truthful, honest, and brave. Their religion is a strange mixture of Christianity, idolatry, and sun-worship. Added to this is a belief in witchcraft, which, unless eradicated, must lead to the extinction of the race. Nearly every death is ascribed to some witch, generally a woman, who is immediately strangled or beheaded. Apparently their only weapon is the bow and arrow; the latter being of cane, excepting the barbed point, which is formed of "a black, exceedingly hard wood, found as a sort of crust growing inward on a species of palm." Around the arrow "feathers are arranged in a spiral so as to give the missile a rotary motion in flight." A brief historical sketch of the progress in the teaching of geography in Germany may also be mentioned.

Part 2 of vol. xix. of the Annals of the Harvard College Observatory contains two memoirs, one, by Prof. Arthur Searle, upon the Zodiacal Light, and the other, by the Director, Prof. E. C. Pickering, upon the Atmospheric Absorption of Photographing Rays. Photographic plates are affected most by a bluer part of the spectrum than that which most affects the human eye, and this bluer part is much more absorbed by the atmosphere, so that the correction to the brightness of a star on account of its zenith distance is much greater when the photographic method of observation is used than under direct vision. The form and value of the correction are in this paper worked out elegantly and satisfactorily, and the photographic magnitudes of nearly 900 stars between declinations 55° and 65° are incidentally determined. Photographically, the blue stars are shown as brighter and the red stars as fainter than to the eye, the discrepancy often amounting to a whole magnitude. The effect of the atmosphere is to lower the photographic brightness of an average star in the zenith by 0.44 of a magnitude. This effect is diminished with a high barometer, and is slightly increased in warm and moist weather. It is decidedly greater in the autumn than in the spring of the year.

We have received the first volume of the *Physical Review*, "a journal of experimental and theoretical physics," conducted by Edward L. Nichols and Ernest Merritt, and published for Cornell University by Macmillan. "The Transmission Spectra of Certain Substances in the Infra-red," by Ernest F. Nichols; "The Infra-red Spectra of the Alkalies," by Benj. W. Snow; "Relation between the Lengths of the Yard and the Metre," by William A. Rogers; "The Critical Current Density for Copper Deposition," by Samuel Sheldon and G. M. Downing; and "A Geometrical Proof of the Three-Ammeter Method of Measuring Power," by Frederic Bedell and Albert C. Crehore, are the leading papers. There are notes and reviews of new books. The *Review* is beautifully printed.

The Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Holl, Mass., is holding its sixth summer session, with laboratory facilities for both investigation and instruction in animal morphology, physiology, and botany, under the general direction of Prof. C. O. Whitman of the University of Chicago, seconded by a corps of twelve assistants. There are at present in attendance 112 students and investigators, representing Chicago, Columbia, Yale, Princeton, Harvard, Cornell, Pennsylvania, Williams, Brown, Bowdoin, Cincinnati, the Northwestern University, Bryn Mawr, Vassar, Smith, Wellesley, the Missouri Botanical Gardens, and many of the smaller colleges.

Under the title 'Special Assessments,' Mr. Victor Rosewater contributes to the Columbia College Economic Series an exhaustive review of the practice and principles of our States in raising funds for improvements that are to such an extent local as not to be properly chargeable on the whole community. The "betterment" principle, Mr. Rosewater thinks, was introduced into the law of New York from the act of Parliament passed to regulate the rebuilding of London after the great fire of 1666, and it is from the law of New York chiefly that the system has been developed in this country.

Dentu's publishing-house has issued 'Mes Campagnes,' by Léon Chotteau, a gentleman who will be remembered by New York and Boston merchants and business men as an earnest advocate of reciprocity between the United States and France. The book is simply an account of the speeches delivered by M. Chotteau in both America and France on this one subject. He has not yet succeeded in bringing about reciprocity, but he is not discouraged, and this account of his campaigns is sure to interest those who are opposed to his views as well as those who are in sympathy with him.

One of the best works on French versification which have appeared of late is Clair Tisseur's

'Modestes Observations sur l'art de versifier.' M. Tisseur belongs to a Lyonnese family of poets and philosophers, the best known of whom, perhaps, is Jean, the poet. M. Clair Tisseur proposes certain reforms in versification, and, in order to justify his proposals, examines French verse, in its different forms and in successive epochs, with a clearness and an absence of technical phraseology which lend an added charm to his book. He is a very sprightly writer, and his erudition is never allowed to become heavy; and although such a subject as his is very apt to be treated in dull and most unpoetic fashion, M. Tisseur has made his valuable work an exceedingly bright and interesting one. As he brings down his subject to the most modern verse, he will frequently be referred to by students of prosody. We have received also 'Studies in French Versification,' by Prof. A. R. Hohlfeldt of Vanderbilt University. They bear upon the treatment of the Alexandrine verse by Racine and Hugo, and may be consulted profitably on this point.

That delightful critic, Émile Montégut, has added another volume to his work. This latest one, published by Hachette, is entitled 'Esquisses Littéraires,' and, while it does not deal with any of the greater writers, contains enjoyable articles on P. J. Stahl, Gustave Planche, Mme. de Gasparin, and a few others. These minor writers are as carefully examined and appreciated as any of the greater ones of whom M. Montégut had previously given us his opinion.

M. Gustave Larroumet, whose studies in dramatic history and criticism we noticed recently, has now issued a volume of 'Études de littérature et d'art' (Paris: Hachette & Cie.). Some of these studies are especially worthy of attention: that on "Somaize et la Société précieuse" contains several new points, and sweeps away some existing mistakes; that on "Le XVIIIe Siècle et la critique contemporaine" places that much discussed age in a truer light, and, when read in connection with the excellent study on "Les Origines françaises du Romantisme," gives a much truer view of the epoch of Voltaire and Rousseau than is generally taken. M. Larroumet also enters the lists on behalf of Scribe, who is a good deal talked and written about now, in a vigorous study which brings out the good points of the celebrated dramatist.

—The announcement of honors at the University of Chicago after the initial year may possibly shed light on the reluctance of our older universities to throw open their emoluments and rewards on equal terms to men and women. Eleven of the general fellowships have been won by women, although they numbered less than one-third of the applicants for these desirable appointments. The new fellows are graduates of Bryn Mawr College, University of Cincinnati, Cornell University, University of Michigan, University of Minnesota, Syracuse University, Vassar College (two students), Wellesley College, University of Wisconsin, and Western Reserve University. Of three new "special" fellowships, two will be held by women—that in history by a graduate of Vassar, and one in English by a Ph.M. of the University of Chicago. The relative proportion of male and female students did not justify expectation for more than a modest showing of women in the honor list, but their success all along the line buttresses two claims made by the advocates of university education for women, namely, women's mental capacity, and the high grade of work *now* being done by them at various educational centres. The thirteen fellowships just assigned to women at the University of Chicago represent preliminary college work broad enough to include special training in mathematics, Greek, Latin, Romance languages and literature, English, political science, history, physiology, and biology. Discussion of the question whether or no there is any significance in the fact that eight of these winners have been trained at coeducational institutions, we leave to those who delight in social dialectics.

—The "Old Two-seed-in-the-Spirit-Predestinarian Baptists" form a cardinal curiosity of the Census. It will surprise our readers to learn that this sect has churches in more than half our States, scattered in 219 counties. Three of them are not a hundred miles from the city of New York. Had Priestley lived a century later, they would have been prominent in his 'Corruptions of Christianity.' The Baptist tenet that immersion is an essential of baptism runs to seed in their requiring their members to wash the feet of the saints. Their "two seeds" are of death sown in Adam at the fall, and of life sown at regeneration. But many of them call themselves "Regular Predestinarians." Their vital point is the Calvinistic doctrine of decrees in a fatalistic caricature—"corruptio optimi pessima." Conversions are effected, as they maintain, by divine power unaided by preaching, and so ministers ought not to be paid. It is enough to say to them, Thank you for nothing. These Baptists are opposed to temperance, Bible, and missionary societies, as well as to theological seminaries, for they find them unmentioned in the Word of God. Yet, like every other sect, they "forsake not the assembling of themselves together," and their ministers "feed the flock, comfort Zion, and contend for the faith." Though their communicants are scarcely 10,000, their 333 churches have a seating capacity for more than ten times as many. Half their strength lies in Arkansas, Tennessee, and Texas, and there are seven of the twenty-three States in each of which they number less than one hundred. In Iowa there are 10 such witnesses and in New York 96. In Maine they number 170, but would have been much fewer there had their colony in Palestine endured, or, when that bubble burst, had not the maniacs whom the writer saw at Jaffa in 1868 been helped back to Maine by the charity of our Government.

—The first instalment of the General Report on the Eleventh Census of New South Wales, which has just been published, contains an interesting account of the origin of the census from the dawn of history. The first census of modern times is ascribed to the Canadian province of Quebec in 1665. Up to the year 1754 no less than fifteen regular censuses were taken by this province—nine of them in the seventeenth century—and in some, if not in all, of them every individual was recorded by name. Sweden showed during the seventeenth century a marked exception to the general European apathy towards this subject. Prior to 1686, special registers of births, marriages, and deaths were kept in certain districts of Sweden, but by a law of that year the practice was made obligatory upon the whole body of the clergy. In England, as early as 1753, a bill was introduced for taking and registering an annual account of the total number of the people, the number of marriages, births, and deaths, and also the number of paupers; but it was denounced as "totally subversive of the last remains of English liberty," as aiming at the imposition of new taxes, and as advertising the nation's weakness "to her enemies abroad." It was thrown out in the House of Lords. Nearly fifty years after this, Malthus published his essay on Population, which inspired Englishmen with such a dread of overpopulation and an exhaustion of the food supply that the fear of revealing the paucity of inhabitants was put aside. In 1800 and 1801 prices of wheat, barley, and oats in Great Britain were nearly double what they had been in previous years, and the introducer of the bill for taking the census said that, the subsistence of the people being in question, "it is surely important to know the extent of the demand which we are to supply." On this occasion the bill passed through all its stages without opposition, and on March 10, 1801, "the first enumeration of the inhabitants of England was made."

—In the current *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* (January to April, 1893) one naturally looks first for news from Delphi. The results of the excavations so far have not been sifted so as to be presented formally in the main body of the reports, but it is encouraging to find that they begin with promise. The foundations of a small building of Pentelic marble have been laid bare, near the Sacred Way. The severe yet elegant style of the fragments of sculpture and architecture, the grace and skill of the workmanship, the names preserved in the inscriptions, all point to the conclusion that these are the relics of the Treasury of the Athenians. Thus a point of departure is fixed for the Delphic topography; moreover, the abundance of the remains and their fresh state of preservation (the color is still brilliant on some of the architectural members) show that the excavation is not misdirected, and give augury of ample reward for the large expenditure of money and labor involved. The initial difficulties which we Americans should have had to encounter, if our friendly competition had been successful, are briefly described by M. Homolle, Director of the French School of Archæology. They consisted first in the purchase of an entire village, in small lots, from 300 inhabitants; secondly, in the creation of a new village, for which land must be purchased and allotted, houses built, and water provided; and, lastly, in the construction of a line of railway for the transportation of the débris. The allowance from the French Government was 500,000 francs. Notwithstanding that the members of the French School were fully equipped for the undertaking in March, 1892, the work was forcibly delayed by unreasonable quarrels on the part of the population, and it was only by the zealous coöperation of the Greek Government, and by the aid of an armed body of Greek soldiers, that operations were finally begun about the first of November.

—We may console ourselves for our exclusion from such conflicts and such an opportunity, in reading the important paper, "On Certain Athenian Archons," which M. Homolle contributes to the present number of the *Bulletin*, and which, together with his previous work in restoring the history of Delos and of Rhodes from the inscriptions, proves—what the archæologist well knows—that the undertaking at Delphi has fallen into the hands of an expert and a master. M. Holleaux, in discussing, by the aid of recently discovered inscriptions, the relations of Rhodes with her possessions on the coast of Asia Minor, controverts the commonly accepted opinion of Droysen ('Geschichte des Hellenismus,' vol. iii.),

that it was Ptolemy Philadelphus who took Caunus from the Rhodians in 266 B. C., and who afterwards restored it to them for the sum of 200 talents. This capture is shown by the Delian inventory of 279 to be an imagination of the historian; and, in all probability, Caunus was acquired by direct purchase from some general of Ptolemy Ephiphanes (possibly Ptolemy Philometor) as late as 189 B. C. This is the transaction alluded to by the Ambassador Astymedes, in the address reported by Polybius, before the Roman Senate, 164 B. C. The paper on Tegea, by M. Bérard, announces the identification of the site of the most important public edifices, including the theatre; and here we find incidental testimony to the great popularity of Euripides as late as the second century B. C. An actor of Tegea records four victories with different plays of Euripides, won in places so widely separated as Athens, Delphi, and Dodona.

—Turning from these studies of inscriptions to the essays that deal with ancient art, we may note the discussion by M. Chamonard of a unique rock monument at Sondurlu, a small station on the Aidin railway, near the bridge which crosses the Meander River. This bas-relief illustrates the varied influences which at the time of its construction, probably near the early part of the fifth century B. C., flowed together into Phrygia. It represents a personage borne on a chariot, preceded and followed by men on horseback, symbolizing doubtless the journey of the deceased to his final dwelling-place. The scene is the same as on the tombs of Xanthus, and presents a class of ideas borrowed from Phœnicia. It differs, however, from the neighboring Phrygian rock-monuments and from Hittite or Syro-Cappadocian workmanship in that its style is strikingly superior. The motive is Asiatic, but the art shows decided evidence of Greek genius and influence, imported by way of Lycia and Cyprus. M. Salomon Reinach, in an interesting piece of research, traces the fallen fortunes of the colossal statue of Apollo at Delos from the earliest mention to the present day. Plutarch tells, in his life of Nicias, of a huge palm-tree of bronze dedicated by the Athenian general to the deity; this tree, blown down by a tempest, fell upon the colossus and prostrated it, at exactly what date we are not informed. It was soon afterwards raised and repaired. About 1420 A. D., Bondelmonte records that, with a thousand men, he vainly tried to raise the statue to an upright position. After this period, each visitor seems to have helped himself freely to any fragment he liked to carry away. The sole remnants extant in 1892 are inventoried as follows by M. Sauer: A fragment of the base *in situ*, a piece of the chest and the hips near by, one hand preserved in the house of the curator, a piece of the plinth and of the left foot in the British Museum.

## THE NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY.

*A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles.* Founded mainly on the material collected by the Philological Society. Edited by James A. H. Murray. Part VII. Consignificant—Crouching. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

HISTORICAL is the emphatic word in the title of this mighty thesaurus. On the side of etymology, tracing the form-development in chronological sequence; as regards the sense, exhibiting the successive growth of shades of meaning, under the influence of association or comparison or imagination, and again as connected with customs and institutions; and finally, in the matter of continuity, arranging, with dates and precise reference, examples of usage from the dawn of our Anglo-Saxon speech to the present time—such is the plan and the successful achievement of Dr. Murray and his colaborers. In the present instalment the offspring of the Latin *crux* furnishes the most striking example, perhaps, that this dictionary is likely to afford of the fate of words in their migrations, transformations, and functions. The roundabout Latin-Irish-Norse-North English *cross*, which has dominated all the other forms, occupies with its compounds and derivatives no fewer than twelve pages. The Latin prefix *contra* has given us through the French the useful *counter*, which has "become a living element of the language, capable of entering into new combinations even of Teutonic origin," but with a certain consciousness of hybridism. "In those compounds," we are told, "which we have taken from French or Italian, the consolidation of the word is usually greater than in those formed in English, and they are regularly written as single words. . . . In words formed in English the two elements are in looser union, both accentually and in writing," and the tendency is to employ the hyphen. In *contre-dance* (*contre-danse*, *contra-dance*) the pseudo-prefix is a corruption of *country:*

"The English country-dance was introduced into France during the Regency (1715–'23), and thence passed into Italy and Spain. . . . The arrangement of the partners in a country-dance, in two opposite lines of indefinite length, easily suggested the perversion of *country* into *contre-*, *contra-*, opposite. . . . But new dances of this type were subsequently brought out in France, and introduced into England with the Frenchified form of the name, which led some Englishmen to the erroneous notion that the French was the original and correct form, and the English a corruption of it. Thus, a writer in the *Gentleman's Magazine*, 1758, p. 174, said," etc.

The curious chain of error by which Mr. Tylor was led to affirm the existence of the *couvade* in Béarn was exposed by Dr. Murray with great particularity in the *Academy* last year. Mr. Tylor's *amour-propre* was obviously wounded by this procedure, but editors of dictionaries as well as of newspapers have the advantage of the last word, and hence we read (and so must the respected anthropologist himself, unless he practise upon page 1099 the smear of the Russian censor), "The recent application of the word in anthropology is due to Dr. E. B. Tylor, following M. Francisque Michel. . . . But this is a mistake, traceable to a statement as to the phrase *faire la couvade* in Rochefort's *Hist. Naturelle et Morale des Antilles* (1658), 494-5, repeated with variations by a sequence of later writers. . . . Further, the pretended existence of the practice in Béarn . . . appears to be merely the echo of a statement of Strabo as to the ancient Celtiberians," etc.

The discussion of *council*, its confusion with and differentiation from *counsel*, and the various applications of it to extant and defunct bodies, is a capital example of historical development; and along with this word may be mentioned *consistory*, *consociation*, *conventicle*, *convocation*, and *convention*. The extension of the last-named term has been vastly greater in the United States than in the mother country, as the verb *convene* is much more in vogue in Scotland and in the United States than in England; and accordingly we have a very full array drawn from our annals, *e. g.*, 1720, the Massachusetts Convention of Congregational Ministers; 1754, the Albany Convention of delegates from the colonies, for which Franklin drew up a Plan of Union; 1787, the Federal Convention; 1814, the Hartford Convention; and so forth down to 1891, November 13, "The great National Convention of the Women's Christian Temperance Union opened in Tremont Temple this morning" (Boston *Journal*). Such circumstantial particularity, by the way, as we have in the citation just made is frequent in our Dictionary. Thus, under *consort*, we read an extract from the *Court Circular* of December 13, 1861: "His Royal Highness the Prince Consort passed a restless night"—his last but one.

A bit of natural history attaches to *cony*, whose appearance in the language makes it certain that the rabbit was a late arrival in England as in northern Europe. There is no mention of it in Britain before the Norman period. The word still survives on its adopted soil along with the animal itself, and has a rich assortment of compounds, whereas it is wholly disused in the United States except in Scripture reading: not a single American citation is made for it by Dr. Murray. On the other hand, we have rescued *crotch* from its English dialectic obscurity and made an indispensable word of it. We have, too, a colloquial sense for *contrive*, which we do not find noticed, but which must have occurred more than once in the great body of New England tales. "I can't contrive how he did it"—*i. e.*, guess, imagine, divine. We identify this with Dr. Murray's No. 4, "to find out or discover (as the solution of a problem or riddle); to come to understand," which he makes obsolete, though his malicious epigram from Thynne (1600) compares very well with our usage—"Deepe witted menn b'experience haue contrived, that mariage good and quiet is ech hower, where the mans heringe organs are deprived of their right vse." *Corn-cake* seems a little belated in coming to the front with 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Gen. Butler's *contraband* is first quoted from W. H. Russell in the London *Times* of March 27, 1862, through default of some "reader" to furnish the original text of, or despatch concerning, Butler's whimsical ruling. The invention of *Copperhead* is assigned to the autumn of 1862, but the first instance given is from the New York *Tribune* of January 12, 1863—a date which should furnish a point of departure for further research.

It is odd to find Darwin the earliest authority for the substantive *constitutional*, 'a walk taken for health's sake' (1829); and Macaulay using *constituency* apologetically in 1831, Lady Holland thanking him and calling it "an odious word." *Cosmopolitan* in its literal sense as "not confined to any country" goes back to Mill in 1848, but in its figurative sense of "catholic" to Emerson in 1844. Robert Owen was the first to employ *coöperation* with a socialistic signification (1817). We owe to Sir William Hamilton (1836–'7) the convenient *conspectus*. The name of *corruptionist* is no older than 1810, of *contortionist* than 1859; and comparatively recent are *co-religionist* (1842), and the substantive *co-signatory* (1865). *Console* is but two hundred years old, dating from Dryden (1693). Hobbes first used *constantly* in the sense of "regularly" in 1651. *Cow*, 'to intimidate,' we must seek in Shakspere (1605), about which time also (1607) *cows* began to make head against the many other plurals of cow. America endowed England (1672) with the name of *cranberry* along with the delicious fruit itself; likewise (1879) with the name and invention of *creamery*. And if we did not devise either *cremation*, *crematory*, or *cremator*, an American author is first cited for

*cremate* (1874). Guiteau (1881) was, for literary purposes, the original *crank*.

Among the curiosities of pronunciation revealed in this instalment is Cowper's doubly accented *con'venti'cle*. *Con'summate* (for the verb) is said to be getting the better of the accent on the penult, and the same process seems to be going on with the past participle. The usage is equally mixed in the case of *contemplate*, but the tendency at present is in favor of the antepenult, as in all verbs in *-ate*, we are told.

"Of these the antepenult stress is historical in all words in which the penult represents a short Latin syllable, as *accelerate*, etc., or one prosodically short-or-long, as in *celebrate*, etc.; regularly, also, when the penult has a vowel long in Latin, as *alienate*, etc. But where the penult has two or three consonants giving positional length, the stress has historically been on the penult, and its shift to the antepenult is recent or still in progress, as in *acervate*, etc.—all familiar with penult stress to middle-aged men. The influence of the noun of action in *-ation* is a factor in the change. . . . There being no *remonstration* in use, *remon'strate*, supported by *remon'strance*, keeps the earlier stress."

The effect of book-learning on pronunciation is illustrated in the history of the interesting *cony*, which formerly rhymed with *honey*, but has during the present century acquired the long *o*. In Dr. Murray's explanation: "This pronunciation is largely due to the obsolescence of the word in general use, while it occurred in the Bible, and especially in the Psalms, as the name of a foreign animal; . . . the oral tradition being broken, readers guessed at the [pronunciation of the] word from the spelling." *Crocodile* underwent a great variety of spellings and pronunciations in all the modern languages, but especially in English, where, as in most of the others, "the original form after Greek and Latin was restored . . . in the sixteenth-seventeenth centuries." *Critique* was originally spelt *critick*, as by Pope in 1709. "*Critique* occurs in Addison's *Dial. Medals* (published in Works, 1721), and Pope so altered his spelling in 1729. It became general in the eighteenth century, though Johnson and most of the dictionaries to the end of the century adhered to *critick*. Todd substituted *critique* in his edition of Johnson in 1818; the modern pronunciation and stress after French (or German) appears in 1815." The evolution of *corpse* has been curious. In the fourteenth century the spelling of Old French *cors* was perverted after Latin to *corps*, and so made its way into English, with silent *p* till the end of the fifteenth century, and with the final *e* mute but seldom affixed till the present century. The parallel *corse* and *corps* were retained side by side with it, and the *e* mute now serves to distinguish it from the latter, which is still sounded as in French.

The citations have the usual range, from classic English to 'Fables from the New York *World*.' Among American authors, it is gratifying to meet so frequently with Emerson, whose pure intellectual delight in aptness of expression is well known. We have his famous saying, "A foolish consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds" (1841-'4), immediately succeeded by Sir H. Maine's "The doubtful virtue of consistency" (1864). So Disraeli's *mot* in his 'Lothair,' "You know who the Critics are? The men who have failed in Literature and Art," is paralleled by Swinburne's "The rancorous and reptile crew of poeticules who decompose into criticasters." There is an abundance of proverbs under *cooks*, with Garrick's "Heaven sends us good meat, but the Devil sends cooks." To be expected under their respective vocables, and to be found accordingly, are "God made the *country* and man made the town," "Some boundless *contiguity* of shade," "Thus Conscience does make *cowards* of us all," "*Convey* the wise it call," "*Consummation* devoutly to be wished," "For forms of government let fools *contest*." We miss, however, "What *constitutes* a State?" as well as Lowell's "Puts the debit to him, an' to us the *per contry*," and Wordsworth's ill-accented line that sets a trap for mispronunciation, "My head hath its *coronal*."

It remains to say a word about the progress of the Dictionary. The completed first volume (A, B) contains 1,240 pages; the second, of which the present is the fourth part, already fills 1,204, and is to embrace not only the rest of C, but the whole of D. Taking the Century Dictionary as a basis of computation, we reckon that volume ii. will be swelled to nearly 2,100 pages. For the sake of symmetry it seems a pity that D should not rather be bound up with E, of which Part ii. is in the press.

## GEN. ANTHONY WAYNE.—I.

*Major-General Anthony Wayne* and the Pennsylvania Line in the Continental Army. By Charles J. Stillé, President of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1893.

ANTHONY WAYNE was born in Chester County, Pennsylvania, on the 1st of January, 1745. He early betrayed the military instinct which was hereditary in his family. His grandfather had fought with King William in the battle of the Boyne, his father was a captain in the Provincial service, and young Anthony, even in the schoolboy games of his childhood, delighted to show to his comrades how a squadron was set on the field and how redoubts were stormed. His education was slender, because he never took kindly to the study of the classics, but he attained to proficiency enough in the elements of mathematics to equip him for the tasks of a practical surveyor. He served his novitiate in that profession before he was twenty-one years old, having been sent in 1765 by Dr. Franklin and his associate capitalists of Philadelphia to survey two large tracts of land in Nova Scotia, which, after the peace of 1763, they hoped to open to settlement and colonization. When this scheme of colonization was abandoned in 1767, because of the threatening outlook of political affairs, arising from the disputes between the colonies and the mother country, young Wayne returned to Chester, and soon placed himself at the head of the county people in their remonstrances against the oppressive acts of the British Parliament. He was chairman of the Chester committee which adopted the resolutions of June 18, 1774 (not "July 13, 1774," as Dr. Stillé more than once has it), defining the attitude of the colonies in defence of their constitutional rights at that juncture. On the 20th of December, 1774, he was chairman of the Chester "Association," organized in pursuance of the recommendations of the Continental Congress. On the 20th of March, 1775, he appears to have participated in a meeting of the Chester Committee which directed a petition to be drafted and presented to the Pennsylvania Assembly "with regard to the manumission of slaves, especially relating to the freedom of infants hereafter born of black women in the colonies." We infer his presence and participation (though Dr. Stillé omits all mention of this meeting), because, in the report of its proceedings, we find that Wayne was made treasurer of funds collected for the relief of the suffering Bostonians at that date.

Henceforth he seems to have been the recognized leader of the Chester "Committee" and "Association" in all their deliberations, whether for the purpose of practice in the military art, the manufacture of gunpowder, the collection of arms, the trial of "suspects," or the punishment of regraters. In this troublous period he was appointed more than once a member of the Pennsylvania Committee of Safety, and in July, 1775, was a member of the Provincial Assembly. Yet during all this time he contemplated nothing more than a constitutional opposition to the "aggressions" of the British Crown, as "misled" by the Ministry; and joined in the declaration made by the Chester Committee on the 25th of September, 1775, indignantly denying the report, "industriously propagated" by "some persons evidently inimical to the liberties of America," to the effect that "the military associators of this county, in connection with the military associators in general, intend to overthrow the Constitution by declaring an independency"—a report which, the Committee adds, "could not originate but among the worst of men for the worst of purposes."

In so declaring, the patriots of Chester, with Wayne at their head, were in obvious sympathy at that time with the great mass of their Whig fellow-citizens outside of New England and Virginia. On the 9th of November, 1775, the Pennsylvania Assembly instructed its delegates in the Continental Congress "utterly to reject any propositions, should such be made, that may cause, or lead to, a separation from our mother country, or a change of the form of this Government." In affirmance of this injunction, the delegates from Pennsylvania were bidden to make report of their proceedings to the Assembly. This instruction, partly the cause and partly the consequence of the civic feud then prevailing in Pennsylvania (a feud destined to take still wider dimensions), was the source of woes unnumbered, because it precipitated a violent change in the form of the Pennsylvania Government, and ushered in the Declaration of Independence among Pennsylvanians at a crisis when they were not only "hissing in war," as the poet phrases it, but were also angered against each other with civic spites growing out of irreconcilable dissensions on a capital question in which each party honestly believed itself to be right. Embittered controversialists, writing under the pen-names of the "Pennsylvania Associator," the "Lover of Order," the "Independent Whig," the "Man of Candor," rushed into print and crossed swords in the newspapers of the day.

No pavilion from this strife of tongues could be found by the Pennsylvania soldiery even under their tents. For, during the winter of 1775-'76, Wayne had been organizing and drilling the awkward squad of his Chester battalion. The conservatism of his politics at this crisis did not keep him from arresting "suspects," trying regraters before the self-constituted justices of the Chester court of piepoudre, or making provision for the casting of heavy cannon, though Dr. Stillé, we believe, makes no mention of such activities on the part of his hero during the autumn of 1775. On the 3d of January, 1776, he was appointed by the Continental Congress Colonel of the fourth battalion of the Pennsylvania troops. On the 26th of April, 1776, we find him calling on Congress for arms, as his battalion, composed of friends and neighbors, was "under orders to

march to Canada immediately." His military career had begun.

It has been said by one of Wayne's admirers, with a pardonable exaggeration, that his military biography is a history of the battles of the Revolutionary war. Wayne himself said at the close of the war that he had braved difficulty and danger "in defence of the rights and liberty of America from the frozen lakes of Canada to the burning sands of Florida." Early in the summer of 1776 he fought with the Pennsylvania troops in the battle of Three Rivers, some distance down the St. Lawrence, where, with the aid of Col. Allen, his companion in arms, he claimed to have saved the army in Canada. He commanded at Fort Ticonderoga, with its dependencies, from August, 1776, to the beginning of 1777, and endured there the horrors which made that fort a "Golgotha" and a "place of carnage" in his eyes, not because of losses in battle but from the destitution and pestilence which wasted his troops. On the 21st of February, 1777, he was appointed Brigadier-General, and in April of that year was ordered to join the army of Washington at Morristown. He participated on the 2d of May following in the affair at Brunswick. He fought bravely in the battle of Brandywine, and, a few days later, escaped from the "Massacre of Paoli" to take part in the confused battle of Germantown. He suffered, with the army, the terrors of the winter at Valley Forge. He bore the brunt of the battle of Monmouth. He planned and effected the brilliant capture of Stony Point on the 16th of July, 1779. He checked the revolt of the Pennsylvania line in 1781—baring his breast to the bayonets of his own soldiery. He led the charge at Green Spring which helped to drive Cornwallis under the Caudine Forks of Yorktown. He was present at the surrender, and then hastened to Georgia, where he compelled the evacuation of Savannah, to be followed soon by the reduction of Charleston.

And to these feats of arms in the Revolutionary war must be added the brilliant victory which he achieved over the Indian Confederacy at the battle of Fallen Timbers on the Miami Rapids on the 20th of August, 1794, by which he retrieved the disasters of Harmar and of St. Clair, and by which he opened the Northwestern territory above the Ohio River to the settlement of the whites. The "winning of the West," in a military sense, dates from this exploit, and from the Treaty of Greeneville to which it directly led in 1795.

Dr. Stillé thinks that the general impression with regard to Wayne is that he was simply a *beau sabreur*, "a sort of reckless dare-devil who could be relied upon, and was at all times called upon, to lead with unshrinking courage the most desperately dangerous operations." This impression has doubtless been deepened in the common mind by the sobriquet of "Mad Anthony," which, in the popular legend, has been immemorially attached to his name, and the impression has perhaps been confirmed by the comparative neglect under which he was left to labor and to wait through the whole war of the Revolution, without receiving the military recognition to which he would seem to have been entitled if the quality of his military talents had been deemed equal to the disinterestedness of his services, the constancy of his patriotism, and the undoubted impetuosity of his valor. Performing the actual duties of a Major-General from the time he joined the army of Washington till the end of the war, without receiving the honors of that titular rank; charged with all the responsibilities of that higher station without receiving its emoluments, and even superseded in his command by a General (St. Clair) whom he had good reasons for not esteeming, he swallowed his resentments, though reduced, for a season, from the command of a division to that of a brigade, and remained steadfastly in the forefront of the war, though sorely tempted, as he confessed at the time, "to return to domestic life and leave the blustering field of Mars to the possession of gentlemen of more worth." The untoward fortune which obscured his fame while living seems to have haunted his memory even in the grave, for though he died at last a full Major-General, and the General-in-Chief of the Army of the United States, we find that this splendid page in his annals, and with it the catalogue of subordinate officers in the army while it was under his command, has in some unaccountable way been omitted from Hamersly's 'Complete Regular Army Register.' The reader who shall turn to that publication in hope of finding in it the name and rank of the commissioned officers of the Federal Army while it was known as the "Legion of the United States," and while, as we have said, it was under the sole command of Wayne, will find nothing there but a *hiatus valde deflendus*. For the purposes of such an abbreviated quest the inquirer had better content himself with Gardner's 'Dictionary of the Army.'

## FLORIO'S BETRAYAL OF MONTAIGNE.

*Florio's Montaigne.* With an Introduction by George Saintsbury. Vol. III. The Third Book. London: David Nutt. 1893.

To our previous notices of this edition only a few remarks need be added with reference to the final volume. Florio's translation of the 'Essays' is even more imperfect in this last book than elsewhere. Two causes may be assigned for this—one, that the difficulties of Montaigne's later style are much greater than those of his earlier pages (and these Essays were written many years after the former ones); and another, that a translation, like other things, if it does not improve in its course, almost always degenerates, from the consequences of haste and carelessness. There is abundant proof that Florio "scamped" his work towards the close in a manner that it is criminal neglect in any modern editor not to point out.

A few instances must serve to indicate many. In a passage the translation of which is on p. 260, Montaigne says: "La vérité a ses empeschements, incommoditez et incompatibilitez avec nous. Il nous faut souvent tromper afin que nous ne nous trompions, et siller nostre veuë, estourdir nostre entendement pour les redresser et amender." This "pensée" is of Montaigne's very latest coinage. It was first printed, like many others, in the posthumous edition of 1595; and, like many of the additions which then first appeared, it deserves the careful elucidation which its author did not give to it. The literal translation is this: "Truth has hindrances, unsuitablenesses, and incompatibilities for us. We must often deceive that we may not deceive ourselves, and close our eyes and dull our understandings in order to repair and amend them." Florio starts out with a sentence that has an excellent Elizabethan ring, and that is every way good if it were pointed out that "incomparabilities" is a misprint for "incompatibilities." In the next clause he as precisely as possible gives the opposite meaning from the true one, by the insertion of a "not." His eye was evidently caught by the "ne" of the original, and his mind, probably, by the remembrance of Montaigne's constantly expressed horror of lying. Florio's translation is: "Truth hath her lets, discommodities, and incomparabilities with us. Wee must not often deceive others lest we beguile ourselves. And seele our eyes and dull our understanding, thereby to repaire and amend them."

There is a more comic passage on p. 375. Montaigne, speaking of the length of human life, wrote: "Les hommes se font accroire qu'ils ont eu autres-fois, comme la stature, la vie aussi plus grande; mais ils se trompent, et Solon, qui est de ces vieux temps-là, en taille pourtant l'extreme durée à soixante et dix ans." That is: "Men fancy that formerly as their stature was higher, so was their life longer; but they are mistaken; and Solon, who is of those old days, nevertheless marks the limit of its extreme duration at seventy years." Florio has it: "Men perswade themselves that, as heretofore they have had a higher stature, so their lives were longer; But they are deceived: for Solon, of those ancient times, *though he were of an exceeding high stature* [!!], his life continued but seventy years [!]."

Many noble passages are deformed by Florio: *e. g.*, "Nous vivons et negotions avec le peuple: si sa conversation nous importune, si nous desdaignons à nous appliquer aux ames basses et vulgaires, et les basses et vulgaires sont souvent aussi sages que les plus desliées, . . . il ne nous faut plus entremettre ny de nos propres affaires ny de ceux d'autruy; et les publiques et les privez se demeslent avec ces gens là." Florio's translation (p. 38) is fairly good to "desliées." He then breaks the sentence and begins: "Wee are no longer to intermeddle either with our, or other mens affaires; and both publicke and private *forsake* such kinde of people." Again almost the precise opposite of Montaigne's thought. Further (page 393): "Nothing so humane in Plato, as that which they say, hee is called divine." "Rien si humain en Platon que ce pourquoy ils disent qu'on l'appelle divin." This is in one of the very interesting 1595 passages. Montaigne is maintaining that when men would transform themselves into angels, they do transform themselves into beasts: "au lieu de se hausser, ils s'abattent," and "there is nothing," he says, "so human [that is, so weak] in Plato as that for which they say he was called divine."

By the side of the mistakes of the translator there is in this volume as prolific a crop of the mistakes of Florio's printer as in the previous ones; and for the continuance of these the present editor must be called to task. A very confusing misprint, for ever handed down, is on p. 389: "As for me then, I love my selfe and cherish it," should be "I love my life and cherish it" (j'aime *la vie*). Rightly: "I love life and improve it, such as it has pleased God to bestow it on us." And Florio's following sentence is ludicrously unintelligible from his ignorance of a common idiom of that day. "Avoir à dire" meant (in English) *to lack*. We read in Florio: "As for me then, I love my selfe and cherish it, such as it hath pleased God to graunt it us. I desire not hee should speake of the necessity of eating and drinking." The original is: "Je ne vay pas desirant qu'elle eust à dire la necessité de boire et de manger"—that is, "I have no desire that it [life] should be without the necessity of eating and drinking."

Another strange mistake arising from an idiom has continued through all translations to the present day (it is still in Hazlitt's). This continuance is the stranger because Montaigne

uses the idiom in a modern sense. Speaking of the letter that Tiberius, when old and sick, sent to the Senate, Montaigne, referring to the opinion of Tacitus that it expressed poignant remorse, says that he himself does not see this in it—"aumoins," he declares, "lors que j'estois à mesme, je ne le vis point"; that is, "when *I was qualified to judge*." In his later years he often disclaims an accurate knowledge of Roman history or the Latin language; and this phrase is a little bit of half-sincere modesty. Florio translates it (and the other translators have the same sense, though not the same expression), "at least when my selfe was in the same plight, I saw it not" (p. 183). It is inexpressibly amusing to fancy Montaigne speaking of himself as in "the same plight" with Tiberius!

The sentences are innumerable that from one cause or another are not to be explained without reference to the original. (P. 57) "Plutarke himself bewails his daughter by the fopperies of his childehood." "Plutarque mesme regrette sa fille par des singeries de son enfance," *i. e.*, the little drolleries of her babyhood. (P. 115) "And if constancy be . . . more pardonable in them than in us . . ." should be "inconstancy." (P. 48) "My thoughts are prone to sleep if I sit long. My mind goes not alone as if ledges did moove it." Florio wrote "legges." "Mon esprit ne va pas seul, comme si les jambes l'agitent." More examples are unnecessary.

It would be a kindness in the editor of Florio, if it be not his duty, to give the reader a glossary. It is only from special knowledge that one can understand such words and phrases as the following, which catch the eye in turning the pages: "Caters" (catarrhs), "sance" (French *sans*), "were corrupted in my loss" (*tenoient en compte en ma perte*); "by retayle it spoiles and proules me" (*par le menu, elle me pille*), "flearing," "mumps," "trudding," "sottish" (=foolish), "Kae mee Ile kae thee," "vie" and "a vie," or "avy" (two entirely different words), "A becke is as good as a dew guard" (*Dieu vous garde*), "calivers," "pavesado," "galliotte," "estriges" (ostriches) "evitated" (avoided), "moultred" (mouldered), "climate" (in the sense of *region*), "to konne you no thanks," "attediate" (weary), "demisse" (over humble), "runne at hab or nab," "netifie" (make neat), "imperverseth," "lithernesse," "agnize" (recognize), "smugging," "to take pepper (or take snuff) in the nose" (to be angry), "bemolted" (b *mol*), "good cheap" and "better cheap," "calthrops," "wallowishly tastelesse," "My manners are musty, rather wallowish than sharp," "whit meates," "calipine," "casting-counters," "Argo-lettiers" (*argoulets*), "cost-castle" (a game), "murre" (a hoarse cold), "to nonchion," "pargettings," "mumme-chance" (a game with cards or dice), "podagrees," "to make the pommada" (walk on the hands, *paume*), "sextaine" (sacristan), "summers" (supporting beams), "wherrat" or "whirrit" (a box on the ears), "wrimpled," etc., etc., etc.—to say nothing of all the words like "preallable," "bransles," "bouge," "deffaillance," "perflable," simply left *untranslated*.

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*Memoirs of My Indian Career.* By Sir George Campbell, M.P., K.C.S.I., D.C.L. Edited by Sir Charles E. Bernard. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

It is not very often that we come across a Radical Indian official—at any rate, in the sense in which the term "Radical" is now used in England. Sir George Campbell was a Radical of the best type; a man whose sympathies were with the masses of the Indian people, and who did not hesitate to defend their interests even at the risk of "spoiling his career." His policy of "governing more actively" had its dangers; but these were minimized by his shrewd Scotch common sense, his intimate knowledge of the details of the husbandman's life, and his passion for facts. When at last he was put in a position, as Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal (1871-1874), in which he could set his mark upon the country, he not only dealt successfully with a great famine, but did much to permanently improve the condition of the great body of the agricultural population. And these 'Memoirs' of his, written in the last two years of his life, are an exceedingly rich source of information concerning Indian problems, and especially concerning the undercurrents of official opinion.

The question of questions in India is the land. Every one who has read Sir Henry Maine knows that the English Government, having to decide, at the end of last century, whom it should make responsible for the payment of the Bengal revenue, chose to deal with the zemindars, or tax-gatherers, and so converted them practically into landlords. Every one knows also that in some other provinces in later times another and wiser policy was adopted, and a settlement made directly with the cultivators, or ryots. Throughout Campbell was on the side of the ryots. He protested in vain, when he was but a subordinate administrative official in Oude, against the "Settlement" of that country in 1860, whereby "alone, of all the provinces of India, the landlords obtained absolute and unqualified property in the soil, and the cultivators were left without any rights at all—with very insignificant exception." The idea that the Mutiny had been in any way due to a previous ill treatment of the "landlords" (or "talookdars," as they were called in that district) he scouted as preposterous: the Mutiny, he declared, had been, what its name implies, a military mutiny, and nothing more. But "the craze for creating landlords in India" was then at its height, and Campbell was got rid of from that branch of the service by being made a judge of the High Court at Calcutta. As good fortune would have it, this gave him a chance of taking part, and doubtless an influential part, in the deliberations on the Great Rent Case, which resulted in the reversal by the whole body of fourteen lower judges of a judgment of their chief, and the final judicial "establishment of the rights of the occupancy ryots of Bengal as privileged tenants holding at a regulated rent." And when, after wandering in the wilderness for some years, he became Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, he succeeded, in the teeth of many obstacles, in compelling the zemindars of that province to perform some part of those duties in consideration of which they had received their privileges.

It is curious to notice the parallelism—which Campbell was one of the first to perceive—between recent Indian and Irish agrarian history. The period of "enthusiasm for landlordism" after the Mutiny was exactly contemporary with the Irish Land Act of 1860, which attempted to replace custom altogether by contract; and the Irish Acts of 1881 and subsequent years are quite similar in principle to the reforms which administrators sympathizing with Campbell have of late effected in India. Nowhere is the liability of the political economy of the Manchester school to serve as a justification for the oppression of the weak by the strong more apparent than in India. This comes out very clearly in a report from Mr. Wingfield, by whom more than any other man the Settlement of Oude was shaped:

"The claim," he wrote in 1864, "of any interest to protection in its industry has been repudiated in England, but in India it is accorded to the lowest form of agricultural interest. This course of policy the Chief Commissioner believes to be opposed to modern principles. The doctrine that it is the duty of the State to interfere to prevent the owner of the soil from doing what he pleased with it is one that Englishmen will not subscribe to in their own country. Every attempt to legalize it under the guise of tenant-right in Ireland has been defeated in Parliament; and the idea of limiting the power of the landlord has been denounced as communistic by an eminent living statesman."

Need it be pointed out how large an assumption it was to regard the talookdar as "the owner of the soil"? It is amusing to find that the Duke of Argyll, the Liberal Secretary of State for India in 1871, was distressed by the zeal of Campbell on behalf of the Bengal tenants. He doubtless saw in every Bengal zemindar an inchoate McCallum More. It is to be feared that he may in future be still further distressed by the application of Indian precedents to Scotch crofters.

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*Geology of the Eureka District, Nevada.* With an Atlas. By Arnold Hague. [United States Geological Survey, Monograph XX.] Washington. 1892.

The Eureka district in Nevada has been one of the great lead-silver-producing regions of the United States, and the Richmond and the Eureka Consolidated mines are known to fame. The economical importance of the district has already given rise to one monograph, by Mr. J. S. Curtis, on its mining geology. The scientific interest of the region, however, is by no means confined to its mineral resources, and this fact is no accident. The ore deposits could not occur here were there not lines of weakness in the earth, along which lavas and hot mineralized solutions could penetrate. The fissuring of the rocks was due to dislocating forces, and implies the upheaval of one side of the country relatively to the other. Now the great geological distinctions between areas, as well as the fissuring which is essential to the deposition of ores, are chiefly due to such upheavals. Hence it is no matter of surprise to find that Eureka lies close to a narrow belt along which one of the most important upheavals of the continent has taken place, and near the dividing line between very distinct geological areas.

This line or narrow zone of upheaval was detected by the geologists of the exploration of the Fortieth Parallel, but was not then studied with all the detail desirable; and it was principally for this reason that Mr. Hague's geological investigation was undertaken. One of its fruits was a superb collection of palæozoic fossils, which were described and discussed some time since by Mr. C. D. Walcott. The most interesting feature of Mr. Hague's memoir is the abundant confirmation of the offshore character of the palæozoic rocks. These show beyond a peradventure that, from the Cambrian to the close of the Carboniferous period, a continental area existed to the west of longitude 117° 30′, furnishing great masses of sediment to a sea stretching far to the eastward of this meridian. This sea bore an inland character in spite of its great extent. Though the western continental area seems to have remained above water during the entire palæozoic period, minor oscillations of level took place, as is usual under such conditions. Thus

the waters at Eureka were sometimes deep enough to deposit limestones, and again shallow enough to be marked by coarse conglomerates and sands. Portions of the area even rose high enough to afford space for estuarian swamps, so that coal seams (of no economic value) and fresh-water life mark some horizons. By these observations the existence of the shore line and of the western land mass is definitely established. It is possible that dislocations had occurred along the meridian 117° 30′ before the Cambrian. It is certain that at the close of the Carboniferous the inland sea in eastern Nevada was obliterated by the elevation of its bottom, this upheaval being accompanied by a lateral compressive stress which produced meridional folds near Eureka. In many cases these folds broke as crumpled pasteboard would do, and faults now mark their axes. Mr. Hague's investigations lend no support to the theory of the formation of mountain ranges by the tilting of rigid blocks of rock in an underlying fluid magma—a strange hypothesis which has had several advocates so far as the mountains of southern Nevada are concerned.

Deep wounds in the earth seem never to heal thoroughly, and along these same faults intrusive and eruptive rocks have penetrated at various ages up to the late Tertiary. The eruptive rocks of Eureka are many and interesting, and are described in detail in this volume by Mr. J. P. Iddings. Mr. Hague regards the entire series of volcanic rocks (which do not exactly follow Von Richthofen's famous law of succession) as derivable from a single, homogeneous, molten magma by a process of chemical differentiation. It is satisfactory, by the way, to observe that chemical considerations, which were almost ignored in lithology a few years since, are regaining the attention which never should have been refused them. The hypothesis of differentiation into fractional magmas still lacks precision, but it is a much more hopeful line of thought than the reference, so lately in vogue, of all differences in rocks to differences of temperature and pressure. The idea is that rocks of intermediate composition, representing the original magma, will be ejected first, while the residual subterranean pool will gradually separate into acid and basic portions. These will be emitted at later outbreaks. Bunsen's theory of pyroxenic and trachytic magmas forms the starting-point for all theories of the differentiation of magmas.

The atlas of this monograph is beautifully executed by Bien, and the photographs of microscopic slides, by Bierstadt, are very fine. The proof correction has been careful. The printing-paper is bad, and a discredit to the Government Printing-office.

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*Art Out of Doors.* By Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

Before attempting to note the conspicuous merits and deficiencies of this charmingly made book, it may be well to sketch the outlines of that exceedingly broad field of human labor in which Mrs. Van Rensselaer would have us work "artistically." Ever since man became man he has been remodelling the face of the earth. His blind trails through the forests have become highways and railroads. His wigwams and pueblos are now farmsteads and great cities. The prairies are become his grain-fields and the forests his lumber-yards. Purely natural scenery is already a distant rarity, what is called such being generally the distinctly humanized landscape of coppice, pasture, and farm. That all this labor of men is vandalism is the cry of sentimentalists, but men of sense remain of the opinion that the world would be a dull place without its fields and roads, its cottages and mansions, its villages and cities, its rails of shining steel, and all its other grand, lovely, or pathetic evidences of man's toiling and aspiring life. The transformers of the earth have seldom aimed to produce beauty, yet beauty has time and again sprung up under their hands—witness the English churchyard, the Swedish farmstead, the New England pasture or village. There is no mystery about this. Human happiness is not won by giving one's thoughts to the direct pursuit of it; neither is beauty in the surroundings of life. Although man is conscious and Nature is unconscious, the man who hopes for beauty must work as Nature works, and must trustfully obey her laws of purpose, utility, and adaptation to circumstance. Beauty is not to be won as an immediate aim. It is a result, a development, a flower.

It is to be regretted that no general account of either the breadth or the depth of the subject described by its title is to be found in the book before us. Its various chapters deal lightly and pleasantly with such special problems as the grouping of trees and shrubs, the attachment of houses to their sites, roads and paths, formal gardens, piazzas, and so on; the plea of the book being that all such problems should be solved in an "artistic spirit." The advice offered is well put, and the book should have a multitude of readers. Our only fear is lest the author has inadequately warned these readers of the main facts, that good "art out of doors" must be founded in rationality, purpose, fitness, and that its field is not only the garden, the shrubbery, and the park, but also the village, the factory, and the railroad yard. According to this book, landscape architecture is much like house-furnishing: a selecting of agreeably harmonizing elements in the shape of buildings, rocks, trees, climbing-plants, and so on. The essentially virile and practical nature of the art and profession is ignored, together with most of its greater and more democratic problems. But when this has been said and allowance made, the book remains the best book in its field that we have had in many a day. Its style is exceedingly good, and its tone puts it above comparison with the books of the horticulturists which are its only contemporary rivals for the public ear.

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*The Treat Family:* A Genealogy of Trott, Tratt, and Treat for fifteen generations and four hundred and fifty years in England and America. Containing more than fifteen hundred families in America. By John Harvey Treat, A.M. Salem, Mass.: Press Publishing Company. 1893. Pp. 637.

This is one of those immense genealogies for which no rival can be found except among American publications. It is a wonderful monument of care, patience, enthusiasm, and wealth, and the author is entitled to a high rank in his art. Richard Treat, the immigrant, settled in Connecticut prior to 1640, as he was of Wethersfield in that year when he bought the farms of John Whitmore, Thurston Raynor, and Matthew Mitchel, who removed to Stamford. His will, dated in 1668, mentions children Honor, Richard, Robert, and James, besides married daughters clearly identified as Joanna and Sarah. As all of these children are recorded as born to Richard Tratt at Pitminster, County Somerset, Eng., between 1615 and 1634, there is not the slightest doubt that the emigrant has been identified. Four generations have been satisfactorily traced in England, under the names of Trott and Tratt, beginning with John Trott of Staplegrove, near Taunton, in 1458. Probably Matthias Treat of Wethersfield was of the same stock; and his descendants are herein traced (pp. 534–566). The three sons of Richard are taken as founders of separate families, and their issue herein recorded, viz.: of Richard, pp. 35–129; of Robert, pp. 130–484, and of James, pp. 488–533. The most noted bearer of the name was this Robert, who was "Governor and Deputy-Governor" of Connecticut for nearly thirty years, as his tombstone still testifies. His granddaughter Eunice Treat married the Rev. Thomas Paine of Eastham and Boston, and their son Robert Treat Paine had the honor of signing the Declaration of Independence.

As compared with some other New England families, the Treats have not been very prolific in the male line, but the roll of Richard's descendants is an honorable one, and is now fittingly recorded for posterity.

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*Victor Hugo, le Poète.* Par Charles Renouvier. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

The articles published, four years ago, by M. Charles Renouvier in *La Critique Philosophique* have been collected and revised by him in book form, under the above title, with much new matter. The result is a useful addition to the small list of good books on Hugo. On first opening it one feels a not unnatural dread lest the volume prove to be another fulsome laudation of the poet, for it is mainly laudation or abuse, exaggerated in either case, to which we have been treated by writers taking the great lyrist as their theme. M. Renouvier starts out with the affirmation that Victor Hugo is the only Frenchman actually and absolutely entitled to the name of poet in the fullest meaning of the word. This is a pretty bold challenge of itself, and, followed up as it is by the assertion that Hugo may further be considered as one of the few world-poets, it is not surprising that the reader should feel instinctive distrust of what at first glance threatens to be a panegyric of the wildest kind. But M. Renouvier, notwithstanding his intense admiration of the poet and the fact that he starts out to prove what will seem to many utterly untenable, has not shut his eyes to the faults of Hugo as a writer. He bases his judgment of the poet on the assumed possession by Hugo of three gifts—the first, the mythological faculty, the second, sublimity, and the third, style. That is, to summarize M. Renouvier's remarks, Hugo probably excels every poet in the power and love of incarnating ideas and things; he has vast force and depth of emotion, and is practically the creator of a new prosody.

These are very wide-reaching claims, and a careful perusal of the evidence in support of them leaves us unconvinced. No one, save bitter opponents, denies to Hugo as a poet a place among the foremost in the nineteenth century; but to rank him with Homer, Virgil, Dante, Shakspere, Milton, Goethe, is an act of blind admiration. One can name the *magnum opus* of each of these rare intellects; what is Hugo's in the mass of verse he has written? Which particular poem, play, or collection of poems of his is to be mentioned with the masterpiece which each of the above names recalls? If there be a French poet admissible to the glorious distinction of a world-poet, most people will say it is Molière. M. Renouvier does not succeed in proving Hugo the

foremost of all French poets, but he comes much nearer his goal in this than in the other case.

Apart from these two contentions, which give considerable interest to M. Renouvier's pages, the study he has made of the poet is a remarkably impartial one, recalling frequently, in its evident sincerity, the masterly *étude* by Faguet. The latter is still the preferable one; M. Renouvier has not surpassed M. Faguet in depth or clearness of insight, and has not placed more effectively before the reader the peculiar beauties and equally peculiar defects of Hugo. On the other hand, he is fuller, he views the poet from a somewhat different standpoint, he places him higher than Faguet does, and accepts as beauties and powers what the other critic at times indicates as weaknesses and defects. In a word, he supplements Faguet where the two agree, and brings out new light where they disagree. His book is one which every careful student of Hugo and the Romantic movement in France will feel it necessary to read and will be repaid for reading.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addis, W. E., and Arnold, Thomas. A Catholic Dictionary. New ed., revised and enlarged. Benziger Bros.

Bushill, T. W. Profit-Sharing and the Labor Question. London: Methuen & Co.

Cannan, Edwin. A History of the Theories of Production and Distribution in English Political Economy from 1776 to 1848. London: Percival & Co.

Cheever, Rev. H. T. Biblical Eschatology. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.

Cherbuliez, Victor. The Tutor's Secret. Appletons.

Comic History of America. M. J. Ivers & Co.

Coppée, François. Rivales. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Amblard & Meyer. 60 cents.

Daintrey, Laura. Gold. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.

Flinn, J. J. Standard Guide to Chicago. Chicago: Standard Guide Co.

Foote, Allen R. Prosperity and Politics. Washington: Kensington Publishing Co. 50 cents.

Gage, Matilda J. Woman, Church and State. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $2.

Grand, Madame Sarah. The Heavenly Twins. Cassell. $1.

Hampton, Isabel A. Nursing: Its Principles and Practice. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders. $2.

Hill, Thomas E. Guide to Chicago and the World's Fair. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 25 cents.

How to Get There in New York City. Hall Publishing Co. 15 cents.

Jones, D. A. Business Corporations Law in the State of New York. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $4.

Langbridge, Frederick. Miss Honoria: A Tale of a Remote Corner of Ireland. F. Warne & Co. 50 cents.

Lee, Susan P. Memoirs of William Nelson Pendleton. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Lent, F. T. Sound Sense in Suburban Architecture. Cranford, N. J.: The Author.

Lewis, Mrs. Harriet. Guy Tresillian's Fate. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.

Lewis, Mrs. Harriet. Tresillian Court. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.

Lindley, Percy. Walks in the Ardennes. New ed. London: Great Eastern R.R. Co.

Linn, Dr. Thomas. The Health Resorts of Europe. Appletons. $1.50.

McFadden, B. A. The Athlete's Conquest. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.

Merkley, George E. Canadian Melodies and Poems. Toronto: Hart & Riddell.

Moore-Carew, S. A Conquered Self. F. Warne & Co. 75 cents.

Oxley, J. M. Archie of Athabasca. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.

Protestant Episcopal Hymnal. Revised and Enlarged. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.50.

Roosevelt, Theodore. The Wilderness Hunter. Putnams. $3.50.

Ryley, G. B., and McCandlish, J. M. Scotland's Free Church. London: Constable & Co.; New York: Randolph. $2.50.

Scott, Sir Walter. Old Mortality. 2 vols. Heart of Midlothian. 2 vols. [International Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.

Starr, Rev. R. H. A Lost Truth, and Other Short Sermons. James Pott & Co.

Sturgis, Julian. Count Julian: A Spanish Tragedy. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.

Sybel, H. von. Die Erhebung Europas gegen Napoleon I. Boston: Ginn & Co. 66 cents.

The Defence of Prof. Briggs before the General Assembly. Scribners. 75 cents.

The Essays of Montaigne done into English by John Florio. The Third Book. London: David Nutt.

The Story of a Telegraph Operator. J. S. Ogilvie. 25 cents.


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**"THE MONIST."** A Quarterly Magazine. Vol. 3, No. 4. July, 1893. Editor, Dr. PAUL CARUS.

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| | | |
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| Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1892, to 31st December, 1892. | | $3,690,250 88 |
| Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1892 | | 1,472,142 48 |
| Total Marine Premiums | | $5,162,393 36 |
| Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1892, to 31st December, 1892 | | $3,759,193 05 |
| Losses paid during the same period | $1,466,178 06 | |
| Returns of Premiums and Expenses | $738,617 09 | |

The Company has the following assets, viz.:

| | |
|---|---|
| United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks | $7,816,455 00 |
| Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise | 2,027,000 00 |
| Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at | 1,029,345 26 |
| Premium Notes and Bills Receivable | 1,336,622 46 |
| Cash in Bank | 276,262 99 |
| Amount | $12,485,685 71 |

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THE USE OF SILVER AS MONEY IN THE UNITED STATES.

By Prof. ARTHUR B. WOODFORD, Ph.D., of New York,

and a paper on

THE MONETARY SITUATION IN GERMANY.

By Prof. WALTHER LOTZ of Munich.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 3, 1893.

## The Week.

THE greatest publicity should be given to the statement furnished by Comptroller Eckels concerning the condition of the national banks. The number of these banks is about 3,900, and only 105 of them have suspended. Of these, 14 have already resumed payments, and several more are in a way to do so, the applications for permission to resume numbering 58. Only 33 are actually in the hands of receivers, and the Comptroller thinks that most of those in the examiners' hands will reopen. The great majority of these banks are small institutions, 36 of them having a capital of but $50,000 each, although five of them were capitalized at a million dollars each and as many more at half a million. Of the failures 55 occurred in the far Western States, and 25 in the South. In 21 States and Territories no failures have occurred, in 7 but 1, in 8 but 2, in 7 again but 3. In only 8 of the States, therefore, have more than 3 failures taken place. In most of the great centres none of the banks has failed, only 1 in New York, 2 in Chicago, and 1 in Milwaukee. This statement ought to do much to restore confidence.

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The breakdown of the Erie Railroad Company, and the transfer of its finances to receivers, adds another chapter to one of the most sensational among the histories of railroad wrecks. Among well-informed railroad men it cannot be said that this action was a surprise; for the Erie has for years been known as a heavy borrower of money, and its resources have been such as to render very dubious its outlook in a money panic. It has already passed three times through a receivership, and it escaped another such experience in the troubles of 1884 only by remarkably good luck. In times of easy credit a company even with such a record may carry readily enough a floating debt of five to seven millions. It may go so far as to pay interest on junior bonds not of a mandatory character, which the Erie did, with very doubtful wisdom, a few months since. But when, as is now the case, the market for time loans is shut even to borrowers with highest credit and best collateral, a corporation with credit so doubtful and needs so heavy is reasonably certain to go down. As a matter of fact, the company had reached a point where even its small current accounts could not be paid, for lack of money, and it became a question who should first apply for the protection of his interests through the courts. If the management had not petitioned for a receiver, holders of the company's notes or bills payable would surely have done so.

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On the present management of the company the blame for such a situation does not rest. The Erie has a dark and shameful past. It was the chosen field for the robberies of Gould and Fisk, and the huge load of bonded indebtedness under which the railroad has in later days been staggering is the legacy of those conspirators. Even when the rascals who ruined the company twenty years ago had abandoned the wreck, an era of extravagance and mismanagement under other auspices ensued. The result has been a matter of public knowledge, that the Erie Road has continued as nearly in a state of chronic bankruptcy as a company can exist without actual default. The worst part of the incident, no doubt, lies in the inferences which people are likely, in the present era of fright, to draw in regard to other corporations. It is true, there are other heavy corporate borrowers in Wall Street. The stock of some of them is selling now almost at a receivership level. But it must be remembered that the Erie's past financiering was an exception. Others among the railroad borrowers have prudently placed their floating debt, in anticipation of the present troubles, on notes which will not mature until the present strain is past. Others, again, have used their foreign credit, and negotiated sterling loans whose renewal may be counted on. Others still are possessed of such outlook and resources as to assure them aid from wealthy capitalists personally concerned in their solvency. These are doubtful and troublous times, but they are times when the exercise of coolness and discrimination is the part of clear-headed men.

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The reductions in wages now beginning to be reported are to be deplored upon general principles, but under the present circumstances they can hardly be avoided. It should be remembered that a steady and very long-continued rise in the value of wages has existed. There has been some rise in money wages at the same time, but the increase in their purchasing power has been within the last twenty years something remarkable. At the present day a mechanic of very ordinary skill can earn a barrel of flour by a day's work, and although bread is no longer so important a part of the diet of working people as formerly, it is a very satisfactory preventive of starvation. In most other articles of food there has not been so marked a decline in price as in the case of the cereals, but there have been few advances; and if the prices of the great staples of consumption were averaged, it would appear that the cost of living had materially diminished. The same conclusion is reached by examining the prices of clothing. The extremely low price of cotton has enabled the common people to provide themselves with cotton goods upon very advantageous terms, and the cheapness of wool has defeated even McKinley in his attempt to make woollen goods dear, however successful he may have been in impairing their quality. The abundance of capital and the ingenuity of our manufacturers have filled the homes of the poor with articles of convenience and comfort at marvellously small cost to the occupants, and in almost every respect, it may be said, they are getting far more for their wages than they were a generation ago.

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The silver enthusiasts of Colorado are settling down to business at last. Failing to observe any indications of the mountain's coming to them, they are now proposing to go to the mountain. The Attorney-General of the State has given his opinion to the effect that the Legislature has power to authorize the deposit of silver bullion in the Treasury, and to issue certificates of deposit which shall be receivable for taxes. We will not venture to pronounce upon the constitutionality of this plan, but certainly no one in Colorado will dare to raise that question, and no one outside of that State will care to do so. It has always been the custom in many, if not all, of our States to accept labor upon the roads as payment of highway taxes, and there is no reason why the State should not commute taxes in silver or pig-iron or potatoes as well as labor. It is the practice in Turkey to collect the taxes "in kind," and the example of that Power is far more convincing to men affected with the silver craze than that of England, "an aristocratic government, administered by nobles, landlords, bankers, and capitalists in the interest of their own class, whose interest and object is to make money more valuable by the contraction of the currency to a gold basis." By all means let Colorado try this experiment. No time could be better, for any addition to the currency is welcome just now, and must be especially so in a community where the suspension of banks has been so extensive. If the Colorado people will show their faith by their works in this way, they will furnish an object-lesson to the rest of the world which will be far more effective than the frothy declamations of their demagogues.

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The pitiful exhibition of the "friends of silver" in New York city last week might well be passed over in silence but for one thing. Disgraceful and humiliating as the affair was, it serves for ever to give the lie to the assertion, which has been so fre-

quently made, that there are numbers of respectable business men in New York who favor free silver. After the collection of broken-down labor agitators and stranded promoters and professional cranks that was seen at the Fifth Avenue Hotel on July 26, in answer to the call for an uprising of the business men of this metropolis, the silver-men out West will no longer lay that flattering unction to their souls. Poor Messrs. Colgate and Higgins must have got wind of the unsavory crowd which their "call" was going to bring together, and discreetly absented themselves. They were represented by letters, it is true, which seemed only to add to the disorder of the meeting; but Mr. St. John was heard from by neither voice nor pen. This was a golden opportunity which we should not have thought he was the man to lose. The delegates appointed to the great Bimetallic Convention at Chicago ought to have taken along with them as their fitting credentials verbatim reports of the meeting that chose them. An instantaneous photograph, too, of the quarrelling mob, just before the alarmed proprietors turned off the light to get rid of it, would have conveyed to the Westerners an accurate idea of the kind of "friends of silver" which New York produces.

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The appointment of Mr. Kilbreth as Collector of Customs for the port of New York is altogether satisfactory. Mr. Kilbreth has, we believe, enjoyed the distinction, during most of his nearly twenty years' career as police justice, of being the only lawyer upon that bench. He has had the further distinction of being a man of high character and a gentleman—traits which their most ardent supporters will scarcely claim for most of our police justices. By some miracle of political arrangement, and actuated by what must be regarded as genuine public spirit upon his part, this graduate of Harvard College and honorable practitioner was brought to occupy one of the least desirable of public offices, and one at the same time in which an upright and benevolent man can accomplish an immense amount of good. In these criminal courts justice is dispensed for the most part as summarily as by an Oriental cadi, and it has been a great piece of good fortune for the poor of this city to have even one such judge as Mr. Kilbreth at petty sessions. It was not to be expected that a magistrate of this character would be retained in power by Tammany Hall, and his retirement must have been a welcome release to himself. If we regard the Collectorship as a "plum," Mr. Kilbreth has certainly earned it by his public services; and if we regard it as an administrative office, we have no doubt that the practice he has acquired in the expeditious despatch of business in the police court will enable him to discharge his new duties successfully. We fear, it must be added, that a familiarity with all forms of fraud and cheating is one of the most important qualifications of a customs collector.

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The idea has been sedulously cultivated by Republican organs that wholesale changes have been made in the consular service by the Cleveland Administration. The facts in the matter have been fully set forth in a statement furnished to the Boston *Herald* by Assistant Secretary of State Quincy, who has had special oversight of the appointments in this branch of the service. The total number of consuls-general, consuls, and commercial agents is 317, and among these 317 there have been changes in 117 cases. But of the 117 new appointments 18 were restorations to the service of former consular officers, all but one of whom had been displaced for political reasons by President Harrison. Some of these removals by the last Administration were utterly indefensible, and indeed were only made in its closing months when the "pressure" for them had become very strong. Mr. Quincy admits that changes have been made more rapidly under Cleveland than under Harrison, but he points out that at the close of the latter's Administration nearly all of the appointees of Cleveland's former Administration had been removed from the service, only twenty-four such appointees remaining on the 4th of March, 1893, and but fourteen of these holding positions having a salary of $1,500 or more. He also shows that a number of changes were demanded for the good of the service, by reason of the gross partisanship of Harrison's appointees, as in the cases of three consuls in Germany, who united in a letter to the editor of a newspaper in Chemnitz asking him to disclose the authorship of certain articles on the tariff question in his journal which displeased them.

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Mr. Quincy says that the theory of the present Administration is that it is better for the consular service, as well as for other reasons, "that inevitable changes should be made with reasonable promptness, instead of after a long period of delay and uncertainty," and "that such changes should coincide as nearly as possible with changes in administrations rather than be made near the middle or end of an administration." He points out that this plan "gives the new appointees an assurance of a continuance in office for at least four years, if they perform their duties with efficiency; while the service of a political appointee of a former administration, who necessarily feels that he may be displaced at any moment, is not likely to be of much value to the Government." This theory is a sound one. No feature of our relations with foreign countries is more ridiculous than the custom of a retiring President's handing over a foreign mission or a consulate, between his own defeat and the inauguration of his successor, to a party or personal favorite, who accepts it with the understanding that the appointment is designed only to give him a trip abroad at the public expense. Mr. Harrison carried this absurd practice so far that in two cases last winter he removed good consuls in order to make vacancies for two Republican editors in Iowa who had just married and wanted Uncle Sam to pay the cost of their "bridal tours" to Europe!

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Of making many Hawaiian treaties there is no end. First there was the one which Harrison drew and Cleveland withdrew. Then there was the one which, as we learned last week from Honolulu despatches, was prepared for the purpose of "covering objections which arose in the United States." This one "will not be forwarded." But a third one is forwarded, and if that doesn't suit, there will be no difficulty in drawing up others. The Provisional Government give out the main articles of their last treaty. It is their treaty because they have agreed to it. But it takes two to make a treaty, and the Constitution of the United States points out the treaty-making power of this country. Wisely or unwisely, that power is not vested in newspapers or in filibusters or in bounty-seekers, but in the President, "by and with the advice and consent of the Senate." It looks, therefore, like a curious piece of inadvertence or audacity for the Provisional Government of Hawaii to publish in advance the terms of a treaty which they propose to submit to the American Executive. The best that can be said of such a course is that it is a case of gross diplomatic impropriety. We are not yet ready to accept the alternative view that it was meant as a studied affront to President Cleveland, and an endeavor to force his hand by newspaper clamor. The latest news shows that the Provisional Government is in a bad way, but we do not believe it is yet reduced to so desperate straits as such a purpose would imply. The articles of the treaty itself, as published, are not worth serious discussion.

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The demoralization caused by the pension craze is illustrated by a recent incident in Boston. A business man, well-to-do in purse and vigorous in body, who already carried a considerable amount of life insurance, applied for $10,000 more. The medical examiner found nothing whatever to indicate any disease, past or present, and the investigation was almost concluded when the doctor asked the question, "Have you ever been a pensioner?" Thereupon the applicant stammered, and at last owned up that he was drawing a pension of $12 a month. Further inquiries drew from him "a tangled series of admissions that he had never really suffered any injury or illness entitling him to a pension, but he had made out some sort of a case of nervous shock or deterioration, at

the instigation of a pension agent, and had taken his $12 a month from the United States Government, rich man though he was, on the principle that 'they all do it.'" The company very properly refused to grant him insurance, on the ground that a man who had perjured himself to get $12 a month from the Federal Treasury was quite capable of cheating an insurance company if he got the chance, and consequently was not a good risk. More than one life-insurance company now puts the query about pensions on the list of questions which applicants must answer, and this Boston man is not the only individual who will find that he has forfeited the chance of getting a large policy to which his physical condition entitles him, by fraudulently obtaining a petty pension to which he has no just claim.

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It has occurred to us that the *Tribune* could perform a great public service by frankly publishing the results of its experience in illustrated journalism. It is in its power to make something like a scientific test of the question whether the business has any money in it. Let it faithfully report the approvals and the condemnations of its course in going over to the ranks of the illustrators; let it state whether the respectable subscribers it at first drove away to the *Times*, outnumber those it seduced from allegiance to the *World*, and then tell us how many were shuttle-cocked back to it when the *Times* began its judicious mixture of art and sensationalism; let it give the salaries it pays its talented artists, and state whether filling the space they occupy with composition would not be cheaper. This is really a most important question, and we appeal to the *Tribune* to settle it. Everybody admits that newspaper pictures are bad in art and misleading as to fact; but, of course, if they "pay," we must put up with them. If it could be shown, however, that they cost more than they come to, as there are those who suspect that they do, that would bring them within range of the great principle that a newspaper must not go into anything in which there is not "big money," and so we should get rid of them.

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Mr. Astor's new *Pall Mall Magazine* lately offered prizes for the best drawings of an imaginary session of the Irish Parliament in Dublin. An instantaneous photograph of the scene in the House of Commons or Thursday night would have taken first prize. It was perhaps the most extensive free fight, with actual interchange of blows, ever witnessed in a legislative body. The French and Italian Deputies have given some disgraceful exhibitions in the past few years, but they scarce ever get beyond howling at each other and shaking innocuous fists at each other across a safe space, or resorting to still more innocuous pistols the next day to settle their personal differences. Passion had doubtless grown so tense on both sides that the break came spontaneously, and it is not in English blood, to say nothing of the Irish vital fluid, to stop with insulting language when recourse to nature's weapons is so much more telling a form of political argument, and when the area for the mêlée is so temptingly limited as that of the House of Commons. The shindy ought to have the effect of disposing of one great argument against an Irish Legislature—that it might be disorderly. But this consideration will not avail to modify the keen regret and sense of personal humiliation which Mr. Gladstone, and men to whom, as to him, the traditional dignity of the House of Commons is something precious, have felt at a scene of turbulence and violence unsurpassed in British parliamentary annals.

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The mischief resulting from what may be called vicarious beneficence, or the distribution of alms at other people's expense, is complained of by Miss Octavia Hill, known as well in charitable circles in this country as in England. The London County Council has before it schemes for buildings for the working classes, and Miss Hill points out that the advocates of such measures must consider that the bulk of the working people of London either can or cannot be accommodated in such buildings. If only partial accommodation is to be provided, she maintains, the erection of such buildings, or even the possibility of their erection, will greatly paralyze individual effort. Much has been done by societies and individuals, during the last thirty years, to provide good houses for working-people on a self-supporting basis. They are ready to extend the work, but not if they must compete with buildings subsidized by State aid. This is no imaginary danger, for Miss Hill declares that she knows this result to have already followed in specified instances. On the other hand, if private enterprise—as to which she gives it as her deliberate opinion that it bids fair to meet the need—is to cease, and the London County Council is to monopolize the field, three great evils will be encountered. In the first place, the work will be done expensively—no such body as the Council being an economical builder—and the increased cost, instead of being met by rents, will be thrown upon the rates. In the second place, the Council, which ought to be the supervising body over tenements and landlords, will become the landlord itself and be pecuniarily interested in the houses to be supervised. In the third place, the electorate will be in large measure composed of tenants of the body to be elected. The consequences to be apprehended need not be dwelt upon; but at all events, Miss Hill declares, there is no deficiency of good lodging for the poor in London at the present time, although those who are unwilling to pay rent naturally find it hard to secure satisfactory and permanent abodes.

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Another instance of unforeseen results from State intervention in the supposed behalf of the poor is brought out by an appeal from the London and Northwestern Railway Insurance Society to Parliament against the new Employers' Liability Bill. This measure is intended to improve the condition of workmen that are injured, by facilitating recovery from their employers; but the railway employees connected with this insurance society protest against any such improvement in their condition. They say that the railway, which now pays them a subvention of £16,000 per annum, will be obliged to withdraw this aid on account of its increased liability for damages, while the benefit to be expected by the men is too precarious a compensation for this certain loss. At present, these men say, they get their insurance pay in case of accident with the same regularity as they get their wages, no matter how or from what cause the accident arises. On the other hand, their personal experience and observation satisfy them that in cases of injury not five in a hundred of the injured would receive any compensation under the new bill. The protest of these men bears every evidence of good faith, and it may not improbably be the case that the apparent hardships of the law as it is have been so effectively done away with by the system of insurance that the overthrow of this system would do more harm than a change in the law would do good.

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It was a maxim of the late M. Thiers (somewhat discredited before his death) that the world is at peace when France is satisfied. At the present moment it is hard to make out from the Paris newspapers whether France is satisfied or not. Siam has acceded to all of her demands, but it seems that France now requires guarantees. She has the country in her grasp—that is, she has all the guarantees that Siam could give, but this is not sufficient. The truth probably is that France is nettled because England had something to say about the blockade. What England did say is not publicly known, but that she should say anything is intolerable to the *Figaro*, the *Voltaire*, and the frequenters of the cafés, the light-headed people who rushed into Bismarck's trap in 1870, from which they were ransomed by five milliards and two provinces. The Government will probably come out of the Siamese difficulty with some plunder, and with what will pass at home for a triumph of French diplomacy; but according to present appearances it will have earned the ill will of Great Britain. This appears to be the opinion of Germany, which already speculates on this addition to her own capital in the next European turmoil.

*PARTISANSHIP AND SILVER.*

WHEN Congress meets on August 7, the first idea the members should try to get into their heads is, that it is not a question of party politics which they are summoned in special session to settle. The second idea is, that no party capital is to be got out of the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law. That repeal will be a triumph for neither party, but for the sound-money men in both and for the business men of the whole country. Its main party significance will be the confession which it will imply that both parties have grievously sinned and come short in financial matters. If any of the leaders on either side still think that it is good politics to trifle with the silver question, a brief review of the mistakes of either party in the last fifteen years ought to be enough to disabuse their minds for ever of that particular bit of nonsense.

It cannot be denied, and for our part we have never denied it, that the Democratic party since the war has been more disposed, as a party, to fall down and worship the idol of depreciated currency than has the Republican party. This great change from the historic Democratic position was naturally brought about by the party's long years of exclusion from power. It was inevitable that the discontented elements of society should flock to it, and there are no more thoroughly discontented people in the world than those who have more debts than they can pay. To cheat their creditors by paying them in cheap money is the first thought of many such people, and the thousands of them who joined the Democratic party in the South and West came more than once perilously near committing that party to depreciated currency and repudiation outright. It looked in 1874 and 1875 as if the party would surely make the fatal leap, and it was only the strong hand of Tilden, whom it had to take for its Presidential candidate, that held it back. After cheap silver was taken up in place of cheap greenbacks, the Democratic party was again more infected by the heresy than the Republican party, and again was saved from preaching it as an article of party faith only by the firmness and authority of Mr. Cleveland.

Unluckily for the Republican party, at the very time the Democrats were beginning to recover from the silver mania, the over-crafty politicians who had the making of Republican platforms put in a money plank which has proved a fruitful mother of woes to the party and the country. The Democratic platform of 1888 had not a line about silver in it. It was not necessary to have one with Mr. Cleveland as the candidate. But the Republicans, meeting in National Convention two weeks later than their opponents, pounced upon this omission and put in a loud bid for the silver vote by the following plank:

"The Republican party is in favor of the use of both gold and silver as money, and condemns the policy of the Democratic Administration in its efforts to demonetize silver."

It was this unnecessary and fatal commitment of the Republican party that led straight up to the enactment of the Sherman Law, which, the whole country is now convinced, is our financial old man of the sea. Senator Sherman himself tacitly admitted this in his letter of July 8. He said that his party could enact no financial legislation without "the consent of the Republican Representatives from the silver-producing States." Why so? Reference to the debates in the Senate will show. The Republican Representatives from the silver-producing States alleged that the Republican platform had promised them substantially free coinage of silver; that they had been so assured on the spot at Chicago; that Colorado and other Western States could never have been carried for Harrison except on that understanding, and that they were there in Congress to call for the redemption of party pledges. Teller and Jones and Stewart and Wolcott were voluble and vociferous on this point. So were they in their sneers at the man in the White House, who, they intimated, could never have got there at all if he had not been thought friendly to silver, and who the West would take precious good care should never get there again if the party leaders proved unfaithful to their pledges. This explains what Senator Sherman meant when he said the party leaders had no "right" to throw the "responsibility" of a free coinage veto upon Harrison. This also explains the action of the Indiana Republicans, a few weeks after the Sherman Law was passed, in trying to make out Harrison a far better friend of silver than Cleveland. The party trick of 1888 led to the party trick of 1890, and the country is suffering to-day, and the Republican party is discredited, from the combined effects of the two.

We recall these facts of late political history for no partisan purpose. Both parties are tarred with the same stick. If the Democrats have sinned longer, the Republicans have sinned harder since they have been at it, and against clearer light. It is time to cry quits. It is time for both parties to renounce the silver devil and all his works, let bygones be bygones, and resolve to give the country a sound currency with such political unanimity that no party will ever dare again to try to make it unsound. Such a result will be a triumph for neither party. It will simply be a triumph of common sense, of business principles, and of scientific finance.

*THE PANIC OF 1873.*

WHAT the present panic may yet have in store for us, no one is wise enough to predict, but it can be safely affirmed that it has not, up to the present time, been nearly as disastrous as the panic of 1873. That panic had been preceded by a rage of speculation which began soon after the close of the war in 1865. This speculation took its rise in premature and excessive railway-building. During the war the building of new railways came almost to a standstill. The capital and labor of the nation for four years were applied almost exclusively to military and naval operations. When the armies were disbanded and the nation's floating debt funded, the field of enterprise in the West was entered upon with a feeling of high exuberance and enthusiasm. The first Pacific railway was opened for business in 1869. Great numbers of the enterprising and the capitalist classes were enabled, by this avenue, to see something of the vast resources west of the Missouri River. The glimpses thus obtained were very attractive, and the policy which then prevailed at Washington of giving away the public lands to people who would agree to build railways through them, stimulated in the highest degree this speculative zest.

At the beginning of 1869 there were 170,208,000 acres of land available as the basis for railroad bond issues. This was, for the most part, good agricultural land. The world had never seen such a chance to make money. Capitalists rushed in from Europe as well as from America to get some of the profits of this dazzling Golconda. Railway-building took an unexampled start. From 1859 to 1869 the annual increment of new mileage was under 2,000 miles per year. In 1869 it rose to 4,953 miles, in 1870 to 5,690 miles, and in 1871 to 7,670 miles. In 1872 there was a slight decrease from the mileage of the previous year, there being 6,167 miles of new railway completed. Here were nearly 25,000 miles of new railway constructed in four years' time. It was a necessary adjunct to this feat that there should be a great speculation in iron and also in lands and town lots. Mills and furnaces multiplied on every hand, and as these could not possibly supply the demand for rails, cars, and locomotives, there was an enormous importation also. The speculation so rampant in iron and in town lots extended of course to other things, so that the period (1869 to 1873) was marked by one of the most remarkable "booms" that this or any country ever saw.

The appearance of abounding prosperity which distinguished this period was darkened on the 17th of September, 1873, by the failure of the New York and Oswego Midland Railway. There was a tumble in stocks, and this became a panic on the following day, when the banking-house of Jay Cooke & Co. failed. The decline in the stock market, when this event became known, ranged from 1 to 10 per cent. On the next day nineteen other banking and brokerage houses in New York and eight in Philadelphia failed. On the next day (the 20th) the Union Trust Co. closed its doors with liabilities of $6,000,000. This event took away what little reason was left in the Street. Western Union Telegraph shares fell thirty-five points and New York Central eleven points, although

the latter had the powerful support of Commodore Vanderbilt. The Bank of the Commonwealth and the National Trust Co. closed their doors, the Canada Southern Railroad failed, and the Stock Exchange closed its doors and did not reopen them for ten days.

At this juncture an appeal was made to the Treasury for assistance, and Secretary Boutwell, after consultation with President Grant, decided to pay out a large sum in greenbacks that had been retired under a previous law of Congress, but not cancelled. It was decided to consider this a reserve and to use it in the purchase of Government bonds. Twenty-four millions was thus disbursed with great rapidity, but without producing any good effect. The bonds so bought belonged mostly to savings banks, and these banks locked up the greenbacks which they received, and held them in anticipation of a run on themselves, which did not take place. Very little, if any, of this money found its way into commercial circles.

On the 23d there was a general bank suspension throughout the country, except at Chicago. In the latter city five banks failed. In New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, and St. Louis the clearing-houses adopted the pooling plan of loan certificates, and the example was followed by all cities which had clearing-houses, and with very good effect, because it allayed public excitement and prevented runs which otherwise would have taken place everywhere, as in the panic of 1857. The banks refused to pay currency, except on small checks or in cases where it was needed to pay wages. All other checks were certified as "good through the Clearing-house." It was one of the phenomena of this panic that currency bore a premium over certified bank checks. On the 26th of September it was from 3 to 5 per cent. This was the highest rate of premium. The total amount of Clearing-house certificates in New York at any one time was $26,565,000. On October 2 the premium on currency over certified checks fell to 1 per cent., then to ½, then to ¼, then to ⅛, and finally, on the 31st of the same month, it disappeared altogether. The last Clearing-house certificates were redeemed on the 1st of November, at which time complete resumption on the part of the banks took place.

The panic proper ended at this point, but the consequences of it, in commercial circles, lasted till 1879. The mercantile failures in the three years following the panic reached $650,000,000, and the railway defaults $563,000,000; and $226,000,000 of such defaults had occurred before the September panic began.

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*THE EFFECT OF HOARDING MONEY.*

THE concerted action taken by the managers of the savings banks of this State, in requiring notice before paying depositors, has drawn forth some comments which indicate a misapprehension of the situation. That situation is so unusual as to justify a brief review of the course of our financial disorder. It began, beyond all question, in the apprehension felt by long-headed men both here and abroad, after the passage of the Silver Bill of 1890, that the Government would be forced to stop paying gold for its notes, which would bring the country with a terrible crash down to a silver basis. This apprehension was aggravated by the policy of dispelling the surplus by pension acts and other extravagant legislation—a policy which certainly succeeded in its immediate object, but which of course tended to impair the solvency of the Treasury. A disgraceful and disastrous error in the Treasury statistics—a blunder the importance of which has apparently been overlooked in these exciting days—by which our importations were made to appear to be at the rate of $40,000,000 a year in excess of what they really were, coupled with the large exportation of gold, operated to intensify the apprehension. The bold and clear utterances of President Cleveland at last removed its first cause. The business world was assured that gold would be paid by the United States Treasury for all its notes if demanded. It is true that a great deal was staked upon the continuance of a single life, but it may be said that after the declarations of the President the "silver scare" ceased to be reasonable. The Silver Act would remain an evil, but it was certain that the Administration would and could maintain gold payments.

In our judgment the impression was general, after the policy of the Treasury was understood, that the danger of financial disaster was averted. It seems now that several elements were not properly estimated in forming this conclusion. The principal one was the fact that frightened people disregard rational considerations. The cause of their alarm may be removed, but their nerves continue to quiver. That wonderful system of mutual trust by which almost all the enormous business of modern times is carried on—a system under which, practically, all payments are made in promises to pay, which are offset but never actually paid—when once thrown out of gear cannot be quickly repaired. Had there been no untoward event and no one interested in stimulating apprehension, confidence might gradually have returned. But the collapse of the vast schemes of the managers of the Reading Railroad, followed by the startling failure of the National Cordage Company, with their disgraceful revelations of unprincipled business methods, utterly demoralized the stock market and aroused apprehension to an even greater extent than before. And it is clear that an aggressive "bear" campaign had been determined upon by certain speculators who were consequently interested in spreading terror as widely as possible. The fall in prices, it must be remembered, had greatly enriched these speculators. They had sold in expectation of a fall, and their profits had been enormous. These profits gave them a vastly increased power to sell, while the general public had not only a diminished ability to buy, but also a greatly diminished disposition. Many people had to sell stocks to pay their debts, and few wanted to buy when they dreaded still lower prices.

At such times as these the custodians of other people's money are unfortunately compelled to adopt a policy that aggravates the disorder. Our whole system of deposit-banking is based upon the assumption that depositors will not all want their money at once. The profit of banking depends upon the truth of this assumption, for this profit is made out of the interest obtained by loaning deposits. Of course, this assumption is generally true; but it is not always true, and the fear of its proving untrue is always before the prudent banker. In times of financial stringency, therefore, when many people would like to borrow more money, the banks are obliged to lend less. They do not know when they may have to meet a sudden demand from their depositors, and they have therefore to resist the demands of their borrowers. They can check borrowing to some extent by raising the rate of discount; people who were going into new operations will give them up when they find that their interest account will be too heavy. But the people who are already in debt must have money or fail, and if they fail their creditors must have money or fail. Moreover, the diminution of credits, which do the work of money in exchanging goods, throws more work upon the actual money. Just when the banks are most anxious to increase their supplies of cash, the business of the country actually requires more cash. The weak and remote banks succumb to the strain, and, as checks drawn upon them are no longer of use, the country dealers are compelled to use cash. The reserves kept by the out-of-town banks with the city banks are drawn upon, and there is everywhere a great and a perfectly legitimate demand for cash.

Unfortunately there springs up a demand which, to a certain extent, may be properly called illegitimate. This is the demand for the purpose of private hoarding. Many people reason: "There is no telling when my bank may suspend payment, and it would be a terrible thing to have no money to pay the butcher and the grocer. I will therefore draw my money out of the bank while I can get it, and put it into my safe-deposit box, where it is under my own control. Then I am sure not to starve, whatever happens to the country." It is hard to blame people for doing this, and yet if they had a little more courage and public spirit they perhaps would not do so. A "state of barter" is not what we are used to, but if all the money in the country were to vanish, the necessary exchanges of goods would

somehow be made. Fortunately, the number of people who are either sanguine or public-spirited is sufficient to overcome to a large extent the timid and selfish element, but it is unquestionably an element that has to be reckoned with. It is highly probable that the multiplication of safe-deposit companies has increased the danger. In 1873 there were perhaps not a half-dozen such companies in the country, and many people had no safe place to keep money if they took it from the banks. Now there are hundreds of them, and the temptation to hoard is increased.

The savings banks are empowered by law to resist the craze for hoarding. They can insist upon thirty days' or sixty days' notice, and thereby protect themselves for a while. It may seem harsh to refuse depositors their money, but, in the first place, if the depositors all want it, they must be refused, for it is not in possession of the bank; and in the second place, if any depositor is in real need of his money, the officers of the bank will not allow him to suffer. They are, therefore, in the position of protecting people against themselves, and are trustees for the public safety. If the panic were to last indefinitely, of course the savings banks would have to yield. They are liable for enormous sums payable in legal tender, and their resources, if forced upon the market at such a time, would not produce in cash anything like the amount of their liabilities. But panics do not last indefinitely. Everybody may go crazy for a while, but before two months have passed sanity returns.

The action of the savings banks is therefore calculated to check hoarding by a very large class of people. These people may be deterred from depositing as freely as usual, but they cannot bring ruin upon the banks by sudden and frantic "runs." But hoarding by depositors in ordinary banks and trust companies is solely within their own control. Fortunately these depositors are principally men of business, not easily frightened, and anxious, both from generous and from selfish motives, that there shall be no general ruin. Every one knows that if he were to insist upon converting his deposits into cash, he could do so only if others did not, and to do so merely to hoard the cash would be looked upon by most men as a mean and cowardly act. We are all citizens of the same country, all "in the same boat"; and if we are going to be wrecked, let us not add shame to disaster by fighting over the life-preservers. Our financial system is an institution just as worthy of patriotic sacrifice as any other, and its salvation may depend upon the restraint of the hoarding propensity. The wise and honorable course is for every one to draw out no more cash than will suffice for immediate needs, and, if he is concerned about the future, to buy freely of everything that he is certain to require. It is only in this way that the present stringency will be relieved and the wheels of industry again be put in motion.

## *JOURNALISM IN NEW YORK.*

WE have waited with considerable impatience, though in vain up to the present, for some of the "great newspapers" of the city, as they never tire of calling themselves, to tell us what they think of the "inside view" of their business given in the remarkable articles in the August *Forum*. These articles do not easily lend themselves to illustration by portraits or maps, and there is certainly nothing off-color about them, yet even without those prime attractions we should have thought their importance merited notice. For it cannot be denied that they contain an amount of truth which it would be hard to find put so forcibly anywhere else in the same space.

It has long been our contention that metropolitan journalism has tended more and more to put itself upon a mercenary basis, pure and simple. For believing and saying this, and for pointing out the great difference between the papers of thirty and forty years ago, which were vehicles of opinion, and those of to-day, which are merely pieces of property, we have been accused of ill natured jealousy and many other unpleasant qualities. In the current number of *Scribner's Magazine*, Mr. Julian Ralph talks of the "eccentricity" of the *Evening Post* in saying that the modern newspaper has become exclusively a business enterprise. Now, no one will suspect Mr. J. W. Keller of the *Recorder* of being guilty of any eccentricity, or of having his vision blurred by prejudice or fantastic ideals, and it is he who declares in the *Forum*, that "the fundamental principle of metropolitan journalism to-day is to buy white paper at three cents a pound and sell it at ten cents a pound." He adds with equal truth: "In some quarters it does not matter how much the virgin whiteness of the paper is defiled, so long as the defilement sells the paper." Such a confession of faith from such a source is beyond dismissal as a "snarl," or as the attempt of a man, ashamed of his own profession, to vilify it, and for this reason we are thankful to Mr. Keller for having made it. His entire article, in fact, contains a realistic account of actual journalism in New York, which may be denounced as repulsive, but must be admitted to be truthful.

With like remorseless truth, and with even greater effect, does Mr. Speed in his analysis, by facts and figures, of the change which has come over New York journalism in the past twelve years, show whither the mercenary spirit is leading it. It has abdicated the function of a teacher or leader, and, having hit upon the principle of "giving the public what it wants," it has made itself more and more a purveyor of gossip and scandal. No other conclusion is possible from Mr. Speed's statistical exhibit, which shows how editorial and literary and scientific matter has declined, and how gossip and scandal have increased. It may or may not be meant as an "arraignment" of the papers to which Mr. Speed has applied his scalpel, but it is a simple fact which he states: "The gossip this year usurps the place of the literary matter printed in 1881, and articles about crimes and criminals take the places formerly occupied by religious and scientific matter."

He makes another important point, which we have independent evidence to believe to be well taken. This is, that while New York papers have degenerated, Western papers, particularly Chicago papers, have improved. He states it as a fact within his own knowledge that Chicago editors often consider as unfit for publication lurid stories of crimes and scandals telegraphed them from New York from the columns of some great metropolitan daily. Our own experience corroborates to a certain extent what Mr. Speed says when he refers to "those mistaken persons in the East who have believed, without knowing exactly why, that everything in Chicago was more vulgar and more coarse than anywhere else." He adds:

> "It must not be understood that the claim is here made that the Chicago papers are models of propriety and good taste. In my opinion, they are nothing of the kind. They are not even so good as the New York papers of twelve years ago; but they are very much nicer and cleaner than the Chicago papers of that time or than the New York papers of to-day. So, while there has been a distinct deterioration and decadence in the New York newspaper press in the last dozen years, the improvement in Chicago has been steady and noteworthy, and this notwithstanding the introduction and general adoption there of the illustrations that do not illustrate."

This throws needed light upon Mr. Keller's elegant allusion to the "mind" we have seen in the past decade "loom up from the Western horizon and revolutionize metropolitan journalism." That "mind," in other words, brought to New York a vulgar standard which was then current and popular in the West, but which the West has since grown ashamed of and tried to improve. While the standard was thus being repudiated in the place of its origin, it was being embraced in New York as the final and glorious flower of newspaper development, and instead of being improved has been steadily degraded and made worse than its original model. It is as if New York society had gone mad over the manners and costume of a cow-boy, who came to it fresh from the prairies, and had taken to wearing its own trousers in its boots and to letting its hair grow long and greasy, and to spitting tobacco juice in the parlor and riding bronchos down Fifth Avenue, and then had denied that it was acting like a cow-boy, and professed to be exemplifying the ripest fruits of civilization. Meanwhile, the people on the plains, where the captivating cow-boy came from, have really made some advance in civilization, have thrown away their cow-hide boots and cut their hair and washed up in part, leaving it more

and more to be the fact that the commercial and literary capital of the country should take the lead in that exploitation of crime and indecency, and those exhibitions of bad taste and worse manners, which are miscalled journalism.

### *FRUITS OF FRENCH REALISM.*

THE weightiest and most instructive comment we have seen on the recent disorders in Paris, especially upon the outbreak of the students from which the more serious troubles grew, is from the pen of M. Ernest Lavisse. His name is a sufficient guarantee of a thoroughly frank and serious and intelligent discussion of the question which he sets himself to answer, and which is, "Is it just that the young men of the schools should get a bad reputation from the troubles which have just ended, and are older men right in concluding that the youth of the present day are rotten?"

He begins by an impartial setting forth of the facts. M. Bérenger, one of the most honorable and respectable men living, as M. Lavisse calls him, had set on foot a league for the suppression of vice, and was moving, in particular, against the public display of indecent pictures and books. This seemed vastly amusing to certain spirits in the Latin Quarter, and it was as a sort of huge caricature of this excellent reformer that the famous ball was organized where such indecencies were planned and perpetrated that the police had to interfere. Then came the death of Nuger and the intense exasperation of the students against the police, against whom they had borne a grudge ever since the needless severities inflicted upon their class at the time of the Boulanger riots in Paris. Thus the indecent ball, which was the cause of all, was immediately and totally forgotten in the disturbances which came to such head as to threaten the very existence of the Ministry.

Taking up the question of the causes which have made such shameless exhibitions and approval of immorality possible by those in the morning of their days, M. Lavisse asserts that the young men of modern France are in danger of being made blind to all moral distinctions by "the immorality in literature." What is the cause, he asks men of fifty, of the great difference, in point of delicacy, not to say decency, in sexual matters, between the young men of the present generation and their fathers? For answer, he asks them to compare the literature of their youth with that of to-day. They could remember when 'Madame Bovary' was in court on the charge of indecency, but 'Le Docteur Pascal' goes unchallenged now. They would recall the sensation which the mild indecencies of the *Vie Parisienne* of their youth excited; the unspeakable performances of that journal at the present day are only laughed at. They could remember the sedateness of the news-stands and book-stalls thirty years ago; what kind of engravings and what sort of books do they see displayed to-day? They could recall the dubious stories which they used to read in secret; how much worse were the novels now lying openly on the desks of men and on the tables of women!

"Beyond all question," says M. Lavisse, in words which ought to be printed in capitals and posted in every place where pornographic books and papers are put on sale—"beyond all question, this literature makes its victims. It works havoc among the young, who are wearied with the monotony of school life, and who rush out, the moment they are free, in pursuit of those perilous enjoyments which thrust themselves forward at every street-corner, in every wine-room, under the eye of an indifferent police. It does worse: it destroys all freshness of feeling, it corrupts love at its very awakening, and makes a curse of it. It makes woman a vile thing. It is criminally ignoble." It needed not a man to rise from the dead to tell us this, but it is something to have one of M. Lavisse's standing in his own country and out of it avow the truth in this fashion. The fact must be as he states it. Human nature being what it is, psychology and physiology being what they are, the "grossness of the naturalists and the subtleties of the pornographists," to use the words of M. Lavisse, cannot have any other result. The inherited wisdom and experience of all nations must be at fault if the habitual contact of young natures with such a literature does not produce in them something of its own putridity.

But how far has this process of corruption gone in France? Is it, as M. Lavisse asks, the whole body of youth, all of the more than 10,000 students in Paris, who are responsible for the shameless worship of what Matthew Arnold called "the great goddess Lubricity"? No, he answers, and on this point his testimony is doubtless as authoritative as on the other. It is only "the phenomenon of the scum" that was seen in Paris, he assures us.

> "I owe my testimony of regard to a great many young men whom I know, not vaguely, but thoroughly, from seeing their manner of life. For certain ones, for whom life is hard, without, however, impairing their energy, it is not simply regard that I profess; it is respect. I could tell a great many stories which would go far to console worthy people who are now troubled by the calumnies which are spread abroad about young men. . . . No, it is not true. I know of admirable devotion to family duties. I know of wills bent on doing right, of passionate desires to be useful, to do some good in the world, and of the noblest intellectual eagerness."

Here again our instinctive verdict is that M. Lavisse must be right. If the dissolute creatures who inaugurated the ball of the Quat'z' Arts fairly represented the educated young men of France, it would be time not merely to despair of her, but to abandon her, to draw off from her as we would from any other mass of rottenness that might burst into spontaneous combustion at any moment. That the country exists and progresses, that it enjoys as much stability as it has, and pursues art and science with the energy and success we all know of, is a proof that it is indeed a "phenomenon of the scum" which we have been witnessing. Widespread as are the sources of corruption in France, and lamentable as have been their processes and results, we are glad to believe with M. Lavisse that the fibre of the nation has not yet been seriously impaired. Admitting the worst, he says, "let us not rush to the conclusion that the mass of young men are degenerate. If I knew the age of the race, I could tell exactly when that idea was first put into circulation; but, being obliged to content myself with a vague date, I will say that it was fifty years after the appearance of the first man."

### THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.—I.

FINE ARTS: FRENCH AND AMERICAN SCULPTURE.

CHICAGO, July, 1893.

AT the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia in 1876, the United States section in the Art Building contained a heterogeneous collection of pictures, a few with good technical qualities, a good many more with interesting subjects but mediocre execution, and a great number that were simply too bad to be judged at all by the standard set by some of the other nations. Our show looked strangely provincial and amateurish beside the creditable exhibitions made by France, Great Britain, and other countries. At the Paris Universal Exposition in 1878, the American section in the fine-arts galleries consisted of one room in which was displayed a small collection of works comprising pictures by a comparatively small number of the artists at home, and a fairly representative exhibition of the work of American artists residing in Europe at that time. But this little collection, although it contained some very good work, was an unimportant, almost insignificant, part of the great art show in the Champ de Mars that year. American visitors hunted it up and looked at it, the jury of awards visited it and distributed a few medals and honorable mentions to the most prominent exhibitors, and, when the Exhibition was over, no impression had been made on the art world by the efforts of the Americans.

Eleven years afterwards, again at the Champ de Mars, when the American artists abroad had increased ten-fold in number, and almost all those who had been in Paris in 1878 had returned and settled in the United States together with a host of others who had completed their studies in the Paris and other schools in the decade between the two expositions, the United States section was one of the most interesting of all those in the vast galleries. It occupied three large rooms and overflowed in the corridors. One room contained the pictures by the artists in New York and other American cities; the other two were filled with the works of those abroad, principally in and about Paris. The collection attracted great attention; the remarkable progress shown by the American school was widely commented upon, and even not over-generous critics conceded that it was second only to the exhibition made by the French themselves in technical achievement and manifestation of artistic purpose. In so far as comparisons of one exhibition with another are valuable, it will be useful only to compare our standing in the Paris Exposition

of 1889 with what it is at the World's Fair at Chicago. Further, as France leads the world in the fine arts, the most interesting comparison will be that of the French and the Americans.

In 1889 France, with her exhibition of the work of the decade from 1878 and the splendid Retrospective Exhibition, including many of the finest works her artists had produced in the hundred years from 1789, was so far in the lead that the United States, while second, was a long way behind. The French collection, too, most complete in all the branches of the fine arts, was by far the largest of any at the Champ de Mars. At Paris there were 5,789 works in the French section and only 572 in that of the United States. At Chicago the United States has 2,863 and France 1,198. Each nation, naturally, has made its best and most complete exhibition on its own ground. At Paris Great Britain had 552 works in all departments, Belgium 450, Italy 327, Holland 288, Denmark 248, Sweden 228, Russia 205, Spain 179, Switzerland 168, Austria 159, Norway 143, and Germany (not an official exhibition) 101. At Chicago (quoting the official catalogue issued by the World's Fair authorities), Great Britain has 1,130 works, double the number at Paris; Belgium 287, Italy 503, Holland 343, Denmark 178, Sweden 188, Russia 135, Spain 185, Austria 147, Norway 154, and Germany 849. The totals for the countries so far mentioned foot up about 1,000 more at Paris than at Chicago; but when other foreign sections are included, additions made for sub-lettering of numbers in the Chicago catalogue and the 125 numbers in the "Loan Collection of Foreign Masterpieces owned in the United States" (mostly works by French artists) taken into the account, the extent of the two exhibitions is found to be about the same. While there is nothing at Chicago to rival the Retrospective Exhibition at the Champ de Mars, and the French collection of the works of living artists is inferior in quality and much less representative than its parallel at Paris, the Chicago exhibition is probably more interesting to Americans by reason of the great excellence of the showing made by our own country. The exhibition at Chicago is not as fine as the one at Paris simply because the French exhibition is so much less complete. It is about two-thirds as good, leaving the Retrospective Exhibition out of the question. The pictures shown at Paris by such men as Dagnan-Bouveret, Cazin, Delaunay, Meissonier, Bonnat, Jules Breton, Aimé Morot, Detaille, Gervex, Carolus-Duran, Guillemet, Harpignies, Maignan, Puvis de Chavannes, and Vollon gave the French section there a character that is lacking at Chicago. In the Retrospective Exhibition, for such pictures as Corot's "Biblis," Millet's "Gleaners," and the works of Baudry, Bastien-Lepage, Bonvin, Daubigny, Troyon, Rousseau, Manet, Courbet, Fromentin, and Diaz there is no equivalent at Chicago. The Loan Collection here, though somewhat mixed, is a good and interesting one, but in no sense does it rival the famous "Retrospective" of 1889. And this disparity is not confined to the pictures. It is the same with sculpture. It is unnecessary, however, to proceed further with the comparison. Let us now consider the Chicago exhibition on its own merits.

I shall review the American and French sections first because of the preponderating importance of the French school in modern art and its great influence for good on our own artists, and because the American exhibition in general interest and, to a considerable extent, in technical achievement is the best of all those at Chicago. Before speaking of the pictures, however, it will be proper to consider the sculpture. In this the French are so far in the lead that no comparisons are possible. The United States exhibition is on the whole excellent. Some pretty bad work has been admitted by some of the juries that made the selections in the various art centres abroad and at home, but the collection shows an unexpectedly high average; and a number of fine works by well-known men that have been exhibited in New York and elsewhere at different times, now brought together, make a creditable, almost an imposing show. It is next in importance and general excellence to the French. The other nations, it may be noted here, present scarcely anything of value.

Most of the French sculpture is placed in the South Court and the Central Rotunda of the Fine Arts Building, with some selected pieces in the smaller rotunda in the East Pavilion, where the French pictures are hung. The splendid exhibition of casts of French sculpture from the eleventh to the nineteenth century, consisting of decorative forms in the shape of façades of cathedrals and châteaux and of single figures and groups, is placed in the East Court. It forms one of the best educational features at the World's Fair apart from its beauty as an exhibit, and the most generous praise is due to the French Government for sending it. Occupying a prominent place in the South Court is a group of heroic size by Bartholdi, representing "Washington and Lafayette," which, like some other patriotic figures in the American section, might well have been left out of the Exhibition, to its improvement in an artistic point of view. Another sculptor, Choppin, has sent a figure whose subject is appropriate to the occasion, a "Volunteer of 1776," but this is spirited and very good. It shows an American youth, gun in hand, and is excellent in action and vigorously modelled. It would be a first-rate thing to buy and set up in some park—a destiny which, it may be hoped, is not in store for the "Washington and Lafayette." Some of the best French sculptors are not represented at Chicago, but many of the best are, and among the finest things are the four figures by Paul Dubois for the tomb of Gen. Lamoricière. They are beautiful works from the hand of one of the greatest sculptors of our time, and only one thing is to be regretted about their exhibition here, that they cannot be seen in the architectural setting of the monument, where their fitness for their purpose could be more justly appreciated. But, detached as they are, on separate pedestals, they are nevertheless admirable in their fine dignity of pose and masterly modelling. Mercié, with his imposing group "Quand Même," symbolical figures of Alsace and a French soldier, and his lithe and graceful figure of "David the Victor"; St. Marceaux, with the mysteriously beautiful "Spirit Guarding the Secret of the Tomb"; Falguière, with "Republican France," an allegorical group, and "Diana Shooting"; Carlès, with his admirable recumbent figure of Abel; Idrac, with a lovely supple figure of Salammbô; Gaudez, with a charming conception, "The Nymph Echo"; and Michel, with the well-composed group, "The Blind Man and the Paralytic," are some of the sculptors whose names are fairly well known on this side of the Atlantic.

Then there is Frémiet, whose "Man of the Stone Age," a strange-looking creature dancing, and "Wounded Dog," are admirable from every point of view, and who also exhibits one of the finest things in the galleries, an equestrian figure of Velasquez. By some oversight or delay it has not been catalogued, but the visitor cannot miss seeing it. Horse and rider, elevated on a pedestal, occupy a commanding position in the rotunda, and the group is one of the first things to catch the eye by reason of its splendid style and imposing aspect. This great sculptor, who modelled the celebrated "Jeanne d'Arc" that stands in the Place des Pyramides in Paris, is in this work at his very best, and one can think only of the great Florentine equestrian portraits of the Renaissance in searching for its equal. From Rodin, about whose work there has been so much discussion in the past six or seven years, there is one of his figures for the eccentric group, "The Bourgeois of Calais," uncouth, realistic in the sense of portraying an ordinary type of man in tattered garments of the Middle Ages, vigorously modelled, but absolutely without *allure*, and a "Portrait of a Man." Some other work of his that was late in arriving, I was told, is shortly to be placed in the galleries. By Hannaux, who must be one of the men who have made a Paris success recently, there is a charming figure modelled with great subtlety and exceedingly graceful in line, "Phryne"; and by Barrias, who is a veteran, there is the celebrated group called "The First Burial," Adam and Eve carrying the dead body of Abel in their arms. Cain sends three strong animal subjects, of which the "Lion Strangling a Crocodile" is the most notable; and the "Danish Hound" by Lami is only less good than the "Wounded Dog" by Frémiet beside which it is placed.

Lombard's delightful figure of Diana, Verlet's "Grief of Orpheus," Chapu's "Jeanne d'Arc," Ringel d'Illzach's very modern-looking and realistic "Parisienne," and Puech's beautiful conception, "The Star," are other notable works, and in the middle of the round room in the American section stands Gérôme's "Galatea and Pygmalion," which was one of the great successes of the Champs-Élysées Salon last year. It is admirably composed, charming in sentiment, and firmly and delicately modelled. The only criticism to make on it in a technical sense is that it is a trifle rigid in line. This work is not catalogued, and its presence in the American section may be taken as a delicate compliment to the artists of the United States, for many of whom Gérôme has been instructor and counsellor.

It is unfortunate for the credit of the American exhibition of sculpture that such miserable stuff as "The Dreaming Iolanthe," "Lady Godiva," "Lady Godiva Returning," and "Vanderbilt Group," by Caroline S. Brooks, such cheap and vulgar work as "Love Knows no Caste," by Frederick E. Triebel of Florence, and such mediocrities, or worse, as John Rogers's Lincoln, "The Struggle for Work," by J. Gelert, and Thomas Ball's "Colossal Statue of Washington" were admitted; and neither the big "Buffalo Hunt," by H. K. Bush-Brown, nor the "Plaster Replica of Statue of Shakspere for Lincoln Park, Chicago," by William Ordway Partridge, will add to the reputations of the artists. Mr. Partridge, however, exhibits a number of other works, among them the excellent figure of Alexander Hamilton for the Hamilton Club of Brooklyn.

Augustus St. Gaudens and J. Q. A. Ward, the two best-known American sculptors, have no works in the exhibition, and there is nothing by Frederick MacMonnies, but the latter's great fountain in the Court of Honor in front of the Administration Building is more than enough to represent him worthily. There are

148 numbers in the sculpture group of the United States section, and, as has been said before, it is unexpectedly good in quality. Mr. French's fine "Death and the Sculptor," Mr. Adams's "Portrait Bust of a Lady" and "Primavera," Mr. Bartlett's "The Ghost Dance," "Bohemian and Bears," and "Bust of Mrs. B.," Mr. Donoghue's "Young Sophocles," Mr. Martiny's "Portrait Bust of a Child," and Mr. Warner's bust portraits and medallions, most of them familiar from having been seen in New York exhibitions, set the standard in the American galleries; and in various works by Douglas Tilden (who shows a group called "An Indian Bear Hunt," and a spirited figure, "A Baseball Player," that are very good, and a "Tired Boxer" that is less successful), J. S. Hartley, Leonard W. Volk, F. Wellington Ruckstuhl, Thomas Shields Clarke, H. Le Grand Cannon, Theo Alice Ruggles, and Robert P. Bringhurst this high standard is more or less nearly approached. A fine work, new to us if I am not mistaken, is the bronze equestrian figure, "Signal of Peace," by C. E. Dallin, that is one of the best things shown by the Americans; and Mr. Elwell sends his bronze group of "Charles Dickens and Little Nell" which was first exhibited a year or two ago in London. The figure of the little girl is especially good in this, but Mr. Elwell's other exhibit, which he calls "Intellect Dominating Brute Force, or Diana and the Lion," a group in marble, is better than anything he has yet produced. The nude figure of Diana is modelled with firmness and with a delicate and nervous touch, a lack of character in the head being almost its only shortcoming; and the group is dignified and graceful in composition. Mr. Kemeys's studies of animals, of which there are twelve, complete the list of what is best in the exhibition. It must be most gratifying to Americans to find our sculptors making such an excellent showing at Chicago. The works just enumerated, taken in connection with the decorative groups and figures on the buildings and in the grounds, of which I shall speak further on, prove that we have made as great though not as general progress in this as in painting. An exhibition of sculpture worthy of the name, such as is made by France and the United States at the World's Fair, has not been seen in our country before, and it is to be hoped that visitors will not overlook its importance.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

## THE ITALIAN FINANCIAL CRISIS.

ROME, July 13, 1893.

THE *Nation* which comes to-day has an article on the "Happy-Go-Lucky Policy," in which occurs a passage that curiously illustrates the Italian proverb, "Tutto il mondo è paese," for it exactly fits the position here, only exchanging silver for paper:

> "For what is the problem to be solved? Why, the most serious that can be set before a great commercial nation, except the means of repelling a foreign invasion. It is neither more nor less than the provision of a standard of value. We are to-day to all intents and purposes without one. That is to say, we have actually no measure by which a citizen can ascertain with accuracy what the debts due him, or the securities he holds, or the contracts he has made, will be worth in any other commodities one month or five years hence."

Italy is exactly in the position that America would be in if the unlimited silver standard were adopted, with this exception, that *you* would know that you were to be paid in silver which would be worth about 50 per cent. of the now accepted amount of the debt, etc., etc., while *we* should know that the value of our paper money would probably be about 80 per cent. of the same. Our uncertainty would probably be better than your certainty, the depreciation in both cases being in consequence of an excess of the circulating medium. But what was the most curious feature of our case was that, rather more than a year ago, with $20,000,000 more or less of silver money in the country, it was impossible to force it into circulation. No one would willingly accept it, preferring the small notes of the Government ($1 and $2), and if by chance a trader had to offer it in change, he did it with an apology, saying, "I have no notes." If Italy had not had the sentimental malady which came out in the so-called Latin Union (as if French, Spanish, Belgians, or Swiss were any more *Latin* than are the Germans or English), her silver would have stayed in the country, and still no one would have wanted it, except in the fractional coins. When gold was at par, no one wanted it, for the same reason, but it was accepted with readiness, which the five-franc piece has never been, and, except for exportation, is not now.

Silver, as a representative of value, has never been able to force its way on the Italian market; and it is not the want of it, or even of gold, for the uses of the country, that causes the present trouble, but an enormously superabundant currency which is legal tender here, but, being paper, has no definite value out of the country, just as silver would not have if we had more of it than the world had need for. If the Italian loan were an internal loan, even the superabundance of paper money would not, probably, have brought on the present crisis, which at the present moment has raised the premium on gold to 6.40 per cent., with a prospect of going still higher; for as the interest on a considerable part of it is payable abroad and in gold, a very small disturbance of the balance of trade begins a drain of gold out to pay that debt, and of course the demand increases the value. Taking into account the balance of imports and exports, Italy is about thirteen millions of pounds sterling per annum in arrear; the visitors and foreign residents who draw their incomes from abroad bring in about twenty million pounds, so that the gold balance is always in favor of Italy, and the value of the investments takes up the balance, except what may go out as dividends on shares in Italian enterprises held by foreigners, which is not much.

The cause of the grave crisis in Italy is, therefore, bad political economy, for a nation which receives more gold than it spends should grow richer and be lending instead of borrowing, and its paper should be as good as gold or as Bank of England notes. The history of the present crisis is that of the financial, and to a certain extent the political, economy of Italy since 1870. When, on the completion of Italian unity, the Government decided to abolish the legal tender which had been made obligatory by the past embarrassments of an abnormal condition, a gold loan of six hundred millions of francs was contracted for the purpose of taking up the paper, which was mostly the issue of an association of banks. The first mistake of the Government was in not making the resumption of specie payments obligatory at a certain date, and holding the banks to it, *coûte que coûte*. The second mistake was in allowing the banks to issue the paper money, instead of making it an issue of the Government—a mistake which has led to making the banks so completely the arbiters of the financial position that the Government has been controlled by the banks, instead of the banks by the Government. The resumption of specie payments has been prorogued from year to year, and we have always been in the *corso forzoso*, in spite of which, and of both blunders, the premium on gold was, two years ago, merely nominal, the amount of the paper money being not above the daily needs of the country. When, however, the great building fever broke out in Rome and other Italian cities, but especially in Rome and Naples, speculation ran away with the business community, and the amount of capital demanded for the various enterprises which were floated was beyond all that the banks could command. The then Ministry (Crispi being Premier, and Grimaldi and Giolitti in the Treasury and Finance) permitted the banks to overissue, so as to meet the demand for capital, and the Banca Romana went far beyond the permission of the Ministry even. The banks made enormous profits, and, for a time, so did the speculators; and as long as the nominal value of the assets was maintained all went swimmingly. Of course the end came to the increase of the value of the real estate on which the banks had lent their paper, and with the halt in the extension of the building operations, due to the fact that there was not population enough for the houses built, came the reaction and paralysis, with the inevitable failure and extensive bankruptcy. The market was flooded with the unsecured paper, for which no use could be found, and the Government, becoming at last alarmed at the tendency, insisted on the banks bringing up the specie reserve to the legal proportion of 40 per cent. of the paper, at the same time legalizing the extraordinary emission.

The proper course was to have compelled a contraction of the currency to the amount demanded by the usual course of affairs; but the banks are too strong for the Government, and the fear of a general bankruptcy prevented the latter from compelling the former to recall their surplus paper by selling their securities, so that, what with the influence of the banks on the Deputies, and the pressure of public opinion in favor of steps being taken to relieve the embarrassments of the speculators, the Ministry could do nothing but let matters drift. The call for gold to bring up the reserves to the legal point started the premium on gold, which has been ever since rising and menaces to go to 15 per cent. The Banca Romana, the oldest of the Roman institutions, has made a fraudulent bankruptcy, the extent of which is not yet known, but the probable amount of exposure is near one hundred millions, the entire capital of the bank being invested in property which cannot be sold, or mortgages which cannot be foreclosed for want of buyers at any price; and the Banca Nazionale is involved in the same or a similar way to double the amount of its capital and reserves, while the banks of Naples and Sicily are almost as badly off. The country is flooded with paper money, not of the Government, but of private banks, which is legal tender, though if we were to come to a peremptory solution of its value, it would be about where a silver currency in the United States would be—*i. e.*, at about 50 per cent. of the nominal value, the banks holding a little less, all told, than 40 per cent. of the amount of their notes in a three-quarter gold and one-quarter silver reserve.

We are, therefore, in the same position the silverites desire the United States to put themselves in, through the possession of a currency which would be legal tender in the country, but could not go abroad except at a discount

of about 50 per cent., simply because nobody wants paper money any more than he wants silver money, when he can get gold. The Italian public has become imbued with the idea that anything which the Government recognizes as a standard of value is sufficient for trade and commerce; it has come to the confounding of real value (or what all the world accepts as such) with credit, or tokens of value. The American public has not got so far, but the adoption of a silver standard would put the United States in the same position as Italy by establishing a forced currency of silver instead of that of paper which we have. If Italy, however, at the prices of to-day, were to declare silver its standard, it could supply the silver currency with a large profit and withdraw all the notes. But the premium on gold would rise from 7 per cent. to probably 40 per cent., for in a commercial point of view the present Italian paper is worth a larger per cent. of its nominal value than its silver currency would be, independent of the legal tender. Italy has come to grief by allowing a larger issue of money to be made than the needs of regular commerce demanded, or than could be kept in normal circulation, and the substitution of silver for the paper would not make matters better, but rather worse.

How things will end here, no one can foresee. The Government has surrendered to the banks, and the privilege of issuing the circulating medium has been confirmed to the banks for twenty years, with very slight restrictions in the conditions. As the banks will not for many years be able, even if affairs in Europe remain peaceful, to redeem their notes in gold, or sell the securities they have lent their money on, Italy will remain for that period at a disadvantage in the markets of the world, by having a currency which cannot go abroad and take the place of gold, as Bank of England or Bank of France notes do. If a great European catastrophe comes, Italy must suspend payments, and if a great epidemic should cut off the current of tourists from the peninsula for a year, there would be great danger of a smash. We had a splendid period of prosperity through the superabundance of paper money, which made everybody rich; we have the paper money still, but everybody has become very poor, trade and commerce are languishing, and there is great misery where there was great prosperity. We are an object-lesson.

W. J. S.

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## PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.—III.

PARIS, July 20, 1893.

PASQUIER passes very rapidly over the great military events of the Empire; he says little about the battle of Essling, the victory at Wagram. After this campaign Napoleon resolved to be divorced from Josephine, notwithstanding his great affection for her. Pasquier tells us that there was a superstitious instinct in this attachment: Napoleon believed that Josephine had something to do with his good fortune, what he called his "star." Pasquier was at Fontainebleau when Fouché took upon himself to announce Napoleon's decision to Josephine, and to obtain her consent. He was also a witness of a last soirée in which Josephine did the honors of the court.

"It was the day before the official dissolution of her marriage. There was a great throng. A supper was served, as usual, on a number of small tables. Josephine sat in the middle, and the men went round her, waiting for that graceful nod of the head which she used to make to the persons she knew. I remained a few minutes at a short distance from her, and I could not help being struck with the perfection of her attitude before all those people who still surrounded her with homages, and who knew that it was the last time—that, in an hour, she would descend from the throne and leave the palace which she would never reenter. Only women can surmount the difficulties of such a situation, but I doubt if a second one could have been found to do it with such perfect grace and measure. Napoleon's countenance was as good as that of his victim."

Pasquier was appointed Councillor of State on the 7th of February, 1810. In that capacity he took part in all the ceremonies of the marriage of Napoleon with the Archduchess Marie Louise.

"Accustomed to all the favors of fortune, Napoleon would have liked the Princess whom fortune brought to him to join to the advantages of her high birth those of an exterior at least agreeable. He mistrusted the representations which had been made to him on this score, even the portraits which had been sent to him. I have it from M. de Laborde, who accompanied the Prince of Neuchâtel to Vienna, and who returned a little before the arrival of the Empress, that he was subjected to a rather detailed interrogatory by Napoleon. This was his résumé: 'Sire, save the first look, you will be a contented husband.' This résumé was exact: the worst thing about Marie Louise was her face."

Thirteen Cardinals refused to take their places at the ceremony of the Emperor's marriage. Napoleon was much offended by their absence, which seemed a sort of protestation against his new alliance and an accusation of illegality. The Cardinals were arrested, exiled to various cities, and forbidden to wear the external marks of their dignity. Napoleon's conflict with Pope Pius VII., whom he kept prisoner, and the union of the Roman States to the French Empire, were the true reason of the attitude of the Cardinals; it must be said, however, that the Pope found means to send to the metropolitan chapter at Florence a brief in which, among his grievances against the Emperor, he spoke of the annulment of Napoleon's first marriage by the *officialité* of Paris, and declared this act irregular. "It was difficult," says Pasquier, "for a mind as suspicious as Napoleon's not to see in such an allegation a premeditated intention to contest some day the legitimacy of his children and consequently their right to the crown."

Pasquier was a very laborious Councillor of State, and, under Napoleon, the Council of State had much to do. It prepared all the laws and the minute Regulations explanatory of the new laws. Napoleon appreciated his services, without showing him any special favor, and Pasquier felt much surprise when, being one day at Fontainebleau, walking in the great gallery and waiting for the passing of the Emperor, who was going to mass, M. de Semonville whispered in his ear, "You are Prefect of Police." "For the first moment I only laughed; then I was seized with trembling, thinking that, after all, the thing was not impossible. A moment afterwards, M. de Cambacérès, approaching behind the Emperor, told me that, after the mass, I should be called into the Emperor's Cabinet and should have to take the oath as Prefect of Police." Pasquier struggled for an instant, and said to Cambacérès that he could not accept functions for which he felt himself unfit and which did not suit him. Cambacérès made him understand that it was very dangerous to go against the Emperor's wish. Pasquier entered the Emperor's room still undecided. "I represented to him that, being a stranger to all the men and the intrigues of the Revolution, I was very unfit for functions which required a profound knowledge of these antecedents." The Emperor replied that all that part of the work would remain in the department of the Duke of Rovigo; what he wished of Pasquier was to reëstablish the Prefecture of Police as a magistracy, such as existed under Sartine and Lenoir. "You have been a magistrate, and I have chosen you as such." "It was difficult," says Pasquier, "to resist such words, spoken by such a man, and an hour afterwards I took the oath."

The Duke of Rovigo was Minister of Police and Pasquier Prefect of Police; notwithstanding what Napoleon had said and wished, it was difficult always to draw the line between their attributions. There was something in the very word police, especially under an absolute government, which naturally alarmed Pasquier's friends. "I could not," he says, "conceal from myself the fact that old society ties would be sundered. Friends whose sentiments and opinions I had shared would not forgive my entering so intimately into an order of things which they had not completely accepted." Pasquier felt no drawing towards the Duke of Rovigo; he had never exchanged words with him before they dined together for the first time at the Duke of Bassano's. When he entered upon his new duties, he ascertained that the worst elements left by the Revolution had already been driven out; there were exceptions, however. One of the men of the Prefecture, who had played a very bad part during the Terror, was in direct relations with Napoleon, through Constant, the first valet of Napoleon. This man sent a bulletin every day to the Tuileries. "I could not flatter myself that the Emperor would renounce his habitual methods."

The quarrel between the Pope and Napoleon continued for several years. There was a great agitation in the Paris chapter against Cardinal Maury. At the beginning of 1811, Napoleon ordered the arrest of one of the vicar-generals of the diocese of Paris. This vicar, M. d'Astros, had among his relations M. Portalis (one of the framers of the Code Civil or Code Napoléon). Pasquier gives us a lengthy account of a scene which took place at the Council of State on the occasion of a communication which M. d'Astros had made to the Pope, who was at Savona. Asking first if M. Portalis was there, the Emperor said to him at once, in the rudest manner: "How do you dare show yourself here after the treason of which you are guilty?" Then, describing this treason, which consisted in having favored a rebellious correspondence with the Pope, with a foreign Prince, he declared that "no worse perfidy had ever been seen; that in all his lifetime he never had known one which had more revolted him, and that this perfidy came from a man who had his particular confidence. Words failed him to express his indignation."

"What I say in ten lines," says Pasquier, "was the theme of a philippic which lasted more than a quarter of an hour. As he went on, the sound of his voice, his gestures, his physiognomy assumed a more frightful character, and when he had ended everybody was dumfounded with fear and stupefaction. M. Portalis could only stammer a few words and express the conviction that he had not failed in his duties in not betraying a relation, a friend of his childhood, whom he had tried to stop in the dangerous path on which he had entered."

Pasquier, to his credit be it said, had the courage to speak and to complete the defence of Portalis. Napoleon, however, was so excited that he ordered Portalis out of the Council: "Begone, sir, and never let me see you again!" Napoleon immediately became calmer. He showed no irritation towards Pasquier. Portalis

was exiled to Aix-en-Provence. A few days afterwards, at the Emperor's levee, everybody was looking at Pasquier when Napoleon approached him. "I am afraid, Mr. Prefect of Police, you have not a very just idea of the duties of a Councillor of State. In this, as in everything, I believe that one runs very little risk of making an error when he follows the voice of his conscience." That was all; the Emperor passed on without adding a syllable, and never again alluded to the subject. Three years afterwards, when Count Molé, Minister of Justice, placed before Napoleon the nomination of Portalis as first President of the Court of Angers, Napoleon made no objection and signed without saying a word. The exile of M. Portalis was followed by numerous arrests of priests. Two cardinals were imprisoned at Vincennes. "One can say with reason that a real terror hung at that time over the clergy of France."

Pasquier enters into minute details as to the administration of the police during this period and the various reforms he effected. At the present day we cannot take much interest in all he has to say on the interior administration of the Prefecture of Police, the reorganization of the firemen of Paris, the policing of the markets, the relations of the Prefect with the Police Commissioners, the gambling-houses, etc. Pasquier is as profuse as Count Chaptal when he speaks of his special duties and occupations; but we prefer to hear what they both have to say about Napoleon.

The King of Rome was born on the 20th of March, 1811. All the court had been summoned to the Tuileries; the accouchement was very long and difficult. Dubois, the famous surgeon, had not concealed the danger from Napoleon, and had told him that there were cases where the surgeon must sacrifice the mother or the child, in order to save one or other. "Behave, sir," said Napoleon to Dubois, "as if you had to deal with the wife of a peasant." Pasquier tells us that Napoleon probably never had a happier day in his life than this 20th of March. His countenance was radiant. He himself brought the child into the room where the most important personages of his Court and of his Government were assembled. "The father had evidently replaced the Emperor. Why did this triumph of nature not last longer!" It seems to me that there is a little naïveté in this exclamation: the Emperor had as much to do as the father in the exhibition of the child. Napoleon now thought himself master of the future as much as he was of the present. The speech which he pronounced on the day of the baptism deserves to be noted: "He never pronounced a prouder speech, his most audacious encroachments were never more bluntly avowed. The annexation to the Empire of the States of the Pope, of Holland, of the Hanseatic provinces, of the Valais, were represented as necessary consequences of his policy." Speaking of the Pope, Napoleon said: "I have given to the Popes palaces in Rome and in Paris. If they have at heart the interests of Christianity, they will often sojourn in the centre of its affairs. Saint Peter preferred Rome even to the Holy Land." He announced the future defeat of England: "A *coup de tonnerre* [he was very fond of this expression] will soon put an end to affairs in the Peninsula; it will avenge Europe and Asia and put an end to the second Punic War."

The first volume of Pasquier ends at this moment, which was the climax of Napoleon's power. It will soon be followed by the others, in which we shall see the downfall of the Empire and its consequences.

# Correspondence.

## OUR CONSUL AT CHRISTIANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Gade, for twenty-four years United States Consul at Christiania, Norway, has recently, without having received official notice of any sort, learned from a chance newspaper paragraph of the appointment of his successor, a person from Dakota.

Himself a Norwegian, with an American wife and children educated in America, Mr. Gade has been peculiarly well fitted to assist and entertain Americans travelling in Norway. During a term of service which would, under any Government but our own, be in itself considered the strongest witness in his favor, he has not been content with fulfilling conscientiously the duties of his office. His beautiful country-seat, a few miles outside of Christiania, has been the scene of a lavish and devoted hospitality, extended to Americans of every degree on the simple ground of their nationality. After four and twenty years of such loving service, this faithful officer of the United States has the door of his consulate shut upon him without a word of explanation, excuse, or thanks.

Fortunately the nomination of his successor cannot be confirmed for more than a fortnight, and there is still time for reconsideration on the part of the Department of State. Will not those journals which have been the faithful upholders of Mr. Cleveland in his efforts at civil-service reform help in bringing to his attention this flagrant violation of its principles?

L. W. H.

July 23, 1893.

## A MEASURE WITH A HOLE IN IT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While we are all waiting, as well as we can, until Congress shall say to the world in plain words that the people of the United States will continue to measure values and pay debts in money as good as that of other great civilized nations, we might as well amuse ourselves by telling stories. To begin it, I send you a very short story about a milkman.

Our milkman at "The Farms" has for many years done a good business selling milk to a hundred or more families. Some time ago one of his boys punched a hole in his quart measure, and because he thought it would cost too much to have it mended by a regular tinman, he let another boy patch it up. When he got to my house this morning, he found his measure had a hole in it again. He was in an awful state of mind. He said he could not sell any milk without a measure. If he gave too little, people would not buy, and if he gave too much he should lose money. Besides, if he had to haggle over the quantity with every customer, in this hot weather, the milk would spoil before he could sell it.

I told him he ought not to have been so foolish as to keep a broken measure. But I really pitied the poor man, for he is hard-working and honest, so I said, to comfort him, "Well, your cows are not dead, nor your customers either; so if you can get a good quart measure before to-morrow, there will be little harm done, except to the poor sick children who cannot wait a day for their milk." E. W. H.

The Farms, July 31, 1893.

## SIEMERING'S WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The headline that so offends Dr. Rösing is not mine, nor have I used the words attributed to me. The context should make it plain that the expression "incongruous pile" cannot imply a want of harmony in the design of the monument, but refers to its incongruity with the aspect and architecture of the old building.

A word as to the origin of the prevailing impression that one statue was suggested by the other. At the public meeting held in the Mayor's office, to consider the question of site, a gentleman speaking for the Society of the Cincinnati volunteered the information that the Washington Monument had been designed "after" that to Frederick. Precisely what meaning he may have attached to the word "after," no one but himself can say, but the impression left upon his audience may fairly be inferred. In the same connection he referred to the similar height of the two monuments. The information was accepted as the frank avowal of a sincere, straightforward, and modest man, such as everybody who knew Prof. Siemering knew him to be. It would have seemed rather an overstrained scrupulosity had we then known that there "is nothing in the Washington Monument that resembles the other" save "the cocked hat worn by Washington and Frederick in the same way."

But unfortunately the popular prints seemed to recall, to persons familiar with it, the Frederick monument, and in the absence of any denial of the assertion of a common motive, that I am aware of, during the long period of discussion, the impression became fixed, and I for one must confess to having taken it for granted, without making sufficient investigation before rushing into print. I accept implicitly Dr. Rösing's assurance that there is no such resemblance, and beg to offer the *amende honorable*, with the expression of unfeigned regret for any injustice unwittingly done.

No one here, I may add, questions the thorough academical knowledge and technical skill that have been brought to bear upon this important work, nor does any one competent to judge doubt that, in a fitting location, its grandeur, grace of line, and justness of proportion will make it one of the wonders of America. It is gratifying to learn that the artist had thought of Fairmount Park, as a statement made at a meeting held in the Council Chamber that, having been shown a map of the city, he had approved of the State-house yard, had caused surprise and disappointment.

My only consolation for having allowed myself to be influenced by the feeling of exasperation aroused by the persistent effort to erect the monument where it would have offended the best taste and sentiment of the people, is the reflection that the words of an anonymous and ignorant writer cannot affect the verdict of posterity upon what Dr. Rösing tells us is, "in sublimity of conception, originality of composition, and perfection in all parts, to be ranked among the *chefs-d'œuvre* of all time."

Help.

Philadelphia, July 28, 1893.

## THE MOST PICTURESQUE PLACE IN THE WORLD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: From a brief newspaper notice of Mr. and Mrs. Pennell's article in the July *Century* on "The Most Picturesque Place in the World,"

I at once identified the place so mysteriously described as one very vivid in my memory of my wanderings in France many years ago, and a glance into the article and its pictures establishes this locality as without doubt the city of Le Puy in the Auvergne. The wonder is that a place made so famous by its colossal bronze statue of the Virgin, which ranks in size with the Bavaria in Munich and the Liberty of New York, the authors should have thought so unfamiliar to travellers. Its attractiveness is not at all exaggerated by the article in question; and inasmuch as the authors seem to challenge a guess at their unique problem, it can hardly be considered a breach of privacy to reveal to the public where this rare goal is to be found.—Yours very truly,

FRANK SEWALL.

COVENTRY HALL, YORK VILLAGE, MAINE.

# Notes.

ANSON D. F. RANDOLPH & CO. have nearly ready 'Shakspere's Female Characters,' by Helen Faucit (Lady Martin); 'Across France in a Caravan,' by John Wallace, with fifty illustrations; 'Where We Went Gipsying across the Sea,' by Wm. Bement Lent, in two volumes; 'Pictured Palestine,' by the Rev. H. Neill; 'Memoranda Sacra,' by Prof. J. R. Harris; 'Women's Thoughts, from Famous Women,' and 'Men's Thoughts, from American Statesmen.'

D. Appleton & Co. will issue directly 'A Truthful Woman in Southern California,' by Miss Kate Sanborn, and 'From the Five Rivers,' pictures of life in India by Mrs. F. A. Steel.

Among new editions on our table is 'A Catholic Dictionary: Containing some account of the Doctrine, Discipline, Rites, Ceremonies, Councils, and Religious Orders of the Catholic Church' (New York: Benziger Bros.). This is an English work, first published in 1883, and now revised and enlarged with American collaboration. It could not well escape being both apologetic and polemical, and Protestants may consult it profitably for its latter-day reading of such historical topics as indulgences, Inquisition, the Reformation, etc., as well as for its definitions and expositions.

Busbey's biennial 'Biographical Directory of the Railway Officials of America' is issued for the present year by the (Chicago) *Railway Age and Northwestern Railroader*. It is a strictly professional account of railway service in the most condensed form; or, if it now and again deviates a little from this purpose, as when it tells where such an official was educated, who his parents were, or whom he married, this only gives the stamp of authenticity to the data as having been furnished and revised by the subject of them. The well-printed volume consists of upwards of 400 pages octavo, and records the careers of some 4,000 individuals, all living at the time of going to press.

Another well-executed work is the 'United States Official Hotel Directory,' "for the use of commercial travellers, tourists, merchants, and the hotel fraternity" (New York: Hotel Red Book and Directory Co.). The arrangement is alphabetical by States, with information as to local population, accessibility by railway, summer and winter resorts, grade of hotel, price of board, etc. Reference by numbers is made to a very useful list of railroads and water routes, with their terminal points, in this country and in Canada. The typography is excellent.

We should count that week lost which did not produce a new guide to Chicago. Mr. John J. Flinn has subjected his 'Standard Guide' to a thorough overhauling, though it is only in its third year. In that period, he says, "our population has grown from 1,098,576 to over 1,500,000," with corresponding extension of buildings and sections. He now lays out ten daily trips in which to view the city, following these with chapters of general information and with a statistical appendix. The work has been entirely reset in small type, with a substantial reduction in the number of pages. The illustrations have been greatly multiplied rather than improved.

Mr. F. P. Kenkel, Chicago, has had the happy thought to publish 'The Story of Chicago, Told in Pictures; or, From the Log Cabin to the World's Fair." The origins of the city are very interestingly shown by the aid of old prints, and photographic process prints display very well the present features of Chicago's streets and parks. The middle period, embracing the great fire, is rather dreary, and the element of beauty enters but sparingly into the whole series of plates. The legend of the panorama may be read in English, German, and Swedish.

Percy Lindley's 'Walks in the Ardennes,' though a railroad publication, is a minute and useful guide to this part of France and as readable as may be. It is interspersed with cuts. The new edition may be had at No. 30 Fleet Street, London.

Francis Seymour Stevenson's 'Historic Personality' (Macmillan) consists of judicious little comments on the most celebrated works of biography, autobiography, diaries, memoirs, letters, table-talk, characters, etc. It is a charmingly printed book with a tasteful cover, and nice reading-matter to correspond, which nobody need fear will give him a headache by reason of the intensity of the thought.

M. Gustave Reynier has written a book on 'Thomas Corneille, sa vie et son théâtre' (Paris: Hachette), in which he endeavors to show that Thomas is unfairly overshadowed by Pierre, and that the public has not done the former full justice. M. Reynier, it is true, concedes that Thomas Corneille wrote very badly and sought immediate profit at the expense of future glory, and in doing so the author practically acknowledges the justice of the public verdict. He has made an entertaining and a useful book, to which students of seventeenth-century literature in France will be glad to refer, but he will not make any one become a devotee of Thomas Corneille, nor, spite of Nisard's authority to back him, will he induce any man of taste and judgment to prefer Thomas's "Ariane" to Racine's "Phèdre."

Amblard & Meyer have brought out, in the "Collection Lemerre Illustrée," Coppée's 'Rivales,' a story of selfish love on the part of a youthful poet, and of unselfish love on the part of two women. These Lemerre editions are excellent specimens of book-making, with their good paper, wide margins, and clear type.

In *La Réforme Sociale* for June 16, the leading article is a review, by the Comte de Bizemont, of a book entitled 'Les Grandes Compagnies de Commerce,' by M. Pierre Bonnassieux (Plon, 1892). Twenty-five years ago great chartered companies as a means of developing colonies were looked upon as an obsolete idea, worthy only of the mercantile theories of the last century. Since then we have witnessed a remarkable change. An international association of this kind founded the Congo Free State, now a purely Belgian concern; and Great Britain, Germany, and Portugal have followed in the same path. In France, though no such companies have yet been chartered, their advisability has been actively discussed, for no other Power owns so much totally undeveloped tropical land, and French private capital is cautious and unenterprising. The Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques having offered prizes for the best works on the question, M. Bonnassieux was one of the winners. He describes and discusses the great chartered companies of the past, French and foreign, and his conclusion, as well as that of his reviewer, is in favor of creating new ones, though, like Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, he regards them as only pioneers which in course of time will outlive their usefulness. The success or failure of this revived method of opening up undeveloped territories is a problem of great economic interest. While it is still too early to judge the work of the commercial companies founded in the last ten years, on the whole, the result so far is not encouraging.

The number for June 15 of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* contains an appreciative and interesting review of M. Gréard's entertaining book, 'Nos Adieux à la vieille Sorbonne' (Paris: Hachette). The famous old school of theology, which eclipsed so long the regular Faculty of Theology, has its story told sympathetically by M. Gréard, who has aimed mainly at a faithful portrayal of the spirit and life of the College from its foundation in the reign of St. Louis down to the present day. Very many students will be surprised to learn that there was much liberality of spirit in the institution, even in the days of Pascal, of Montesquieu, of Voltaire, of Rousseau. If they have not the time to read M. Gréard's book, they will get a succinct analysis of it, and, consequently, a condensed history of the Sorbonne, in M. Achille Luchaire's review.

One often experiences the discomfort of a conflict between his sympathies and his principles when he passes some pitiable specimen of the begging fraternity on the street. This is largely because any individual beggar is a mystery representing possibilities of suffering. If one knew the facts in the case, sympathy would probably be less spontaneous, but few have ever attempted a systematic study of the beggar type. There is, however, a new book just announced from Paris by M. Louis Paulian, with the title 'Paris qui mendie,' one chapter of which is published in the *Revue Bleue* of July 15. Judging from this chapter, the book must contain material fresh even to those interested in social studies. It reminds one of Montagu Williams's books, and especially of what he says in 'Round London' on "Griddlers, or street singers." M. Paulian has evidently made a careful investigation into the methods of Paris beggars, and the stories with which he enlivens his descriptions are diverting.

The French Syndicat pour la Protection de la Propriété Littéraire et Artistique presented, at the Authors' Congress lately held in Chicago, a Note on the International Copyright Act of March 3, 1891. The Syndicate's object is to point out, on behalf of French authors and artists, the imperfections and shortcomings of the act, with a view to their being remedied at a future meeting of Congress. The provisions which bear most harshly upon foreign authors and artists are those which require simultaneous publication in the two countries, and reproduction or remanufacture of the book or other work in the United States, as an essential condition of protection. The Note asks that the former provision be so amended as to allow authors or artists to make the necessary regis-

tration and deposits with United States consuls abroad instead of at Washington, and that a year be granted for this purpose. With regard to the second, the Note recommends that the provision be abrogated as of no practical benefit to American firms, and as being a serious inconvenience and needless expense not to foreign authors alone, but to the American public, which, in the end, has to bear the increased cost entailed by reproduction in this country.

The seventh number in the series of monographs entitled "North American Fauna," published by the Department of Agriculture, relates to the Death Valley Expedition. The first or narrative portion is yet to appear, but Part II. was issued on May 31. It consists of reports on the birds, reptiles, and batrachians, fishes, insects, and mollusks of the interesting region in question, as well as on the desert trees and shrubs and desert cactuses and yuccas—these last being by the director of the expedition, Dr. C. Hart Merriam. The volume closes with a list, by T. S. Palmer, of localities visited by the expedition, with altitudes and descriptive notes. There are fifteen plates, mostly botanical, and a folded map of the route of the expedition.

Two reprints from the Bulletin of the United States Fish Commission for 1893 are Prof. S. A. Forbes's preliminary report on the Aquatic Invertebrate Fauna of the Yellowstone National Park and of the Flathead Region of Montana, and Bashford Dean's report on the European Methods of Oyster-Culture. Both pamphlets are illustrated, the latter profusely from photographs, showing Italian, Dutch, Belgian, and English modes of cultivating the oyster.

The salt and gypsum industries of New York form the subject of the Bulletin of the New York State Museum for April, 1893. The text has been prepared mainly by the Assistant State Geologist, Frederick J. H. Merrill, with the aid of F. E. Englehardt for the local section on salt and of William C. Clarke for that on gypsum. A colored map shows the extensive tract embraced by these industries, and there are numerous photographic illustrations, geologic sections, etc.

A correspondent in Baltimore writes to us as follows: "In a book destined to be so widely read by foreigners as Baedeker's 'United States,' it seems worth while to point out all defects. Prof. McMaster, in the introductory historical sketch, gives Greene the credit of winning the battle at the Cowpens. This, of course, was won by Morgan."

Not long ago we commented on a prize translation of Tennyson's "Silent Voices" into Italian by the veteran Antonio Ghislanzoni, author, among divers other literary productions, of the libretto of Verdi's "Aida," in which he had the archæological assistance of Mariette Bey. His own is now among the silent voices, for the Italian press announces his death on the night of July 15–16, in or hard upon his seventieth year.

—Fiction, as might be expected, plays a prominent part in the August magazines. *Scribner's*, indeed, devotes itself entirely to the task of amusing the nomadic summer populace by such means, dropping for the nonce all matters in which serious information is of the first importance—unless we may except Julian Ralph's "catchy" account of the life of the newspaper correspondent, on whose exalted station in the modern world of society and politics he lays much stress. This profusion of stories, however, gives the contemplative reader something more than amusement when he reflects that they represent the kinds and grades of prose fiction which are supposed to meet most surely the midsummer approval of a well-bred but much-bored constituency. The method of Howells and James, it is significant, is conspicuous by its absence, and the subject of the half-a-dozen stories here presented is in each case foreign, unusual, or quaint. A fretful American woman in Florence is aghast at the unending toil and utter penury of a family of Italian artisans, charmed at the quaintness of speech which she finds in their every-day language, and deeply moved by their willing self-sacrifice. A gambler and a variety actress, each masquerading in the hope of making a rich match and leading a new life, fail tragically in their purposes. A dear old granny at the poor-farm, her pocket filled by an unexpected legacy, steals away to the Centennial, and tastes cosmopolitan delights which she had all her life vainly longed for. Fanatic meets fanatic in a remote country district when war wrought enthusiasts to their highest. On a sinking ship the rich maiden confesses, unasked, the love she bears her penniless lover. Evidently romanticism, in forms however widely diverse, still holds the field, and the "truthful" study of the real world about us cannot yet be relied on for amusement in dog-days.

—In *Harper's*, on the other hand, the trend of fiction seems at first slightly less towards studies in out-of-the-way corners of the world and of life, as a means of amusement, and more towards the common ground of familiar experience. A young man about to topple over into indolence and vice is brought back to strenuousness by the very forces that might have fed his laxity; in a florist's shop the rambling conversation of chance purchasers builds up a little plot in which love and death and an afternoon tea are not unnaturally commingled; and two young artists fall in love with perfect ease and with no hint of high tragedy past or to follow. But even here the contrary influence is plainly visible. The gentleman's son loves the prize-fighter's daughter; the Philistine business man is really a hero; witchcraft and vulgar superstition play their horrid parts; and the snobbish wife, who, in serio-comic fashion, despises her husband's peasant mother, is thwarted by heaven-sent means. On the whole, one cannot escape from the conclusion that we are as a people adjudged by the magazine editors not yet ripe, at least in summer-time, for the realism by virtue of which we look seriously and without extravagance at the world that, commonplace or extraordinary, falls fully within the limits of our human and national experience. The more serious articles in the number are all of interest, especially that which recommends to the attention of the Society for Psychical Research the Cock Lane ghost of 1762, about the fraudulence of whose proceedings Dr. Johnson was so vehement; and Mr. Platt's notes on Italian Renaissance gardens, which he thinks may prove useful models in certain portions of our country.

—The August *Atlantic* does not tempt the languor of its summer readers by an excess of fiction. On the contrary, its somewhat old-fashioned solidity of contents is perhaps more than ordinarily apparent. Senator Dawes describes the flippant lightness with which the grave situation of the winter of 1860–'1 was regarded at Washington; the study of Petrarch's correspondence is continued; and other articles deal with the religious and philosophical teachings of the Upanishads—which, the author thinks, lie in the highest planes of thought which the human mind has ever reached—and with the lives of Miss Clough, first principal of Newnham College, and Jonathan Belcher, Governor of Massachusetts from 1730 to 1741. Most worthy of discussion, however, is Prof. Shaler's statement of the relations between academic and technical instruction, and his proposition that isolated technological institutions run great risks of extinction and would do well to seek shelter under the wings of existing universities. It might be argued, on the contrary, that the rapid growth of scientific education does not forbid the surmise that fifty years hence some one may write patronizingly of the advantages colleges might obtain by putting themselves under the protection of technical schools. Even now what might not one of our typical colleges, with its wandering bands of athletes and minstrels, with club life and social life in the ascendency, gain by association with a large engineering school, where constant industry and almost exclusive devotion to routine work are the sole measure of a student's success? And how might not many an introspective and dilettante young collegian of to-day profit by the proximity of a thousand earnest young fellows, already grappling with the difficulties and duties of their unpedantic professions?

—An engraving of Phillips Brooks's familiar and noble face forms the preface to the *Century* for August, and is followed by a collection of a dozen of his letters to his little nieces, written from various parts of Europe and the East. Better children's letters could scarcely be imagined, and they bear witness again to his wonderful power of adapting himself to the point of view of any reader or hearer who could be reached rather by love and human sympathy than by learning or power of logic. Of other famous Americans we get a glimpse in Mr. Stillman's description of a camping-party in the Adirondacks in 1858, of which Lowell, Emerson, Agassiz, and Dr. Jeffries Wyman were members, and of which Emerson recorded his impressions in "The Adirondacks." In the rest of the number the interest centres on foreign rather than on American subjects. An unusually fortunate and venturesome traveller draws a striking picture of Fez, and Jonas Stadling continues an account of the charitable work of the Tolstois in the famine-stricken provinces of Russia, which chills the blood with its evidently veracious details of heartrending scenes of destitution, disease, and death. In another thoughtful letter from Japan, Mr. La Farge describes the majestic statue of Buddha at Kamakura, and Mr. Fenollosa gives a more than usually lucid exposition of contemporary Japanese art, with illustrations from notable paintings and pieces of carving at the World's Fair. Another article is devoted to the etchings of Anders Zorn. The most interesting—on other than artistic grounds—of those reproduced is that of Renan, done in the great man's own study not long before his death, and noteworthy as making him appear the thorough idealist he was.

—Every word of *Mélusine* for May-June is from the indefatigable pen of the editor, M. Henri Gaidoz. His chief article, on "Le Grand Diable d'Argent, patron de la Finance," repeats a service he has recently rendered by tracking one of the colored broadsides sold by colporteurs among the common people of France to its origin in the middle ages or in classical or pre-classical antiquity. The one bearing the above title is, M. Gaidoz thinks,

probably the last of its kind, the illustrated newspaper having undermined the business; but he was able to procure it of the manufacturers, the Maison Pellerin at Épinal. It represents a winged and horned devil with a flowing cloak, mounted upon a sort of altar, and showering money from his hands, his purse, and his hind parts upon types of his favorites—the pastry-cook, the tapster, the baker, the *procureur*, the courtesan. The artist and a vast crowd behind hold the Money Devil by his tail—and get nothing; whence, says M. Gaidoz, the expression "tirer le diable par la queue," meaning 'to be in want.' An old print in the Bibliothèque Nationale, reproduced by *Mélusine*, shows the same allegory, with accompanying verses. Our modern broadside, too, has its verses, but they are older than the design, for there are references to figures which have been eliminated from the picture in the process of counterfeiting earlier designs. A nearer original (pictorially speaking) is the Glémaric print copied from Champfleury, an artistic arrangement of the leading personages enumerated above, with the addition of the poet and the artist among the tail-bearers. Nothing is more interesting than a comparison of this drawing, which dates from the seventeenth century, with the broadside evolved from it say about 1850. The tailor finds a place in neither except in the verse of the broadside; well, M. Gaidoz traces him to a Chartres broadside of the beginning of the present century as described by M. Garnier. Quite another and ancient design is that of the Money Devil, built of coins, in his stronghold, being aimed at by men with all sorts of weapons; and this is echoed in some Belgian and French leaden tokens of the sixteenth century. M. Gaidoz then transports us to a Pompeian mural painting, showing Mercury flitting over the land with purse extended, and, in brief, by text and pictures, connects him closely with the later Money Devil—the superseded pagan gods, he says, having been allowed by Christianity to exist as devils: "for what is more orthodox than the Devil? He is as orthodox as God himself." The whole study is a very brilliant one.

—Sectional sentiment, as well as the stamp of the times, can be discerned in the resolutions whereby two Southern State Universities have decided to admit women. The Board of Trustees of the University of Alabama have resolved that "Young women of not less than eighteen years of age, of good character and antecedents, who are able to stand the necessary examinations, be admitted to the Sophomore class or any higher class of this University, provided that suitable homes and protection have been provided for them, under such rules and regulations as may be prescribed by the President in consultation with the Faculty." This action has met with such unqualified general approval that the Faculty is not expected to make any invidious distinction on account of sex. Almost contemporaneously with the above comes an official announcement from Knoxville that the University of Tennessee "declares its intention to admit women hereafter, of the full age of seventeen years, to all benefits and privileges of this institution." Women properly recommended as to character may enter all the departments, hold the State scholarships, and enjoy all other privileges under the same regulations as men, with the following exceptions: as the University has no suitable dormitories for women, they will not be allowed to live on the grounds, except in the families of the Faculty, but the Dean will provide a list of approved private families where women can board at moderate rates. "Separate homes will be found for male and female students." An association of ladies in Knoxville has undertaken to raise money for a woman's building at the University, but in the meantime the Trustees have set apart a house conveniently situated for the exclusive use of women students, and have directed that it be arranged with "a parlor, study-hall, music-room, literary society hall, and toilet rooms." Qualified women can enter the University and take advanced or special courses. This new departure of the University of Tennessee, in connection with the new State law of 1893, which provides a broad and liberal scheme of State scholarships, will doubtless furnish a healthy stimulus to female secondary education in Tennessee. While the new code of Mississippi authorizes the admission of women to the State University, it is an open secret that the Board of Visitors of the University of Virginia have before them the recommendation of a majority of the Faculty, that women be admitted to this conservative institution of learning. The Board, at a special meeting (July 20), ventured so far as to refer the vexed question back to the Faculty, with a request that they present a suitable plan "for recognizing the rights of women to higher education, . . . in accordance with the teaching plan of their University."

—We are late in taking up vol. i. of Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's 'Writings of Thomas Jefferson' (Putnams), an edition which is to rank on the shelf beside the Washington, Franklin, Hamilton, and Jay published by the same firm, and which, from present appearances, will endure comparison with any of them. Mr. Ford's sources, in addition to the well-used Jefferson MSS. in the Department of State, have been documents in the hands of Jefferson's descendants, the Virginia archives, the papers of the Continental Congress, the private papers of Washington and other Revolutionary writers, the files of the French Foreign Office, etc., etc. Mr. Ford introduces his compilation with a summary view of the paradoxical features of Jefferson's opinions and career, a bibliography, and a minute itinerary and chronology for the period covered by the present volume (1743–1745)—a very useful apparatus. The Autobiography of 1821 is given verbatim, and is annotated in a careful and scholarly manner, with candid corrections of the errors in an old man's recollection. Thus, Jefferson's imagining that he had led off in an attempt to prohibit the further importation of slaves into Virginia is shown conclusively to have been mistaken. Mr. Ford also discusses anew, and again conclusively, the question whether the Declaration of Independence was actually subscribed on July 4 or on any one day. The 'Ana' follows the Autobiography, and then we have the Correspondence, beginning with the youthful letters of 1760, and interspersed chronologically with Jefferson's essays, political resolutions and addresses, reports, declarations, legal arguments, and even advertisements, with ingenious presentation of rough drafts. There is not much else to remark on this stage of the work, but we may quote the sentiment of John Adams regarding the election of Senators (p. 277): "That he thought our Senate as well constituted as it could have been, being chosen by the legislatures, for if these could not support them, he did not know what could do it; that perhaps it might have been as well for them to be chosen by the States at large, as that would insure a choice of distinguished men, since none but such could be known to a whole people." But how could Adams have foreseen that "choice" would in the end be denied to the "whole people" except as Hobson's choice or a choice between evils—nomination and selection having been completely taken away from the electors by interested partisanship?

## GEN. ANTHONY WAYNE.—II.

*Major-General Wayne* and the Pennsylvania Line in the Continental Army. By Charles J. Stillé, President of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1893.

It seems to Dr. Stillé that something like mildew has fallen on the names of once illustrious Pennsylvanians who bore a leading part in the formative periods of our pre-Revolutionary and Revolutionary history. In an earlier volume, reviewed in these columns, he sought to recover for John Dickinson's civil fame the heritage of which it had been defrauded; and in the volume before us he seeks to recapitulate a "lost," or at least a "neglected, chapter" in the military history of the country, for the sake of doing something like adequate justice to "the achievements of a most distinguished soldier of Pennsylvania." So far from reproaching the author with too much zeal in the discharge of his pious office, we can only wish that he had been still more industrious in scraping lichen from the tombstone of a neglected but unforgotten worthy.

Dr. Stillé sees plainly enough why it was that the "sudden making of splendid names" was arrested in Pennsylvania at the dawn of American Independence. "It should never be forgotten," he says, "that during the Revolutionary war the struggle [in Pennsylvania] was not merely between the rulers of Pennsylvania and the open enemy, the British Army, but also between them and the fierce opposition of a powerful party in their own State." And so it came to pass, he adds, that "Pennsylvania fought in the Revolution like a man with one arm tied behind his back." Even the Declaration of Independence "was looked upon by many at the time as a party triumph, and was followed up here, as nowhere else, by measures that drove from the public service many men of the highest character who had up to that time been regarded as the foremost patriots of the State." Where this dissidence did not drive men from the public service, it threw their names into dim eclipse from which they never emerged.

Dr. Stillé makes no concealment of the fact that his sympathies are with the Pennsylvanian cause that was conquered in the civic feud of that time. He thinks it was hardly to be expected that the "men of high social position who had belonged to the governing class under the old régime in Pennsylvania should give up their control without a fierce struggle." They had their reasons for sneering at the Revolutionary Constitution of that State as "the work of the radical mob." It was no secret at the time that the well-known resolution of May 10, 1776 (declaring that "each one of the United Colonies, where no government sufficient to the exigencies of their affairs had as yet been established, should adopt such government as would, in the opinion of the representatives of the people, best conduce to the happiness and safety of their constituents in particular and of America in general") was pressed in the Continental Congress by John Adams and his coadjutors for the express purpose of forcing the hands of the Pennsylvania Assembly and of making independence a civil

necessity. That resolution marks the watershed of our Revolutionary politics. It virtually proclaimed the *déchéance* of the Pennsylvania Assembly, and the "patriots" of the State took the Congress at its word more literally and precipitately, perhaps, than was either expected or desired. It was said at the time, with much iteration of phrase, that "the proprietary gentlemen" were more solicitous to keep the scabbards of their swords unsoiled than to wield their swords in a battle *à outrance* for the rights of the colonies. The "proprietary gentlemen" (at least those of them who were real patriots and not Loyalists in disguise) rejoined, on the other hand, that it was precisely because they wished to keep their swords sharp and bright for the impending fray that they were unwilling to throw away the scabbard of the Constitution in which their swords were sheathed.

We cannot now translate these rhetorical metaphors into the cold historic facts which they were meant to subtend. The only thing not open to debate in the whole political situation of Pennsylvania at this crisis is the bitter moral which that situation points against too much vacillation in a time of revolution, and against the over-conservatism which leads on to revolutionary radicalism. Goethe has pointed for us the same useful moral in that idyll of a troubled epoch in the border wars of the French Revolution, his 'Hermann und Dorothea,' where he says that

> "The man who wavers in a wavering time
> Does but augment the evil which he fears,
> And wider, wider makes it spread."

The "proprietary gentlemen" sought too sedulously to restrain and moderate the rising tide of the popular revolt, until at last the tide, incapable of control, swept away the dikes of the old Constitution. Whether in all this we should see, with John Dickinson, the *civium ardor prava jubentium*, or, with John Adams, the irregular but righteous overthrow of "cowardice and Toryism," will remain matter of opinion among men of equal candor and intelligence, according to the varying weights they may give to the elements involved in their calculus of historical probabilities.

Aside from disputed questions of this kind, which have shaded the fame of others in Pennsylvania, it will be cheerfully conceded by every candid reader that Dr. Stillé has established the claim of Gen. Wayne to a higher repute for military capacity than it has been common to ascribe to him. It is abundantly shown that Washington reposed confidence in his military insight and discretion, as well as in the *élan* with which he "stepped among the first for glory," to use one of his own favorite expressions. The epithet of "Mad Anthony," it seems, was not attached to him till late in the war, and originated from the random and misunderstood remark of a camp-follower, "subject to fits of insanity." Dr. Stillé thinks that the way in which the sobriquet adhered to his name "is a curious illustration of the manner in which certain nicknames become fastened upon illustrious personages." But such military nicknames as the "Iron Duke," "Marshal Vorwärts," "Rough and Ready," "Stonewall" Jackson, carry with them their own explanation. When the Indians of the Northwest gave to Wayne the nickname of *Sukachgook*, "the Blacksnake," they meant to point the secrecy and celerity of his movements and the tenacity with which he wound his military coils around his Indian foe. It is not so certain, then, it seems to us, that there was nothing in the psychology of Wayne which lent itself to such fantastic characterization. It is admitted by his biographer that he had his weaknesses. He was "constitutionally vain." He had that perfervid genius which wreaks itself on expression. "He was somewhat addicted," says Graydon, "to the vaunting style of Marshal Villars." He was as irascible and *pundonoroso* as a Spanish grandee. A certain devil-may-care *insouciance* and slap-dash grandiloquence of speech crop out in his familiar letters, as being native to his mental structure and peculiar idiom. The idiosyncrasy meets us everywhere, as when he writes to his wife from Ticonderoga that he hopes soon to lead on his men "to death or glory"; or as when he writes to his brother-in-law that Ticonderoga "appeared to be the last part of the world that God had made," and that his soldiers there, "for want of other vessels," were drinking out of the skulls left on the spot by Abercrombie's men, and were "making tent pins of their shin and thigh bones"; or as when he hinted, for the benefit of Lieut.-Col. Sherman, that "he [Wayne] would put up with no man's insults," and so brought that gentleman to his marrow-bones; or as when he wrote to Major Posey that if in a certain communication he meant to intimate that he (Posey) had "supplied" at Stony Point a certain "prowess" which had been wanting in the General commanding in that exploit—"then I know that you will have candor enough to acknowledge it—not to me as your superior officer, but to me as a private gentleman *very tenacious of my honor*, which honor is now pledged to meet you *on that ground only*." *Hotspur*, though much more fastid ous, could not have been more testy in speech than was Wayne.

It would be a mistake, however, to infer, even from such expressions as these, that the military genius of Wayne was of a headlong sort, or that, as was said of the Numidian cavalry in ancient times, he was "all spur and no bridle." When duty called, he could be of "iron nerve to true occasion true," whether that occasion called him to do or to endure. It would be ridiculous to find in him all the lineaments with which Wordsworth has portrayed his "Character of the Happy Warrior," and we must take the liberty of thinking that Dr. Stillé deals in gold-leaf rather than in the beaten gold of the sanctuary when he says that, after Wayne's campaign in Georgia, "he was no longer spoken of as 'Mad Anthony,' for his achievements made him worthy to rank as a strategist with Turenne or the Duke of Marlborough." If something is due to the loyalties of biography, something is also due to the perspectives of history.

We have left ourselves no space for the review of Wayne's campaign against the Indians. But we could wish that Dr. Stillé, in tracing the nexus of historic events, had dwelt more at length on what he apparently deems an incident of the battle of Fallen Timbers, but which, in fact, proved to be the pivot of the whole subsequent transaction had with the defeated Indians. It is known that the battle was fought almost within the range of the guns of a British fort. The Indians had expected that their British allies would interpose for their succor, but though Maj. Campbell, the commander of the fort, was loud with his pen in the way of protest, he was reticent with his cannon. The Indians were moved to wrath at being left so unexpectedly in the lurch. It seemed to them an act of treachery, and, with a new love on where the old love was off, they turned to make the Treaty of Greeneville with the warrior who, as they said, "never slept," and who kept his word of promise as well as his word of threat. The story is well told in Stone's 'Life of Joseph Brant.' And besides, the study of this campaign, with a view to its place in the larger logic of events, would have thrown a clear light on what seems to Dr. Stillé so obscure, viz., why it was that the leaders in the American Revolution made such "prodigious efforts to induce the Canadians to join us in the revolt against the English Government." If the biographer had turned to the correspondence of John Adams in 1776 ('Works of John Adams,' vol. ix., p. 399), he would have found a clear exposition of the strategic value of Canada in the eyes of the Continental Congress. Under date of June 16, 1776, John Adams writes:

> "The Regulars [of the British Army], if they get full possession of that province [Canada], and the navigation of the St. Lawrence River above Deschambault, at least above the mouth of the Sorel, will have nothing to interrupt their communication with Niagara, Detroit, Michilimackinac; they will have the navigation of the five great Lakes quite as far as the Mississippi River; they will have a free communication with all the numerous tribes of Indians extended along the frontiers of all the colonies, and, by their trinkets and bribes, will induce them to take up the hatchet and spread blood and fire among the inhabitants; by which means all the frontier inhabitants will be driven in upon the middle settlements, at a time when the inhabitants of the seaports and coasts will be driven back by the British Navy. Is this picture too high-colored? Perhaps it is, but surely we must maintain our power in Canada."

It is precisely because all the expeditions against Canada had failed at the beginning of the Revolution that the campaign of Gen. Sullivan against the Six Nations and their Tory allies became a hard military necessity in 1779. And it was not until the Indian power had been effectually broken by the blow delivered on the Miami Rapids that the path of empire, leading westward, was opened to the United States. What was there accomplished in 1795, the Fathers of the Revolution had sought to secure by the occupation of Canada at the outbreak of the Revolution. Other motives there were at the bottom of the movement, but the military strategy was clear, and that strategy sets in only a clearer light the significance which should be attached to the victory of Wayne. What he had sought to accomplish at Three Rivers near the Sorel in 1776, without knowing, perhaps, the full drift of the Congressional policy, he brought to a successful close in 1795, when the drift of the American policy was no longer dark. This logic of events gives a singular unity to the military career of Wayne, and it seems a pity that Dr. Stillé should have missed it, from not perceiving the strategic position of Canada at the beginning of the Revolution.

We can, in conclusion, but hint some slight dissent from a few of Dr. Stillé's biographical appreciations. He mistakes in supposing that the murmuring letter of October 14, 1778, in which Wayne threatened to leave "the blustering field of Mars," was written only in draught and was "never sent." It was probably addressed to Gen. Charles Lee, and may be found in the papers of that officer, as published by the New York Historical Society in the "Collections" of 1873. Wayne, it is known, received a scalp-wound in the assault on Stony Point. Dr. Stillé thinks it "worth remarking that Gen. Wayne in his official report [to Washington] makes no mention of his wound." It would seem, therefore, "worth remarking" that he referred to it three or four times in a supplementary report to the President of Congress and other communications. If it was worth remarking that the House of Representatives struck out his name from the resolution of

thanks voted to the army for the victory over the Indians, it would seem worth mentioning that the Senate retained his name with honorable mention in the Address to the President, though there too an effort was made to strike it out. That the Chester County Committeeman, whose soul was vexed within him by the presence of slavery in Pennsylvania in 1775, and who wrote, when he heard in 1777 that his wife was intending to "send Rachel [a domestic slave, we suppose] to the market," that "he would not have it done for one thousand guineas," should have borrowed four thousand guineas at the end of the war in order to "stock his Georgia plantation with negroes," belongs doubtless to the "ignorance of the times," at which we must wink; but none the less must we deplore such a strange inconsistency in a Pennsylvania hero who might have learned better things from familiar association with his Quaker neighbors. The debt incurred by Wayne in "stocking his plantation with negroes" was to him the beginning of financial sorrows—from which he found relief only by abandoning the whole rice plantation which Georgia had given to him in testimony of her gratitude for deliverance from British domination.

Wayne was elected a member of the First Congress under the Constitution by a portion of the people of Georgia, but the election was unanimously vacated by Congress because of manifold informalities in the election and in the returns. Even when he was nominated by President Washington in 1792 as General-in-Chief of the Federal Army, we are told by Madison (the passage seems to have escaped the notice of Dr. Stillé) that the nomination, "it was said, went through the Senate rather against the bristles." On the whole, it would seem that Wayne carried through life what the poet calls an "importunate and heavy load," but he bore it with fortitude and he laid it off at last with the soldier's crown of rejoicing. He died on the 15th of December, 1796.

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*The Meaning and the Method of Life:* A Search for Religion in Biology. By George M. Gould, A.M., M.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893.

An accord between scientific and religious thought must come about, when it comes, chiefly by the natural, unforced development of each. We may hopefully strain all our efforts to find out the truth about special questions, but here we have to do with a great historical rearrangement of ideas, in which no single individual can count for much, and in which it is very undesirable that mere individual characters should have any influence. The most that volition can hope to accomplish is to turn the attention of scientific thinkers to those subjects of science, and the attention of religious thinkers to those aspects of religion, the study of which seems likely to moderate their antagonistic tendencies. It would seem, for example, that through biological studies science may be led to modify the existing mechanical theory of the universe, which is not at all requisite to its progress, but is merely the coloring which scientific thought acquired during the period beginning with Galileo and ending with Helmholtz's great dynamical memoir, when mechanics and allied branches of physics were the chief subjects of thought, and which in the new period that opened with Darwin is already beginning to be corrected. Many biologists are pleading to-day for the admission of genuine spontaneity. On the other hand, it would seem that studies of historical criticism, in an age in which truth can not only no longer be plugged up or stanched, but cannot be prevented from quickly filtering down from the great scholars among the clergy even to the most Philistine among the laity, must surely lead the churches to great retraction in the matter of infallibility. Now, these two things, mechanicalism and infallibilism, are the great obstacles to any common understanding between religious thinking and scientific thinking.

There is such a thing as mechanical infallibilism. Büchner's 'Kraft und Stoff' affords an example of what we mean. Scientific workers do not insist on anything as absolutely certain. There is not a more marked characteristic of the true scientific investigator than his perfect readiness to entertain any question which there is any possibility of settling by experiment. Indeed, "science" is an unfortunate designation for the department of civilized life that it denotes. It implies a body of knowledge. But it is not half so much knowledge that makes the scientific man as inquiry—the effectual wanting to know that involves the acknowledgment one does not know already. In the days of our childhood, before the present jargon came in, people talked of natural *philosophy;* and philo-sophy, or wanting to know, much better than science, describes the most precious endowment of the physicist or naturalist. But people who have learned the conclusions of the natural philosophers out of books are very proud to be called "scientists"; and a good name it is for them. They do not want to know, for they are cocksure already. We hear them reason every day as if natural selection, as the exclusive agency, not only in the development of animal and vegetable species, but of everything else, were a self-evident truth. The discovery of the conservation of energy may well be considered as the greatest achievement of natural philosophy. Yet, after all, we know nothing about it except what experience teaches us; and the experiential verifications of it, except in a few simple cases, do not attain any extraordinary degree of precision; while in regard to muscular work and brain activity there is little but analogy to lead us to think it so much as a close approximation to the truth. Every physical determination of a continuous quantity has its "probable error"; and the probable error of the equation which expresses the conservation of energy is large in comparison with those which express, for example, the three laws of motion. Nevertheless, we often find the "scientists" treating the law of the conservation of energy, in its extremest applications, the most remote from anything we can measure, as something it would be absurd to doubt. Such an opinion, which on the one hand sets up certain propositions as truth infallible and past all doubt, and which on the other hand leaves no possibility for motions not produced and completely swayed by blind mechanical force, may properly be termed mechanical infallibilism. It would seem a strange basis for any reconciliation between religion and science, being deeply hostile to the spirit of both. Yet it is upon this basis, in part at least, and by giving the name of God to an abstraction which it is not pretended has any sort of consciousness or exerts any sort of agency, that some of those who are endeavoring to bring about that reconciliation hope to effect it. Others, again, are aiming at a kind of compromise which would hamper science and mutilate religion, without at all furthering the purposes of either.

In strong contrast to all this is the genuine biologist's religion set forth by Dr. Gould in the book before us. To begin with, it is truly a religion, and no sham. Whoever believes anything like it must, no doubt, be filled with the spirit, if not of worship, yet of devotion, hearty, tender, and passionate; and for how many confessions can we say as much? Next, whether we accept the doctrine or not, we cannot but grant that it does truly spring, by methods of thought analogous to those of natural philosophy, out of observations of nature. Insisting upon the absolute distinction between living and lifeless things, Dr. Gould sees in the former an invisible Life, purposeful and intelligent. This is his god. He names him Biologos. He is a regular Aryan nature-god, very wise and clever, but existing in nature, not the creator of matter, and very far from being omnipotent.

"Every expression of Life we know shows process; difficulties unconquerable and difficulties conquerable, mastery by fate or ingenious partial conquering of fate—never a suggestion of omnipotence. The inference is quite clear, that if life were a worker in matter in all the past eternity, it would have been a more successful conqueror of it than is pathetically evident. The most patent aim of life is to win itself a home in worlds of inorganic matter, and to obtain progressive control of purely physical matter and forces. The fact that the success is only partial in our own world, that it has been attended with such difficulty and such expense (suffering, evil, death, reproduction, etc.), and that not more than two or three worlds of our solar system can possibly allow life a home in them, together with the certainty that like conditions exist everywhere else—all this points to the finiteness, if one may so speak, of God, and His struggle with adverse circumstances. But it also gives blessed reasons and incentives for sympathy with Him, and makes duty clear, unravels a thousand mysteries of our being here, makes religion a psychical as well as a biological necessity—indeed, forms the ground of an indissoluble and necessary identity of religion and biology."

Dr. Gould believes in his god without one shade of doubt, and with a fervid joy that would render his book delightful reading even if it were not filled with interesting suggestions gracefully and strikingly expressed. He really makes his doctrine decidedly attractive, at least for some of our moods. Doubtless, everybody has, at some time, envied the condition of our domestic animal pets. A mother's love is passionate, physiological, forced upon her. But a man's love for his dog is at once disinterested and voluntary. Though the dog does not reflect much, he does so enough fully to understand his relation to his master. Great comfort he takes in his master's love; but his greatest delight is in the reflection that, despite the man's incomparable and incomprehensible intelligence (of which the dog is quite aware), he is yet neither omniscient nor omnipotent, so that he, dog, is, or may be, positively helpful to the man. Now, the Biologos religion makes of a man God's dog.

It is little to say that there must be some truth in Dr. Gould's idea if there is any truth in religion; for every religion worthy the name represents a struggle between the god and some dark and baleful resistance. Faults in the theory are easily found. The first condition to which a hypothesis should conform is that it should be such that from it definite, verifiable predictions can be deduced. To deduce definite consequences from Dr. Gould's theory, it is requisite that the purpose of life should be formulated. Dr. Gould says this purpose is to conquer and govern matter. But is there no ulterior design? Is the barbaric delight in triumph all? The purpose of vitality should be discoverable by considering what growth in general, or the process of vitality, accomplishes. Certainly growth is not

mainly an operation upon something outside; it is a development of the organism itself. Whatever be its formula, it is this that describes the great struggle of the universe, and it is this that the greatest myths seek to embody. But there are besides sundry other processes which have to be considered in any full philosophical study of the question.

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*Annals of My Life.* 1847–1856. By Charles Wordsworth, D.D., D.C.L., Bishop of St. Andrews and Fellow of Winchester College. Edited by W. Earl Hodgson. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

Bishop Wordsworth's first intention was to publish his Memoirs in two volumes. Two would have been better than three, and one would have been better than two. All that is valuable in this volume and the 'Annals of My Early Life,' published a year ago, could have been compressed into a volume of half the size of this. Now another is promised detailing Dr. Wordsworth's life as Bishop of St. Andrews. The present volume was ready for the press before his death, December 5, 1892; for the next another will edit his materials, and perhaps more judiciously than he would himself have done it.

The volume before us offers much less to the general reader than the former one. It has an elaborate preface, in which the adverse critics of the previous 'Annals' are confronted with the conventional praises of critics who had perhaps kept their minds from prejudice, after the manner of Sydney Smith, by not reading the book. It also contains a lame attempt to make out some appreciable relation between the Bishop and Cardinal Newman. During the period from 1847 to 1856 Dr. Wordsworth was Warden of Trinity College at Glenalmond, Scotland, a new training school for Episcopalian boys, with ambition as much in excess of its proportions as that of the Western college of which Mr. Bryce has written, whose faculty consisted of "Mrs. Jones and myself." The charge was not a bed of roses. Dr. Wordsworth institutes a comparison between the Scotch and English boy. The Scotch boy has much less awe of his masters: one of them consulted the Doctor as to the best way of getting some good worms, as he was going fishing. Corporal punishment was administered, but the Scotch boys were squeamish about the exposure of their persons to the rod—as the English boys were not! The Bishop is at much pains to set forth the grounds of his refusal to vote for Gladstone to represent Oxford after his favoring the Roman Catholic College at Maynooth. He foresaw the beginning of the end—the disestablishment of the Irish Church. Gladstone, it will be remembered, was one of his Oxford pupils; one of a remarkable set.

Quite the most valuable part of this volume is its minute account of the circumstances of Dr. Wordsworth's election to the bishopric of St. Andrews. It is an extremely serviceable memoir for the students of ecclesiastical practices and amenities. There were seventeen electoral votes, including Dr. Wordsworth's as a presbyter of the diocese. Eight were cast for him and eight for another candidate. He decided the matter by voting for himself. Of course, he did not desire the office, but he had to be faithful to his friends, and not permit a party whose success would be injurious to the Church to triumph. Only the most inordinate vanity could set down the details of literary performance, private subscriptions, and friendly approbation that we have here. The future Thackeray or Trollope will find in this volume and in 'Annals of My Early Life' good material to work up into an ecclesiastical character.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Americans in Europe. By One of Them. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.
A Week at the Fair. Rand, McNally & Co. $2.
Archer, Thomas. The Highway of Letters and its Echoes of Famous Footsteps. London: Cassell; New York: Randolph. $2.
Baker, M. N. Sewage Purification in America. *Engineering News* Publishing Co.
Bartholow, Dr. Roberts. Cholera: Its Causes, Symptoms, Pathology and Treatment. Philadelphia: Lea Bros. & Co.
Black, H. C. Pomeroy on Water Rights. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Brontë, Charlotte. Villette. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Burton, Mrs. Isabel. The Life of Captain Sir Richard Burton. 2 vols. Appletons.
Dumas, A. Countess de Charny. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25c.
Edwords, C. E. Camp Fires of a Naturalist. D. Appleton & Co.
Fielding, Henry. Joseph Andrews. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Fuller, Anna. Pratt Portraits. Putnams. 50 cents.
Haggard, H. R. Nada the Lily. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Holt, Ben. Four Centuries After; or, How I Discovered Europe. Brentanos. $1.50.
Lane-Poole, Stanley. Aurangzib. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. Jill, a Flower Girl. Whittaker. $1.25.
Official Hotel Directory of the U. S. Robert Rutten & Son. $3.
Philips, F. C. One Never Knows. Cleveland Publishing Co.
Putnam, S. P. Pen Pictures of the World's Fair. New York: *Truth Seeker* Co. 25 cents.
Rathborne, St. George. Mynheer Joe. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Scott, E. H. Journal of the Federal Convention Kept by James Madison. Chicago: Albert, Scott & Co. $5.
Scott, Sir W. The Monastery. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Sesselberg, Martha F. In Amazon Land: Adaptations from Brazilian Writers, with Original Selections. Putnams. $1.50.
Snell, F. J. Primer of Italian Literature. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Stearns, J. N. Temperance in All Nations. Vol. I. Historical. New York: National Temperance Society. $3.
*The Monist.* Vol. III. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $3.
The Story of Chicago: From the Log Cabin to the World's Fair. Chicago: F. P. Kenkel. 60 cents.
Todd, Mrs. Marion. Railways of Europe and America; or, Government Ownership. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Treat, J. H. The Treat Family: A Genealogy of Trott, Tratt, and Treat. Salem, Mass.: Press Publishing Co.
Trotter, Capt. L. J. The Earl of Auckland. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Trowbridge, W. R. H. Gossip of the Caribbees: Sketches of Anglo-West-Indian Life. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.25.
Vought, Dr. Walter. A Chapter on Cholera for Lay Readers. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co. 75 cents.
Wetherell, J. E. Later Canadian Poems. Toronto: Copp-Clark Co.
White, Matthew, Jr. One of the Profession. Home Book Co.
Willett, J. R. Heating and Ventilation of Residences. Chicago: *Inland Architect* Press. 50 cents.
Yarrow, Mary C. Songs for the Shut-in. Whittaker. 75 cents.
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[*Continued on page* 108.]

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 10, 1893.

## The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S message is a model of sound common sense on the money question. It presents the plain truth to the two houses of Congress, and places upon them the responsibility of action for the rescue of the country from its present deep affliction. He does not mince matters at all. He tells the Senators and Representatives that the present trouble has come about from a loss of confidence in the standard of value, and that the only way to restore confidence is to assure our own people and the world in general that we intend to pay our debts now and always in the money recognized by civilized nations. If there be any chance of enthroning silver as a money metal without dethroning gold at the same time, he says that it can be done only by international action, and that such action is postponed, if not defeated, by our attempt to do the whole work ourselves. There is no suggestion of compromise in the message, no project for a substitute for the Sherman Law. On the contrary, the recommendation is for absolute repeal. The reform of the tariff is touched upon as a measure which will hereafter profitably engage the attention of Congress, but for the present the President declares the financial question paramount and above all party considerations. There is a suggestion at the close of the message that further steps may be necessary to enable the Government to keep its existing silver currency at par with gold, but there is no specific recommendation to that effect. The message as a whole is well conceived. It can hardly fail to stir the country and bring a sharp return-stroke of public opinion upon Congress.

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The canvasses of the Senate and House which the *Herald* and the *World* published on Tuesday are very reassuring. The *Herald's* canvass shows 39 Senators for unconditional repeal of the Sherman Law, 20 for conditional repeal, 14 opposed to repeal, and 10 non-committal. This is only six short of a majority for unconditional repeal. According to the same paper's canvass, the House has 137 members openly in favor of unconditional repeal, 125 in favor of conditional repeal, 24 non-committal, and 16 opposed. The *World's* canvass of the House shows 143 members in favor of unconditional repeal, 84 for conditional repeal, and 91 non-committal. This is 36 short of a majority for unconditional repeal, but it is large enough to confirm the general belief that the House will pass the repeal measure by a safe majority. The significant feature of the canvasses of both houses is the small number of those who are willing to stand openly against unconditional repeal. The weight of numbers is on the side of repeal, and as public sentiment is overwhelmingly on the same side, the inevitable tendency of the vacillating members will be in that direction.

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The bimetallists will probably be encouraged by the speech of Mr. Balfour, the Tory leader in the House of Commons, who has at last pronounced in favor of the double standard. They should bear in mind, however, that what Mr. Balfour means is international bimetallism, and that the only way to make that effective is for the United States to stop buying silver and stop trying to go it alone. All the instructed bimetallists in the world agree on this point. Gen. Francis A. Walker, President Andrews, and S. Dana Horton in this country, Mr. Balfour and Mr. Houldsworth in England, Mr. Cernuschi in France, and Mr. Allard in Belgium are all at one upon this subject. Most of them have been urging the suspension of silver purchases by the United States ever since the experiment was begun in 1878. They believe that the stoppage of silver purchases here would put a pressure on the countries of Europe—and es pecially on England—so severe that the latter country would be the first to call for an international monetary conference. It would be well worth while to try that experiment, even if there were no other reasons for repealing the Sherman Law. In no other way can the services of Mr. Balfour as an auxiliary to the silver cause be made available. If Mr. Bland and his dwindling cohorts do not pursue this policy, it is because they are not really in favor of bimetallism, but are in favor of the single standard of silver. That this is what Mr. Bland individually favors was made very clear by his sneering article in the *North American Review* a few months ago on the Brussels Conference. We observe that Mr. Bland is still confident that the Sherman Law will not be repealed unless a free-coinage bill at the ratio of 16 to 1 is passed simultaneously.

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Almost all predictions of the length of time that the existing commercial depression will continue are based on comparison with the depressed period which the country last experienced, namely, the one beginning in 1873. We have pointed out some of the differences between the conditions existing then and now, prominent among which was the great inflation of business during and immediately after the war, an inflation which finds no counterpart in recent years. Nothing can bring this out more clearly than a comparative statement of the transactions of the Clearing-house in this city, which are accessible for a long period. In 1861, the year of Lincoln's first inauguration, the clearings amounted to $5,915,742,758. In 1866 they had increased to $28,717,146,914. By 1873, the advance had gone on until the total amounted to $35,461,052,826. The effect of the hard times was shown in a reduction of these figures in 1876 to $21,597,274,247. With the return of confidence there was again an increase, and in 1881 the total amounted to $48,565,812,212. In 1885 the total ran down to $25,250,791,440, and in 1892 it had advanced again only to $36,279,905,236. We find, therefore, that, in the period from 1861 to 1873, there was an increase in the clearings amounting to about 700 per cent., while the increase in the year 1892 as compared with 1873—covering a period of almost twenty years—amounted to only 2 1-3 per cent., and is a gain of only 70 per cent. over the depressed year 1876. This comparison, after making allowance for the premium on gold in 1873, ought to go a good way towards allaying the fears of those persons who have been declaring that the country must be as long in recovering now from a "period of inflation" as it was after the collapse of 1873. It also goes a good way towards proving that what is the matter with the country now is a nervous fright, added to the natural effects of our silver legislation, and not any deep-seated disease.

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One of the earliest acts of Congress should be the passage of a law authorizing the issue of gold certificates of any denomination, from one dollar upwards. In no other way can the gold now coming to us from Europe be put into convenient form for circulation. As the law now stands, no gold certificates can be issued smaller than $20. The result is, that very few of them are ever seen except in banks or in passing from one bank to another. There never was any reason for restricting them to high denominations except in order to give the field of circulation to silver certificates. But the Treasury notes issued under the Sherman Act of 1890 are of all denominations from one dollar upwards, and these are redeemable in gold. So if there were any reason at first for giving the field of lower denominations to silver certificates, the spell has been broken. There is an additional reason for having gold certificates of small denominations, and that is to familiarize the sense of the common people with gold. Let them read the four letters composing that word on their paper currency occasionally. It will inspire confidence, and will be part of a good education.

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In no way do the three crazy Governors of the West—Waite and Pennoyer and

Lewelling—more conclusively show the nature of their lunacy than in their insistence that the "legal-tender quality" of silver dollars should be "restored." This is nothing but the "pure ignorance" of Dr. Johnson. The legal-tender quality of silver dollars does not need to be restored, as it is already established by law. If the three Governors have found anybody foolish enough to lend them money, they can pay off their debts in silver dollars with no law to hinder or make them afraid. When they say legal tender, however, they mean making fifty cents, by resolution of Congress, equal in value to one dollar. That is a kind of legal tender which never existed, as regards silver, and never will be restored.

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The result of the queer silver convention at Chicago last week was a set of resolutions which consisted mostly of preamble, the proportion of the latter to the former being about as six to one. The preamble consisted largely of falsehoods that have been many times exposed. The one relating to Ernest Seyd is repeated. This notable bimetallist is charged with the crime of bribing an American Congress to vote for monometallism. To criticise the resolutions is quite impossible. The speeches were in keeping with them. Gov. Waite of Colorado delivered his lecture on the "sea of blood," which had already accomplished such wonders in the way of closing banks in Denver. This achievement appears to have made some little impression on the Committee on Resolutions, since we find, instead of the usual demand for the abolishment of banks, a mere request that they "attend to their legitimate business," although no attempt is made to show what their legitimate business is. Their legitimate business is the payment of their depositors' checks, and they are prevented from doing so by panic-breeders of the school of Waite, Warner, and Donnelly. The effect of this Convention, so far as it has any, will probably be to hasten the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law.

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The figures concerning the values of our importations furnished by the Government during the last fiscal year, which were recently reported to be in error to the extent of $40,000,000, prove upon further investigation to be still more incorrect. Mr. Ford, the Chief of the Treasury Bureau of Statistics, now announces that the discrepancy is probably $75,000,000, the excess of the value of imports over that of exports for the last fiscal year not being $93,650,000, but only $18,000,000. The cause of the blunder was the entering of imports from countries having depreciated currencies at their value in those currencies instead of at their gold value. Prior to February, 1892, it was the practice of our consuls to issue to merchants shipping goods to this country not only a consular invoice, but also a certificate showing the gold value of the goods described in the invoice. This certificate was a convenience to the customs officers here in assessing ad-valorem duties, but as it was not necessary for that purpose in the case of goods not subject to duty or subject only to specific duty, a protest against it was finally made by an importer. The protest was referred by the Department of State to the Treasury Department, and, the Treasury reporting that, in the case of imports free of duty or subject to specific duty these certificates were not needed, the Department of State issued a circular to all consuls abolishing these "currency certificates," as they were called, in the case of all such importations. This circular was issued, it seems, in February, 1892, and the errors of the Treasury Bureau of Statistics date from that time.

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It is, of course, a gratifying thing to find that the foreign trade of the country is in a more satisfactory condition than had been supposed, and we may say at least that the blunder would have been worse had it been discovered at this time to be upon the other side. This, however, is an extremely short-sighted view to take of the matter. No one can tell how far this blunder has contributed to the alarm which has pervaded the financial world. One of the phenomena preceding the panic of 1873 was the large excess of imports over exports, and it is not to be supposed that our bankers and those of other countries disregarded the heavy adverse balance of trade. On the contrary, they watched it with the gravest concern, and it was very generally inferred from it, in connection with the gold exports, that European investors were not putting their money out in this country or were selling their American securities; the natural result of the inference being that American investors wanted to do the same thing. It was well understood that the Silver Law was a sufficient cause for the phenomena, but the excess of imports was also a sufficient cause. The elimination of the latter cause leaves the responsibility where, according to all available indications, it belongs, and adds overwhelmingly to the weight of the argument for repeal.

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The revival of talk of cholera, which seems scarcely justified by the circumstances, gives an interest to the figures concerning immigration recently published by the Bureau of Statistics. In spite of cholera, quarantine and the threatened exclusion of all immigrants, over half a million of them entered the country in the year ending June 30, 1893, to say nothing of the large number coming from or through Canada. It is true that in the previous year the number was considerably larger, 623,000, but the decrease was no more than has taken place before when no "cholera scare" existed. In 1890-'91 the figures were 560,000, in 1889-'90 they were 455,000, and in 1888-'89 nearly the same. But in 1885 '86 they were but 334,000, while in 1886-'87 they were 490,000. The cholera reduced the number of immigrants very much in September, October, and November, but after that the numbers rose until in May there came 95,000, or 3,000 more than in May of last year. The *Financial Chronicle* calls attention to the extraordinary increase in the immigration from Italy. In the year just closed there arrived 72,000 Italian immigrants, or 10,000 more than in the previous year. Prior to 1890 only 388,000 of this nationality are reported as having landed on our shores, while since that time their number has been 210,000 Much the same is true of Russia and Austria-Hungary, while from all other countries the immigration is falling off, notably so from Germany. But possibly some of the classifications would bear examination.

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The *Tribune* printed on Friday a long talk with a Tammany "collector" who frankly described the method by which the "organization" levies blackmail upon business houses and corporations in this city. The account is antecedently probable, and bears the marks of truthfulness. It is in perfect keeping with instances which have come to our own knowledge. Of course the great trouble is that no names are mentioned. The men who privately inform us of the way Tammany has compelled them to pay tribute always insist that their identity shall be concealed, lest a worse thing befall them. If men could be found courageous enough to expose the villany, there might be some hope of ending it. Now, why will not the *Tribune* help in bringing the evil out into the daylight by printing the names of some of those "Republican business men and heads of corporations" who, it says, "do not turn these collectors away empty-handed"? With its great influence with the men of its own party, and with the opportunity of striking such a blow at Tammany, it surely could find some Republican head of a corporation who would frankly tell how much he had paid, and under what circumstances, for "protection." The fact that so many men unquestionably do lie down under Tammany domination, and pay their blackmail year by year, is one of the best arguments to show that we really have as good a city government as we deserve. We reserve all our enthusiasm for Hampden fighting the ship money, and have none left to make us resist the "stand and deliver" of our own Tammany tyrants.

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The opening of the Corinth Canal, which took place on Sunday with imposing ceremonies, is one of the milestones of the world's progress. The work of cutting a passage for ships across the Corinthian

Isthmus was first undertaken by the Emperor Nero, the traces of his work being still visible when the present canal was begun on the identical site of the old one. The canal which is now open has been under construction nine years, or eleven, if we count the two years in which work was suspended by reason of the bankruptcy of the French company which first undertook it. This bankruptcy was one of the consequences of the great copper speculation headed by M. Secrétan. The copper syndicate pulled down the Comptoir d'Escompte, which pulled down the canal company. The work, after an interval of two years, was resumed by a Greek company, whose labors have now been brought to a successful close. It remains to be seen whether the canal will pay interest on its cost. All commerce passing between Adriatic ports and those of the Aegean and Black Seas, including Constantinople, will naturally use this new route, which saves about forty eight hours' steaming. Ships from Mediterranean ports farther west, which pass around the southern coast of Italy, will save only eight hours by taking the canal, but they will save some very heavy gales of wind which frequently blow around Cape Malia. The canal is really a stupendous work, for although it is only four miles long, the cutting has a depth of 265 feet at its highest point. The engineering genius of this enterprise has been the Garibaldian Gen. Stephen Türr, a native of Hungary.

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The new French tariff appears to be working much more to the gratification of protectionists than is our own, which has sadly disappointed its framers in the amount of importations which take place under it. But in France the imports, which, in the first six months of 1891 under the old tariff, were 2,292,000,000 francs, fell during the corresponding period of 1893 under increased duties to 2,049,000,000 francs. At the same time the exports rose from 1,697,000,000 francs to 1,701,000,000 francs. It is true that this is not much of a gain in exports, but a substantial check was given to the unpatriotic business of importation. Unfortunately the imports of manufactures continue to be nearly as large as before, while the diminution takes place in the food products. Then when drought comes and gives a genuine protection to agriculture by raising the prices of food, a pernicious demand for suspending the duties upon such products is raised, and the agriculturist is remorselessly exposed to foreign competition. Still, the cause of protection is strong in France, and those who remember Bastiat's celebrated petition of the chandlers and lampmakers of Paris for the exclusion of sunlight will be amused to learn that the Budget Committee in the Chamber of Deputies have approved a bounty to the producers of mineral oil from French shale, as well as a larger one to the makers of lamp-oil from colza seed.

The critical phase of the Siamese difficulty is apparently at an end. There may be squabbles about details, and the London and Paris newspapers may continue to snarl at each other for some time, but there no longer seems to be danger of serious trouble, at least for the present. The French have got much of what they wanted, the English have escaped what they most feared, and who cares for the Siamese? The whole incident is of the kind that naturally takes place every now and then between Powers with colonial aspirations; and though a good deal of bad blood has been stirred up, this would gradually disappear, and the relations would be as friendly, or as little unfriendly, as before, if there were no grounds for new incidents of the same sort. Unfortunately, there is plenty of reason to expect fresh disputes between France and England in the near future. Whoever hopes for really good feeling between the two nations must find the outlook most discouraging. Not only is the general and traditional jealousy between them still active, but all over the world their interests collide, often giving rise to questions which, if now latent, may any day become acute.

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Looking at only the chief ones, we see that in eastern Asia Bangkok will henceforth be a regular battleground of English and French diplomacy, while the efforts to tap and monopolize the trade of southern China will be increasingly vigorous. In Oceania the joint protectorate of the New Hebrides works poorly, and cannot last for ever. In America the situation in Newfoundland is slowly but surely becoming worse; on one side we have admitted hardship, on the other clear treaty rights. In the interior of Africa no attempt has yet been made to divide the Hinterland of the Gold Coast and Dahomey or the whole enormous region between Lake Chad and the Nile; the ambitions of the two claimants hopelessly conflict, and the treaties that have been concluded are interpreted in widely different ways. But it is in and about the Mediterranean that the rivalry is most intense. Great Britain looks askance at Tunis, patronizes the Italians and their fleet, and suspects French designs in Syria. France stirs up the Sultan to protest against the occupation of Egypt, to which the French seem as little likely to get reconciled as the English are to abandon it. All of these questions are difficult; many of them must be settled in some way before long; any one of them can easily become dangerous. Although the chances are greatly in favor of a peaceful solution in each particular case, their number and the repeated irritation which they will provoke justify much anxiety.

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The complete canvass of the vote cast in the recent elections of Germany leaves the Social Democrats in the lead with about 1,700,000 votes—a gain of some 300,000 over their highest previous record. The Centre party come next, casting in round numbers 1,200,000 votes, a loss of 70,000. Then come the Conservatives with 980,000, a gain of 100,000, and the National Liberals with 960,000, a loss of 200,000. The anti-Semitic vote took on enormous proportions, amounting to 340,000, a gain of 300,000. It is to be hoped that this great vote for a stupid and disgraceful prejudice is largely artificial; indeed, it was reported at the time of the elections that many voters cast their ballots for anti-Semitic candidates mainly as a means of expressing their disgust with their own parties. But we shall expect to see Ahlwardt and Stoecker pointing to the great increase in the vote of their party as their sufficient justification and endorsement. One net result of the whole campaign was still further to break up party strength into fragments, making the task of government more and more one of arranging "deals" among the almost endless political groups. This continued cleavage into smaller party sections is one of the unhealthy political developments of both France and Germany, and is something which England and the United States have happily been saved from.

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The copyright treaty which was negotiated between France and Brazil in January, 1891, has failed of ratification by the Brazilian Congress. The Brazilian newspapers, with but few exceptions, were against it, alleging various arguments in opposition to it, but scarcely concealing their single substantial argument, which was that it would compel them to give up their almost daily pillaging of French writers. The committee of Congress which brought in a report against ratifying the treaty was franker on this point, saying: "Our journalism, which is the main factor of popular instruction, would be deprived of the inexhaustible source whence it seeks the material necessary to the fulfilment of its civilizing and patriotic mission." This is a "hoight of foine language" to apply to the process of butchering French books to make a Brazilian holiday. The committee, in fact, went beyond the terms of the treaty in hand, to denounce, in general, the practice of negotiating treaties between two countries not equal in power and population. "Treaties as a rule are of advantage only to the strong nations, serving them as a pretext, thanks to the niceties of interpretation which they keep in reserve, to override the most elementary principles of international law, and to subject weak nations to humiliations." This is a curious inversion of the profound theory of international trade cherished by some of our most eminent protectionist minds, that a small country trading with a large one was sure to get rich at the latter's expense.

*THE EXTRA SESSION OF 1837.*

THE American Congress has been convened in extra session ten times since 1789, but none of these meetings on the summons of the President bears so close a resemblance to the one that began in Washington on Monday as the Congress which met on September 4, 1837. Then, as now, it was widespread financial depression which led the Executive to convoke Congress in extra session. In 1837, as in 1893, the President was reluctant to call Congress together at an unusual time; in that year, as in the present, it was only his perception that he must place the responsibility where it ultimately belonged that led to the decision to take the important step. Further, and most instructive of all, the measures which Van Buren urged upon the Twenty-fifth Congress aimed, as those now urged by Cleveland upon the Fifty-third Congress aim, at placing the currency of the country upon a stable basis, and at taking the shortest road to recovery from business stagnation by putting the standard of value beyond suspicion.

Every student of our financial history recognizes the fact that the business crash of 1837 was only the bursting of the huge bubble of inflation and speculation blown up in the previous years. Among the earliest and most vigorous prickings of that bubble was the famous specie circular of Jackson, issued on July 11, 1836, which forbade the receipt of anything but gold and silver in payment for public lands. This turned to the right about, as Benton shows, the bales of paper money which were on the eternal speculative round from the West, millions of dollars in amount, and put a depreciated stamp upon them which never could be rubbed off. Congress passed a bill to repeal, in an indirect fashion, this order, but Jackson put it in his pocket. After the expiration of his term every effort was made to get Van Buren to rescind the order, and the burden of Webster's speech in New York city on the 15th of March, 1837, was the need of putting such a pressure of public opinion upon the new President that he would recall the specie circular. This Van Buren flatly refused to do. He even went further, and ordered that all Treasury dues must be paid in gold or silver. With a firmness and clearheadedness that are his best title to fame, he resisted the wild appeals of New York bankers and business men, who protested that they were "adequate judges of all questions connected with the trade and currency of the country," and stood without wavering for hard money and a national treasury entirely independent of speculative banks.

His message to the Twenty-fifth Congress has passages in it which read as if written for the needs of the present day. "It is our duty," he said, "to provide all the remedies against a depreciated currency which the Constitution enables us to afford." He defined his course in connection with the specie orders as designed to "preserve the public faith." It was left for Congress to enact laws which would give "an effectual remedy to the citizen" against the evils of depreciated currency, which would be "at once equal in all parts of the Union and fully authorized by the Constitution." It was Van Buren's resolute advocacy of sound money in 1837, and Buchanan's imitation of his example in 1857, which settled the policy of the Democratic party for a generation, and which make its return in later years to the vomit of depreciated currency one of the marvels of political history.

It is certainly a curious thing to notice how Van Buren was denounced for favoring honest money, just as his latest successor has been. The Whigs took up the cry that the Government wished to set itself up above the people. The money of the people was not good enough for it. "Its aristocratic fingers shou'd touch only gold and silver [silver was then worth more than gold], even if in consequence the money of the people should become worthless scraps of paper." Fearful pictures were drawn of the ruin not only to prosperity but to liberty which would come from discriminating against paper. Even Clay stooped to such a characterization as this: "A Government, an official corps—the servants of the people—glittering in gold; and the people themselves, their masters, buried in ruin and surrounded with rags." But, for a true analogue of the modern shrieks from Colorado, one must turn to the speech delivered in the House by Naylor of Pennsylvania. He is evidently the oratorical and financial model which Gov. Waite has been studying. Said he:

> "My heart shudders, my blood curdles at their recommendations. In every country under heaven where such a system prevails, the people are trampled on and plundered of their rights; ground down to the very dust by the awful despotism of their rulers; bought and sold like cattle. . . . Where am I? Is it possible that here, in this mighty capital of the only free republic on earth, with the deeds, etc., . . . is it possible that we can turn back and affectionately embrace—hug to our bosoms, as jewels above all price—the barbarous institutions of the dark and benighted despotisms of the Old World?"

These lamentable cries sound silly enough to day, when we remember that the legislative proposals against which they were directed shortly became law, and worked so well that all parties acquiesced in them. The independent Treasury, with its operations conducted on a specie basis, soon ceased entirely to be a political issue. So will it be with the gold standard. After it is affirmatively established, there will be no more thought of going back to silver, or of endeavoring to ride silver and gold together, two horses going at different rates of speed in opposite directions, than there will be of going back to the mad banking and inflation and speculation of 1837.

*THE "CURRENCY FAMINE."*

WHATEVER diversities of opinion may be detected in the platforms of different parties and factions, no one can fail to be struck with the unanimity with which elasticity is desired for our currency. Upon this point the "silver lunatic" and the "gold-bug," the Populist and the capitalist are agreed, and it is not until the question how to secure this desirable quality is reached that hostile views are developed. These views vary much, but they may be arranged in two classes. In one class belong all theories that imply that elasticity is to be imparted to currency by legislation; in the other belong those that assume that elasticity will come of itself if the Legislature will not interfere.

The present situation affords much support to the contention that the ingenuity of business men is sufficient to devise ways and means for the transaction of business. The office of a currency is to effect exchanges of goods and services, although it must have a close connection with a standard of value; and what is meant by elasticity in a currency is simply the existence of such a quantity of currency so distributed as to enable exchanges to take place without much friction. Now, it is beyond question that by far the most of our exchanges are effected by a kind of currency the amount of which is wholly independent of legislation, consisting of drafts and checks and promissory notes. The precise proportion is immaterial; it may be nine-tenths, or nineteen-twentieths, or ninety-nine one-hundredths. Whatever its amount, Congress does not fix it, and could not fix it if it would. It will expand and contract in accordance with the needs of trade, and will be regulated solely by the extent to which men trust one another.

The extent to which this mutual trust prevails, however, can be materially affected by Congress, as recent events have shown. Exchanges of goods can be made by using credits, so long as no one doubts that the credits are redeemable in the standard of value. While this confidence exists it may even be possible, as was said to have happened in the case of the Bank of Amsterdam, for bank-notes to circulate when the redemption fund has disappeared. But when the Silver Act came fairly into operation, people began to doubt whether credits could be redeemed in the existing standard of value. As soon as they doubted, credits were contracted, business concerns and banks failed, thus contracting credits still more, and in order to effect the exchanges of the country it was necessary to resort to the coin-and-note currency. The less credit was used the more paper money had to be used, and as this was at the same time hoarded by the timid and held on to tenaciously by the banks, it became and still is relatively scarce. Some frightened people have locked it up, probably, in large quantities, and some cautious people feel more comfortable for having rather more of it than usual in their pocketbooks. No inconsiderable quantity has been put away by people in mode-

rate circumstances to pay their expenses to Chicago. What is, perhaps, most important, in the case of small notes, is the Western demand. Where many banks have failed, it is obvious that money must be used to do what checks did before, and the solvent banks are, of course, obliged to increase their currency reserves, especially as the time for moving the crops approaches.

Any unusual demand for any commodity desired of man, however, as it implies that an unusual profit is to be made by supplying it, stimulates human ingenuity in a hundred ways to furnish the needed supply. One device is the issue of Clearing-house certificates by the banks, and extremely creditable this device is to the intelligence and public spirit of bankers. These certificates have no legal standing as money, but they nevertheless economize the use of money. Another method now actively employed is the practical exchange of Government bonds for national bank-notes, the banks procuring these bonds by agreement with the savings banks or in other ways, and depositing them with the Treasury as security for enlarged issues. In this case it may be said that elasticity has been provided by legislation, but the point that we would make is, that the emergency brings out undeveloped possibilities not contemplated when legislation is adopted Devices of less consequence are brought out by such proposals as that made in Colorado that the State receive silver bullion in satisfaction of taxes, by the offers of enterprising shopkeepers to accept the books of savings-bank depositors in payment for goods, by the policy of the Treasury in accepting less security for Government deposits, and by the increased use of checks in making payments which would ordinarily be made in cash. Some of the large mills in New England, it is reported, are paying their hands in this way, perhaps somewhat to the inconvenience of workmen and the tradespeople with whom they deal, but obviously with an immense saving in the use of money.

But the most natural and most effective method of increasing money is simply buying it. There is no difficulty about getting all the gold we want if we are willing to pay for it. There is a good deal of rather occult ratiocination concerning what the Bank of England will permit to be done about shipping gold to this country, but there is one thing which that Bank always does, and that is, pay a gold sovereign for every pound note that is presented at its counter. Sovereigns are somewhat less valuable for our purposes than our own coins, for which the Bank may therefore charge a corresponding premium. But any one who can get English Bank notes can get gold, and any one who has wheat or cotton or pork to sell can get these notes for it if he wants them. Of course he must pay the price; but if we need gold very much here, the price is worth paying. No "currency famine," therefore, can long endure. If we cannot get notes, we can get gold, and gold is found by other civilized nations to answer the purposes which we have been brought up to think can be answered only by notes. Gold is now coming freely from other countries, and so long as it is needed it will continue to come. There is an abundant supply of gold in the world to impart to the currency of any people all the elasticity which may be required by any financial stringency or "famine."

## *ANOTHER SILVER HUMBUG EXPLODED*

DURING the past fifteen years we have been frequently told by the silverites that the Indian wheat-growers and other producers were gaining an advantage over us in the export trade by reason of the decline in silver. The theory was that the shipper of Indian produce to England, receiving his pay in gold, was enabled to buy nearly twice as many rupees, or the silver bullion of which the rupees were composed, as formerly; and that since prices of commodities had not advanced in the interior of India, he could buy nearly twice as much wheat and other exportable articles with a given amount of gold. Hence the great advantage of the Indian producer and exporter. This has been the strong point of Mr. Moreton Frewen's essays in finance. It was adopted and has been repeated by no less an authority than the *Financial Chronicle* within a month. The *Chronicle* is a little surprised that India should yield this vantage ground by demonetizing silver, but it congratulates the American farmer on his deliverance from such unfair and depressing competition.

If this were the true state of things in India, then, inasmuch as there is nothing easier for a country to do than to lower its standard of value, the wonder would be that other nations, observing the advantage that India derived from the depreciation of silver, did not hit upon the same expedient. It ought also to be a matter of astonishment that our neighbor Mexico, which has had the same advantage as India in this particular, did not find her export trade equally improved. Russia, too, has had the silver standard during the greater part of the time under consideration, but so far has not observed any increase of her exports which she could ascribe to that circumstance.

Now comes the report of the Indian Currency Committee and solves the mystery by telling us that there has been no increase of Indian exports in consequence of the decline of silver, but on the contrary that there has been a relative decrease of exports during the periods when silver was most rapidly declining, and a relative increase while it was steady in value. This is exactly what science would have taught us to expect. Science tells us that trade is most active and prosperous when the standard of value is most stable. This has been the experience of India during the period in question. We quote from the report (section 27):

"It is said that the tendency of a falling exchange is to stimulate exports; that, inasmuch as more silver, *i. e.*, a higher silver price, is received in respect of the same gold price, while wages and the other factors in the cost of production do not increase in the same proportion, production becomes more profitable, and is therefore stimulated. Assuming this to be true, the effect of each successive fall must be transitory, and can continue only until circumstances have brought about the inevitable adjustment. Although one may be inclined, regarding the matter theoretically, to accept the proposition that the suggested stimulus would be the result of a falling exchange, an examination of the statistics of exported produce does not appear to afford any substantial foundation for the view that in practice this stimulus, assuming it to have existed, has had any prevailing effect on the course of trade; on the contrary, the progress of the export trade has been less with a rapidly falling than with a steady exchange.

"For example, from 1871-72 to 1876-77 the gold value of the rupee fell constantly from 23.126d. to 20.508d., or about 11¼ per cent.; the exports of merchandise were actually less in the latter year than in the former, although in 1876-77 their rupee value exceeded by about 10 per cent. that of the exports of either 1870-71 or 1872-73. From 1878-79 to 1884-85 exchange was fairly steady, the average rates varying only between 19.961d. and 19.308d. per rupee, or about 3¼ per cent.; and during those six years the exports rose by no less than 36½ per cent. Again, between 1884-85 and 1888-89 the fall of the rupee was very rapid, from 19.308d. to 16.379d., or over 15 per cent., and the exports increased during these four years by 16½ per cent.; but in the single year 1889-90, when there was a slight improvement in the exchange, the exports increased by more than 6½ per cent.

"It is said, too, that, while a falling exchange tends to stimulate exports, there is a corresponding tendency to check imports. Here, again, statistics do not seem to show that diminished imports have been coincident with the lower exchange. Taking the same periods as before, from 1871-72 to 1876-77, when exchange fell 11¼ per cent., imports of merchandise into India increased by 17 per cent.; from 1878-79 to 1884-85, when exchange was steady, the increase of imports exceeded 47 per cent.; between 1884-85 and 1888-89, when the rupee fell about 15 per cent., the imports were augmented by nearly 25 per cent.; while in 1889-90, when exchange slightly rose, the imports were rather less than in the previous year."

The question may be asked why the results did not tally with the theory. If silver prices have not risen in the interior of India, why has not the exporter obtained the advantage? The answer is much the same as the answer to the question asked by Benjamin Franklin, Why does not a bucket of water with a fish in it weigh more than the same bucket of water without the fish? The answer is that it does weigh more by exactly the weight of the fish. Prices in the interior of India have risen. They had risen to the full height required by the decline of silver as long ago as 1887. Since that time they have risen, not, perhaps, *pari passu* with the decline of silver, but in some near proportion thereto.

India is traversed by railways in many directions, and she has among her population some of the shrewdest merchants in the world. The Parsee trader is unsurpassed in activity of body and keenness of mind. No Yankee, no Scotchman, no Greek, no Hebrew, is more alert to make a profit. To suppose that the prices of commodities in the interior of India could remain for years unaffected by the decline of silver

while such men as these were moving about the country and bidding against each other for bargains, betrays very little appreciation of the common principles of trade. It is true in India, as elsewhere, that wages do not rise in proportion to the rise in the prices of commodities. The movement is slower.

### *CIVIL SERVICE AND HOME RULE.*

It will be a useful service to the cause of civil-service reform if some of its friends will have reprinted and circulated in convenient form some portions of the debate in the Committee of the Whole of the House of Commons on clause 28 of the Home-Rule Bill. This clause contains various provisions intended to safeguard the interests of those members of the Irish civil service likely to be adversely affected by the altered conditions which the grant of home rule will involve. There is much in that discussion to remove the doubts of the well-meaning people whose faith in civil-service reform is still shaken by the stock arguments of the spoils politicians against the merit system. The objection which has more influence than any other, and therefore the one the spoilsmen never tire of repeating, is that good service and loyal coöperation cannot be expected from subordinate civil servants who do not belong to the political party of the President and his Cabinet. A great many people who do not want any offices either for themselves or their friends, and who view the scramble for office which for the last sixty-four years has accompanied every change in the Presidency, are more or less perplexed by the frequent repetition of this argument. Those who have had any opportunity to observe the practical workings of the public service know that if the politics of the subordinates have any effect at all on their efficiency, it is probable that the influence is precisely the reverse of that the spoilsmen so persistently assert, and that civil servants are found most serviceable when they do not belong to the party in power, because in such case they can rely on their efficiency alone for retention in office.

If, however, there is any place and any circumstance which would seem to make it inherently probable that the opinions of the office-holders would induce them to embarrass the administration in power, that place is Ireland, and the circumstances are those which have existed since Mr. Gladstone's Administration took office. Whatever may have been the original political opinions of the members of the Irish civil service at the time when they won their places by their success in the competitive examinations, their duties as part of the "Castle" system of alien rule in Ireland necessarily put the great majority of them in a position of active or passive opposition to the Irish Nationalists. The success of Mr. Gladstone's Government involves the triumph of their foes, and will end by placing in control over them men for whom they have been educated to feel nothing but hatred and contempt, and from whom the service of which they were a part has received little but abuse, not always merited, and never perhaps free from the exaggeration common to political attacks, and not less frequent in Ireland than in other parts of the world. If they entertain fears for their future in the event of the establishment of an Irish Parliament, their apprehensions are not unnatural. Have they, then, used their position to thwart that policy of Mr. Morley's which they so feared and disliked? He has not found the task of governing Ireland an easy one, and if some of the difficulties with which he had to contend could be laid at the door of the Unionists who so greatly predominate in the Irish civil service, there is no reason why he should not say so. Yet we find him telling the Commons: "I have received from all members of that service with whom I have had dealings treatment of the utmost consideration, though to many of them the policy with which I was associated was not altogether welcome. They have shown a Government with which they are only partially in sympathy the same loyalty and fidelity which they have shown to other governments."

Those persons and newspapers who, friendly themselves to civil-service reform, are inclined to feel that the leaders in the reform movement exaggerate the importance of the establishment and maintenance in the service of a regular system of promotion for merit, and who think that the recent tampering in some of the Washington departments with the rules governing promotions is of no special public interest, should ponder the emphatic declaration of Mr. Gladstone, made in the course of this same debate, that the "principle of promotion in the civil service is vital to the welfare of that service." Some very good reformers, who are inclined to believe that such papers as the Indianapolis *Civil Service Chronicle* go too far in their denunciation of the fundamental immorality of the whole wretched spoils system and of each and every particular spoils-mongering job, need only to read that debate through to perceive how the bare suggestion of a return to such practices as unhappily so generally prevail here, and as were formerly no less prevalent in the United Kingdom, strike people who have not had their moral perception blunted by long and close acquaintance with such methods. Every speaker, whether Liberal, Tory, Unionist, Nationalist, Parnellite, or Radical, evidently felt that to dismiss any faithful public servant because his politics did not happen to be the same as those of his superiors, would be an outrage on justice and decency.

Mr. Gladstone, in commenting upon the Unionist fears that the Irish Parliament would inaugurate that clean sweep which Mr. Wanamaker under the last Administration, like Mr. Logan Carlisle under this, apparently considered a necessary and laudable incident of every change of Federal Administration, is reported in the *Times* as follows: "He had never meant to say that there might not be persons whom a new Irish Government would desire to dismiss, but he thought he had limited himself properly when he suggested that they would probably be confined to *two or three persons*. He could not ascribe to the new Irish Government such *fatuity, such gross and wicked injustice*, as the intention, or the possibility of the intention, of its rushing into such a course of wholesale dismissal as had been suggested." The italics are ours.

Civil-service reformers in this country can afford to ignore the charge of spoilsmen that their theories are impracticable, when those theories in their utmost application are thus endorsed by the greatest living practical politician as well as statesman of the English-speaking race. Mr. Gladstone's words are all the more weighty because, for many years after he entered political life, the spoils system still flourished as rankly in England as it does now in America. In reading the debate of which his speech formed a part, it is impossible not to be reminded of that other debate a century ago, as to where, under the Federal Constitution, the power of removal from office is lodged; for it was in the course of that early discussion that James Madison declared that a President who removed a faithful official in order to make room for a political friend of his own, would be "impeachable by the House before the Senate for such an act of maladministration; for I contend that the wanton removal of a meritorious officer would subject him to impeachment and removal from his high trust." While Americans must regret that during the hundred years which have since elapsed our country has fallen so far away from Madison's standard, they can take courage in the reflection that the Prime Minister of a country in which, when Madison spoke, the misuse of patronage was probably worse than it ever has been here, can now say that for his own political friends, under circumstances of extreme provocation, to turn out of office more than an inappreciable percentage of the members of a civil service almost unanimously opposed to them in political belief, would be an act of "fatuity" and of "gross and wicked injustice."

## THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.—II.

### FINE ARTS: THE UNITED STATES SECTION.

CHICAGO, July, 1893.

The great progress made in the art of painting in the United States since 1876 is mainly due to the work accomplished by the Society of American Artists, which was founded in 1877 and includes in its membership the best men who have come from their studies abroad since that time, as well as many of those who

have taken up a permanent residence in France, England, and other European countries; and the excellence of the American exhibition of paintings at Chicago, so far as the work shown by the artists who live at home is concerned, at least, is the direct outcome of the efforts of the younger men in New York and Boston to express, with technical methods of their own, founded on the principles taught in the Paris schools, what they have seen and felt in their native surroundings. The American artists who reside abroad have sent to this exhibition some of their latest and best pictures, and these, mingled with the canvases by the men at home, not hung in separate rooms, as was the case at Paris in 1889, constitute a large part of the best work in the galleries of the American section.

Mr. John S. Sargent, who, although seven of the eight portraits he contributes were painted in the United States, may most properly be included in the foreign contingent, and Mr. Winslow Homer, who affiliates with no particular group in the home school, but is a law unto himself in technical methods and individuality of expression, carry off the honors of the exhibition. The contrast between two great painters could scarcely be more marked. Mr. Sargent, born in Florence, beginning his art studies at an early age under Carolus-Duran and in the École des Beaux-Arts in Paris, is an artist who had been thoroughly trained by academic courses before attempting to paint a picture at all, and who, as his facility increased and his artistic perception grew more personal, developed a style that is irreproachable from the technical standpoint, and marvellous in directness, simplicity, and harmony of form and color. Mr. Homer, with the slightest academical training, but endowed with a temperament that led him to see years ago what other men about him failed to see, and to persevere in his attempts to express what he felt were the great truths in nature, has progressed steadily from a tentative, somewhat uncouth, but always forcible manner in his earliest pictures, to a masterly breadth of treatment and intensely personal style that give to his later work a surpassing interest.

Of all Mr. Sargent's portraits here, the two finest are undoubtedly the "Mother and Child," a large canvas with full-length figures of a lady in black and a boy in a white sailor suit and straw hat, and the bust portrait of Mrs. Inches of Boston in a ball-gown of red velvet. The first is remarkable for its beautiful and dignified composition, for the beauty of expression in the faces of the mother and her son, the splendid swing of the brush which envelopes every part of the picture in a harmonious ensemble, and the fine general aspect of the work, with its sober color scheme of black and white. It was first exhibited at one of the autumn exhibitions of the Academy in New York three or four years ago; and while I have not seen all of Mr. Sargent's portraits since that time, I doubt whether he has done anything any better than this. Certainly no other living painter has painted a portrait any finer, in a technical sense, and none has excelled it in general quality of style and that grand air that so distinguishes the work of the masters. The portrait of Mrs. Inches, also painted some five years ago and first shown in New York, gains in beauty of tone when seen again; and, for frank, simple painting, life-like expression, and luminousness, remains one of the best portraits from the hand of any artist of our time. These two pictures are in themselves quite sufficient to place Mr. Sargent in the highest rank of modern painters, but in other works here there is much to admire and commend. The "Portrait" lent by Augustus St. Gaudens, with the seated figure of his little son and his mother seen in half-light behind him, possesses some of the qualities that make the "Mother and Child" so admirable. The large canvas, "Portrait" (No. 877), of a lady in a black satin gown, is notable for its firm, decisive modelling and the brilliancy of the flesh tones. "Portrait" (No. 882) is a picture of a young woman, in which the white drapery of the gown is delightfully painted, and "Portrait" (No. 883) is an excellent rendering of childish character in the picture of a little boy. "Portrait" (No. 880), another picture of a young woman in a white gown, is distinctly inferior to No. 882, and indeed not at all equal to Mr. Sargent's best work, and the "Portrait of Ellen Terry as Lady Macbeth" is a *tour de force* in carrying out a color scheme of blue with the artificial lighting of the stage lamps on the face and arms of the erect figure holding a crown over her head.

The subjects of Mr. Homer's pictures are various, ranging from the fantastic "Dressing for the Carnival," a party of negroes in bright colored garments—one of his earlier works and remarkable for depth of tone and unity of effect, in spite of absolute falsity in the rendering of values—to such scenes of sailor life and coast views as "Eight Bells," "Sailors Take Warning," "Lost on the Grand Banks," and "Coast in Winter." There are fifteen pictures in all, and four of them present all that is best in Mr. Homer's artistic achievement. They are "Herring Fishing," which shows two men in a boat pulling a net full of fish over the side; "Lost on the Grand Banks," in which two men are seen in a fishing dory riding the long swell-like waves of that part of the Atlantic, with all about them enveloped in the chilly, misty atmosphere; "The Fog Warning," with a man in a rowboat at sea enveloped, as in "Lost on the Grand Banks," in the gray fog; and "Eight Bells," in which two sailors in oilskins, standing by the bulwarks of a coasting vessel on a stormy day, are taking the noon-day observation at the moment when a break in the sky lets the sun shine full on the glistening decks and cordage, and lights up the white crests of the waves—all in a cold raw glare against the rolling black clouds of the sky. This brief description will suffice to show that Mr. Homer, like Millet and other great artists, finds what he most wishes to express in the simplest of subjects. There is no literary sentiment about his pictures, and no trace of extraneous motives in his presentation of the homely poetry of the life he portrays. The whole charm and power of the work lies in the artist's interpretation of what he has seen and imagined. Its force comes entirely from his unyielding individuality in saying what he feels in his own way.

There is a Whistler "cult" in Paris at the present time, and it is the fashion to accept all that he paints or has painted as the last word in what is worth doing in art. Mr. Whistler is without doubt one of the cleverest of living painters, and he has been a factor of very considerable importance in the development of the painting of to-day, especially in London, where he lived for years, pursuing his own ideals, surrounded by all that all is most commonplace and bourgeois in art. The great merit of his work has been fully recognized in Paris of late, and among the artists in New York there is the deepest admiration for his achievements. It is the knowledge of these facts that makes the exhibition of six of his canvases at Chicago on the whole a disappointment. One of them, "The Princess of the Land of Porcelain," was painted, by the way, as long ago as 1864, but this is nothing to its disadvantage except that in an exhibition thirty years afterwards we might reasonably expect to see more recent work. This picture, however, is not one to call for much comment. It is a pale, unsubstantial figure of a woman, in a Japanese gown apparently, and an arrangement of various stuffs and objects as a setting, not remarkable for any charm of color or style. "Portrait" (No. 1104) is the merest *ébauche* of the figure of a boy, lacking in form, and with red patches of color on his cheeks that by no means keep their places; and "The Fur Jacket" (No. 1101) is not much more than an *ébauche*, but, unlike the portrait of a boy, it is a charming conception, delightfully indicated and of real beauty of tone. The "Nocturne, Valparaiso," and the "Harmony in Blue and Silver," again, are suggestions, very pretty suggestions; but if we are to try to find Mr. Whistler's place in modern art, we ought to have more than that. Otherwise we must conclude that he is content with suggestions in painting, and such a conclusion is at variance with the judgment of his work in Paris, where completeness is counted as one of the chief merits in a work of art. Or the doctrine that a clever suggestion is worth as much as a completed work, a doctrine that seems to be finding not a few disciples in the New York exhibitions of late, may have invaded even Paris; but this I am much inclined to doubt. The sixth of Mr. Whistler's pictures is the well-known "The Lady with the Yellow Buskin," and here, fortunately, we have an example to which the reproach of vagueness and insincerity does not apply. The pose of the figure, the arrangement, tone, and general treatment are admirable. It is suavely painted, sober and reserved in its color scheme, and simplicity itself. The only question that arises in looking at it that is not fully met by the merit of the work is whether it was painted as a portrait or not—and this question has more to do with the work of the men who have been influenced by Mr. Whistler's methods than with this picture. The title does not allege a portrait, and in any case it is a charming picture, but its chief charm is in its treatment as a color harmony, an arrangement of blacks and grays and browns and the yellow note; the study of character has not concerned the artist, except, of course, in so far as it is expressed in the turn of the figure and the upper half of the face looking over the shoulder. But some of our painters have seemed to think that something like the way Mr. Whistler has treated this canvas is the way to paint a portrait. It is not the way, and there is a lesson to be learned here.

There are in the galleries six works by Alexander Harrison. The excellent picture of two children in a boat on a smooth-flowing river at sunset, "The Amateurs," which, together with "In Arcadia," formed part of his exhibition at Paris in 1889 and have both been seen in New York; a charming wood interior of yellowish tone, "Misty Morning"; "Marine," and "Twilight"—are five of them; and a new picture, "The Bathers," completes the list. Mr. Harrison is a painter of great ability, a hard-working searcher after truth, and an artist whose temperament is poetic and refined. None of his works in which he has treated the nude figure shows his sympathetic qualities more completely or his technical force more decisively than "In Arcadia." While the figures are not so well drawn as those in "The Bathers," "In Arcadia" quite surpasses the newer picture in the general aspect of truth to nature. It also possesses more depth and quality

of color, and is *gras* and painted with a full brush, while the other, especially in the water, is dry and thin. But I mean this in a comparative sense only. If "In Arcadia" is admirable in almost every respect, "The Bathers" is only less remarkable than some of Mr. Harrison's other work for truthful, conscientious rendering of a most difficult motive. The artistic theorems which he has undertaken to expound in these two pictures are full of the most troublesome questions of detail. The painter has brought to his work a knowledge gained by long observation and patient study of nature. It is not too much to say that very few modern painters who have attempted to paint the nude figure out of doors have succeeded half so well as he, and the conception of his subjects, the arrangement of his compositions, and the execution of the work as it is seen in these two canvases, bear a thoroughly individual stamp. It is especially important, too, to note that all of Mr. Harrison's pictures are distinguished by genuine beauty and veracity of color. WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

## AN ARCHITECTURAL DISCOVERY IN CAMBRIDGE.

LONDON, July 26, 1893.

NOWADAYS, in England, if old buildings are touched at all, it is too often with a view to their restoration—a word which in this case is a synonym for destruction. Therefore, when deliberate effort is made, not to give a new version of old work, but to free that old work from every modern encroachment, the event is one of no small interest to all who are concerned with the history of the past, of no small importance to all who have made a study of architecture. And this is exactly what is happening just now at Jesus College, Cambridge.

The College, it will be remembered, was not an independent foundation, but sprang from the old Nunnery of St. Radegunde. The chief portion of the earlier buildings still remaining is the chapel. Its attraction to the modern tourist, no doubt, is found in the Burne-Jones windows, which, it may be noted in passing, are quite the finest examples of stained glass that artist has yet given us. But, to the architect and archæologist, it is the church itself (so different from the usual college chapel), with its nave and transepts and its beautiful early English piers and arches and arcades. Of course, King's stands alone as the great architectural marvel of Cambridge; but Jesus Chapel, in its own way, is only less fine if at first glance it must seem less imposing, while in historical associations and significance it is supreme. From the records left by the old nuns, and still preserved by the college, the monastic history of mediæval England might well be compiled. But, beyond the chapel, hitherto there have been few visible traces of the original nunnery, except here in a window and there in a hallway. Some forty or fifty years ago, when masons were employed in putting a new coat of plaster on the inner wall of the cloister, one of the Fellows chanced to see what he fancied was the spring of an arch partially concealed in the rough stone work. But the matter then troubled him little. The masons went on with their plastering, and nothing was heard of the possible discovery. Of late years, however, it appears that the same Fellow, now a very old man and no longer a resident in college, has been haunted by the memory of what he had seen—or thought he had seen—so many years earlier; and, at his earnest suggestion, due investigation was begun. At first the masons set to work upon the wall close to the door leading into the chapel, and here absolutely nothing was found. But, still persisting, they next pulled off the plaster at another point a little further from the chapel entrance; and now the Fellow had the satisfaction of knowing that his memory had not played him false, and that he had rendered a true service to his college.

For what was found has proved one of the most important architectural discoveries made in England for many years. The arch, which had been just indicated in the stone work, has turned out to be but one of three, and these, when I was at Cambridge the other day, had been almost entirely set free from the wall during long centuries gradually built up about them. They belong to the purest period of the thirteenth century, good authorities affirming that they date back to 1230, or thereabouts. The reasons for this belief are the capitals, which still show some suggestion of Norman influence, and the beautiful detached shafts, which later architects never introduced, having learned that greater strength, if less charm, was secured by connecting them to the central shaft with bands. The mouldings and the carved foliage of the capitals are in the most wonderful state of preservation, and the stone is of almost dazzling whiteness—a whiteness to be attributed, perhaps, partly to whitewash and destined not long to survive exposure to the foggy English atmosphere and the smoke of Cambridge. Thanks to their chance burial, the arches have escaped the restorer; indeed, they have been brought to light at the best moment, now that a few men, at least, begin to understand the folly of tampering with the none too many relics and monuments of the past still left. Not so far removed is the time when the old *piscina* was discovered in the chapel; then the one idea was to restore it; now college dignitaries are of another way of thinking. The arches form the doorway and near windows of the nuns' chapter-house. Its floor evidently was much below the level of the present cloister, but the necessary excavations have been made to the very base of the central door, so as to show the proportions of shafts and arches in their original grace and purity. Nor will the floor be filled in again. The cloister here is, in term time, one of the very busy thoroughfares of Jesus; but for a little space it will be narrowed, in order that the effect of this beautiful bit of the old monastic building may be seen in all its loveliness and perfection. In the course of digging, the workmen came upon a fine stone coffin with sculptured top—the coffin of an early prioress—and this probably will be left lying exactly where it was found, turned to east and west, even though a part of it must remain hidden under so much of the pavement as utility refuses to sacrifice to archæology.

This discovery rightly has aroused great interest in Cambridge. Architectural innovations, not merely for years, but for centuries, have consisted either in pulling down old buildings completely, or else in restoring them out of all recognition. To destroy comparatively new work so as to make room for the old is indeed an event worth chronicling in the history of the University. N. N.

## IN THE BALEARIC ISLES.—IV.

VALLDEMOSA, June, 1893.

THE road from Palma to the mountain village of Valldemosa is pleasantly diversified, passing through a smiling plain, rich in almond orchards and in fields of waving wheat—said to be the finest in the Mediterranean; the generous earth supporting both grain and fruit-bearing trees in the same field. All along the way are stone aqueducts, originating with the Moors, into which the tardy water is coaxed; and now and then the groaning of a huge wheel, laden with earthen jars, and turned by a blindfolded mule, discovers the means by which the fertilizing streams are turned into the carefully prepared channels of distribution. Wayside washing-wells are provided at convenient points, where the women, arriving from a distance mounted on donkeys, comfortably wash and gossip together. There are few houses, an occasional *venta*, or poor inn, or a small habitation by the roadside, with its dial on the wall marking the sunny hours, or a massively built country house, standing in its walled garden guarded by stately palm and eucalyptus trees. Olives take the place of almonds as we approach the narrow gorge that leads into the heart of the mountains—olives of generous girth, hoary with the weight of a thousand fruitful years, and twisted into shapes so fantastic that the miles of orchards through which we pass seem a vast field of living forms suddenly arrested in the midst of the wildest revels. The peasants have a veneration for these weird old trees, the more ignorant believing them to have been set out at the beginning of the world. It is said that only at Corfu are to be seen olives of such antiquity.

As we ascend, the road narrows and is overhung by precipitous crags from whose crevices hang the long pennants and bright-yellow flowers of the broom, along with lusty olives that seem to find their nourishment out of the very rock; while the dry bed of the winter stream along which the road winds is a tangle of briar, honeysuckle, and white cistus. A last backward look upon the blue gleam of Palma bay, and the wild ravine opens into a valley of delight, encircled by rugged mountains, where the deep-green foliage of fig and citron, with gleams of golden fruit, red-ripe cherries, and the glowing bloom of pomegranate sweep in waves of rich color up the long slopes, meeting the silvery gray of the olive, whose soft bloom blends far up the mountain sides with the sombre colors of pine and ilex. On a plateau far above the valley rise the towers and gray walls of the old Cartuja, or Monastery, a mass of blossoming roses with hanging gardens along its whole façade. Two or three palms add a touch of dignity to all this luxuriance, while the mountains lift their heads high above monastery and valley. The picturesque village of Valldemosa, with its old church flanked by tall cypresses, straggles off to the right of the monastery. There are, perhaps, as charming valleys as Vall-de-Musa, and certainly mountains of loftier height; but in the long, winding way upward the combination of tropic and temperate vegetation, the sharp, broken outlines of the mountains, clothed here with olives, there with dark evergreens, again disclosing sheer and naked precipices—the old Cartuja in its wreath of roses—the silver line of the sea shining beyond the ravine, and, over all, the constant azure of the sky—present an *ensemble* hardly to be equalled.

Our interest in the Cartuja was quickened by the fact that George Sand, with her children and Chopin, had spent a winter here. A winter of violent storms, and consequent hardships, it proved to be, for the old monastery was a poor asylum in severe weather; and the lurking disease of a pulmonary nature, which had been the cause of Chopin's coming to Mal-

lorca, assumed an acute form which threatened his life. But his genius felt the quickening power of his strange surroundings. The old cloisters, the long, echoing corridor, which his fancy peopled with the phantoms of dead monks when the early winter twilight fell, the mysterious harmonies borne to him on the wings of the wind and through tempests of rain, inspired those masterpieces to which he gave the modest name of Preludes. The piano which he used, and which had been sent from France, is still preserved at Palma, and is in the possession of the consul for the United States.

To the more vigorous nature of George Sand the crisp air of the mountains, even the battling with the winter storms, gave a keen zest to life and furnished mental stimulation. The story of 'Spiridion,' begun at Nohant, found a more fitting setting in this abandoned habitation of the monks, and was carried to completion "amid the groanings of the north wind in the ruined cloisters." Her unhappy experiences with the people were due partly to a superstitious fear of Chopin's illness, which does not seem to have been confined to the ignorant peasantry, and partly to the very circumstances of her life here. That she should resent and exaggerate the treatment she received was not unnatural, or that her bitter strictures, which originally appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, should meet with more than one bitter response. But, making due allowance for her provocations, it is quite certain that she was unjust in her general estimate of the people of Mallorca.

We were loath to pass by Valldemosa, but the Hospederia where we were to find shelter for a few days on our way to the famous orange groves of Soller lay beyond, and the drive of a couple of miles under the shadow of the mountains, with a sea of shifting hues more than a thousand feet below us, was all too quickly accomplished. The Hospederia, a plain stone structure, erected by the Austrian Archduke Luis Salvador within his domain of Miramar, stands on the highroad between Valldemosa and Soller, its generous doors open to all wayfarers. Each traveller brings his own food, but lodging and service are free. The old woman in charge, a characteristic type of the island peasant woman—dark-skinned, with strongly marked features, and independent bearing—receives all comers with equal simplicity, showing favor to none. Happening to be first on the field, we had our choice of dormitories, and, a cloth being laid upon one of the long deal tables in the refectory, the contents of our hamper were served upon native ware of bright, crude coloring. Several parties arrived shortly after—priests, soldiers, peasants, and pleasure-seekers from Palma. Quaint lamps were lighted, of classic design, burning olive oil, and giving a clear, soft light, which left the corners of the refectory in deep shadow, but, concentrated upon a group of peasants about the table, brought out their bronzed features with the vividness of one of Rembrandt's canvases.

Our morning walk took us along a romantic path to the *casa* of Miramar, where there is a collection of fine specimens of the antique products of Mallorca—richly carved chests, bedsteads with tall, spirally fluted posts and openwork headpieces; massive chairs, etc., and the famous majolica ware, the production of which is now one of the lost arts. From a group of people about to enter carriages waiting at the entrance, a tall, athletic figure with a bronzed and pleasant countenance stepped forward as we approached, and asked if we were strangers. It was the Archduke himself, who invited us in and made us welcome, and, after some conversation, kindly planned an excursion to the highest mountain peak above Miramar. This prince, with manners as frank and simple as those of a country gentleman, has been an extensive traveller, is the author of several books of travel, illustrated from his own drawings, and of an exhaustive work on the Balearic Islands. He is a close observer of men and things, and a man of much originality of thought and expression. An enthusiastic lover of nature, he deplores the reckless destruction of the forests, and his hearing the sound of the axe one morning from an adjacent tract of land led to his purchasing the land. Thereupon, so goes the story, vigorous wood-chopping became an all too frequent sound in the clear air of Miramar, with the result that his estates grew far beyond his original intention, until they embrace a tract of sea coast, mountain, and valley about six by seven miles in extent, where the nightingale now sings undisturbed in the thick groves. Everywhere a fine artistic sense has been employed not only to preserve nature's beauties, but to make them accessible. Winding paths lead through arbors of pine, ilex, and carob, along the dizzy edges of precipices, with inviting resting-places under huge, overhanging boulders, to spacious miradors, or outlooks, often built upon the platform of some steep cliff, where the spectator can enjoy a succession of beautiful pictures with comfort and safety.

A good bridle-path leads up the mountain, and the noble view from the summit embraces the plain of Palma—its great cathedral looming up grandly—the fertile valleys of Soller and Valldemosa, and the sea both north and south, with the island of Cabrera lying as it were afloat on its surface; while the orchards and vineyards, the long, wooded hill-slopes, the rocky, broken coast line, and the naked, sea-fretted promontories of Miramar lie at our feet. Another route downward brought us to the interesting and extensive old mansion of Son Moragues, which the Archduke, with generous thoughtfulness, is fitting up for a "Museo Balear" of the industrial arts. This estate is also fair to see and under fine cultivation; but what most impressed us was the absence of servility on the part of the peasants towards the Archduke, and their manifestation of genuine affection. When his voice was heard at Son Moragues, young and old crowded forward to greet him, some with offerings of fruit. At parting he was careful to give each a hearty hand-grasp, and it was pleasant to see how their faces fairly glowed with delight at the meeting. The next morning, on our way down to the sea, where a carriage road has been constructed along the shore leading to the *estacca*, or private residence, of the Archduke, we visited a beautiful little chapel, on an isolated pinnacle of rock reached by a light but lofty arch, containing a fine full-length statue, in Carrara marble, of Ramon Lull. This was erected, in 1877, to commemorate the sixth centenary of the founding by Lull at Miramar of a college for the study of the Oriental languages, with a view to the peaceable conversion of the infidels. It was, perhaps, by the following of some subtle law that here also should be set up, in 1485, the first printing-press in the islands, being the second in Spain.

June days are long, but the three days allowed to each visitor at the Hospederia vanished like a dream, and we found ourselves on the road to Soller, with Miramar fast disappearing from view. For some time we kept along by the sea, though still high above it, then, passing round the picturesque, mediæval-looking village of Deyá, perched upon a bold rock rising out of the valley through which the road wound, soon the spicy perfume of orange groves gave token that we were approaching Soller. But it took many turns of the road to allow us a view of the village lying deep down in the valley. This valley, menaced, almost overpowered, by lofty mountains, hidden from the sea, and with only a narrow outlet, is one of the most fertile in the world, yielding not only fruits and vegetables in great variety but of fine quality, its oranges especially being of exquisite flavor. The village has crowded its nine thousand inhabitants into small space to leave room for the gardens and orchards, which are marvels of careful cultivation, watered by unfailing fountains having their source in the summits above. Although the village itself is uninteresting, there are many beautiful walks around about, and the ascent of Puig Mayor, the highest point on the island, is well worth the effort.

It was on Sunday, and the festival of Mary, that we first saw Soller; and a procession bearing the figure of Mary, rose-crowned, preceded by chanting choristers and followed by a crowd of reverent women, was making the round of the village. The Soller women, who are much more beautiful than those of Palma, have an element of pathos in their beauty which harmonized with the feast they celebrated. The harbor, some distance from the village, is small and difficult of entrance except in smooth weather. It was from this port that the preaching friar who had had occasion to admonish the Conqueror, and was by his order refused passage to Spain, embarked on his own mantle and landed safe in Barcelona. Returning to Palma by the direct road which climbs over the mountains and reaches a great altitude by innumerable zigzags that furnish many vantage points of beauty, we wondered at and admired this grand piece of engineering—an enduring monument to the skill and intelligence of its constructor. S. G.

# Correspondence.

## THE EBB TIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: That "there is a tide in the affairs of men" is a fact which must always have been noticed and counted upon by sensible people, at least since the days of Noah; but that the ebb tide as much as the flood "leads on to fortune," for the community as well as for the "bears," is a hard saying to those who are suffering.

From temporary suffering we have now no escape. Even Congress cannot stop the ebb and flow of values which is due to material causes and to natural alternations of hope and fear. It can, however, and therefore it must, help by providing for the people of the United States a measure of value as accurate and as fixed as that of other great trading nations. By so doing it can make even this ebb tide lead us on to fortune. H. C.

Cambridge, August 7, 1893.

## A DIAGNOSIS OF THE CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The story of "E. W. H." about the farmer who had "a measure with a hole in it" is paralleled by a recent occurrence here, in

which at least one professional gentleman saw the light of an illustration.

Dr. Y. has been much depressed of late about the bad times and stringency in the money market, and one day, in a vein of semi-humor, he accosted a neighborhood wag and asked for his solution of the financial situation. The philosopher scratched his head reflectively for a few moments, and then gave vent to his wisdom as follows:

"Well, doctor, if you knew a man who was not content to let his processes of digestion and assimilation go on in a free and natural manner, but must needs be taking a kind of drug that caused some parts of his system to be nourished while other parts were impoverished, would you be greatly surprised after a number of years of such practice if he had a severe fit of sickness?"

Tariff-reformers will be interested to know that the good doctor saw the cat.

CHARLES E. BENTON.

NEW BEDFORD, MASS.

## REMOVALS IN OUR FOREIGN CIVIL SERVICE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just read in the *Nation* of the 3d inst. the letter concerning the United States Consul at Christiania, who, "L. W. H." informs us, "has recently, without having received official notice of any sort, learned from a chance newspaper paragraph of the appointment of his successor, a person from Dakota." Evidently your correspondent is not aware of the fact that it is the rule, and not the exception, for a "faithful officer of the United States" to have "the door of his consulate shut upon him without a word of explanation, excuse, or thanks."

A somewhat similar case came under my notice about ten years ago in France. Mr. Albert Rhodes, who had been in our consular service for several years, who had even acted for a short time as chargé d'affaires in Holland, and who had been made a chevalier of the Legion of Honor by the French Government, suddenly learned one morning from the newspapers that he was removed from his post at Rouen and banished to an out-of-the-way consulate in Germany. I have known more than one Secretary of Legation who first heard of his dismissal through the cablegrams of the Paris edition of the New York *Herald*. I recall the incident of one of our ministers who wished to entertain at dinner the delegates to an international congress in which our country was represented. But, as a new administration had just come into power, he hesitated issuing the invitations till he should get some assurance from Washington that he would not be humiliated by reading in the evening paper of the appointment of his successor, while sitting with his guests in the smoking-room.

Mr. Gade's case makes it again pertinent to ask the question, how much longer a great nation like the United States means to go on stultifying itself before the world. When we make fools of ourselves at home, it is a family affair, so to speak. But when we insult and belittle our official representatives abroad, we disgrace ourselves in the eyes of all foreign nations. T. S.

NEW YORK, August 5, 1893.

## JOHN DAWSON OF VIRGINIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am unable to supply any information concerning the parentage of Hon. John Dawson of Virginia, who is mentioned in President Tyler's note in the *Nation* of July 27 and in my own note in a previous issue. There is no Harvard matriculation book of the period of Dawson's admission, and the few references to him in the Faculty Records throw no light on the matter. The brief sketches of his career in the *National Intelligencer* of April 2, 1814—the day after his death—in Grigsby's 'History of the Virginia Convention of 1788' (Va. Hist. Collections), in Lanman's 'Dictionary of Congress,' and in the biographical dictionaries, tell us nothing of his family. C. C. Dawson, in his 'Dawson Family Records,' does, however, offer the surmise—distinctly given as such—that John Dawson, the Congressman, was descended from one of three Virginia clergymen, William, Thomas, and Musgrave Dawson, of whom the first two were the Presidents of William and Mary referred to by President Tyler.

I first mentioned the incident of Dawson's admission as an indication of the good feeling at that time prevailing between Massachusetts and Virginia. It may be worth while to note that the two men first honored by Harvard with the degree of LL.D. were Virginians—Washington in 1776 and Gates in 1779. Moreover, Gates's son Robert, who had been driven away from Princeton by the British, also received an honorary A.B. in 1779; and the letter in which the father returned thanks for both is still in the College archives. Washington seems at one time to have entertained the idea of sending his adopted son, G. W. P. Custis, to Harvard.—Very respectfully,

WILLIAM GARROTT BROWN.

HARVARD COLLEGE LIBRARY,
CAMBRIDGE, MASS., July 31, 1893.

# Notes.

THE W. F. ADAMS CO., Springfield, Mass., have in preparation 'Picturesque Berkshire,' in two parts, northern and southern, with illustrations by Lionel De Lisser and Clifton Johnson, besides a frontispiece view of Greylock by Elbridge Kingsley. The text will be furnished by ex-Senator Dawes, Clark W. Bryan, Albert Hardy, Dora Read Goodale, and others. This volume, coming after the 'Picturesque Hampshire,' 'Franklin,' and 'Hampden,' will complete the illustration of the western half of Massachusetts.

The authorized English version of Pasquier's Napoleonic memoirs, 'A History of My Time,' will be published in this country by Charles Scribner's Sons in three volumes, with portraits. They will also soon issue 'The Adventures of David Balfour,' by Robert Louis Stevenson.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have nearly ready 'The Phillips Brooks Year-Book,' containing appropriate selections from the late Bishop's writings for every day in the year.

'Early Prose and Verse,' edited by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle and Mrs. Emily Ellsworth Ford, is soon to be issued by Harper & Bros., who further announce 'The Private Life,' three short stories by Henry James.

Ginn & Co. promise next month 'A High School Rhetoric,' by John F. Genung.

Sir J. D. Hooker, reviewing in *Nature* for June 29 Capt. Wharton's edition from the MSS. of Captain Cook's Journal, reveals the interesting fact that, since this work went to press, the journal of Cook's distinguished companion on the *Endeavor*, Mr. (afterwards Sir Joseph) Banks, together with his correspondence during the voyage, has been found in the MS. Department of the British Museum, and Sir J. D. Hooker hopes it may now be published uniformly with Wharton's Cook's. The same number of *Nature* tells of "a quantity of the correspondence of Sir Joseph Banks" having changed hands at the recent sale of the library of the late Lord Brabourne.

Macmillan & Co. will publish in September a translation of Prof. Luigi Cossa's 'Introduction to the Study of Political Economy.' The translation has been in hand for a year, and has been brought down to date. The needed revision has been made by the author and by the translator, Louis Dyer, M.A. of Balliol College, Oxford, who has greatly enlarged the index of authors, and has added the subject-index pronounced indispensable for the book in our recent notice of the Italian original.

Following hard upon the heels of *Harper's Quarterly* is *Longmans' Paper Series*, also a quarterly (with occasional extra numbers). The first volume of this new series is Mr. Rider Haggard's 'Nada, the Lily,' with all the original illustrations.

The first or 1840 edition of the 'Madison Papers,' edited by Henry D. Gilpin, consisted of three octavo volumes in very generous typography, the Journal proper occupying 1,624 pages. What is called a "special edition" now appears in Chicago, bearing the imprint of Albert, Scott & Co., and "edited by E. H. Scott." It forms one plump volume, in clear characters, of 763 pages. Mr. Scott's editing is simply the appropriation of Gilpin's labors. He cuts down the latter's preface in a manner very detrimental to the record of the circumstances under which the Journal was made by Madison, and acquired after his death by the Government. He cuts out all the appendix, all the facsimiles of handwriting, and as much of the index as suits his caprice—Washington, for instance, has a page in Gilpin, but Mr. Scott retains only nine items. Yet the index was the field in which a new editor might have shone. We have not compared the text in the two editions: errors in that would be inexcusable indeed.

'Villette,' in two volumes, is the latest in the charming Dent edition of the works of the Brontë sisters (Macmillan), and the same English and American house set before us 'The Adventures of Joseph Andrews,' as the first volumes in a reprint of Fielding's novels, uniform with the foregoing and the Jane Austen series. There will be twelve in all, and Mr. Saintsbury edits them, furnishing at least a biographico-literary introduction, while the pretty photogravures are after designs by Herbert Railton and E. J. Wheeler. It is needless to repeat our encomiums of these specimens of tasteful and handy book-making.

'Angelica Kauffmann,' by Frances A. Gerard (Macmillan), has the merit of being "the first life of the artist written in English," and the further merit of containing at the end lists of engravings after her works, of pictures and their owners, etc., etc. It is compiled from various foreign sources, and contains a number of hitherto unpublished letters. The author makes liberal use of quotations, and allows her authorities to disagree with delightful impartiality, so that a reading of the book is somewhat confusing. Her use of italics is a complete mystery to us. However, if any mortal takes to-day a great interest in the faded and genteelly sentimental ghost of Angelica, he may be safely recommended to this book as one in which he can find about all that is known and a great deal that is guessed about her life.

The celebrated 'Letters of a Portuguese Nun' (Marianna Alcoforado) have been translated anew by Mr. Edgar Prestage (London: D. Nutt). This is the first English translation since 1808, if the American translation of 1890 is left out, and a very good, spirited piece of work it is. Mr. Prestage has made use of Asse's edition (French) of 1889, and has placed immediately after his translation a reprint of the text of the first French edition of the Letters (1669). His work stands the comparison with the French, the original Portuguese being lost. He has caught the spirit and given a faithful rendering at the same time, though one could wish that his English were occasionally a little more quaint and old-fashioned and so nearer in savor to the language of the French version. The book is admirably printed, with red titles and initial letters, and is furnished with an instructive introduction, an appendix, containing a full bibliography, and a rendering into verse of the Letters themselves from a volume of poems published in London in 1713.

Under the title 'A Brief History of Panics and their Periodical Occurrence in the United States' (Putnams), Mr. De Courcy W. Thom offers a translation, or adaptation, of part of an essay upon commercial crises by M. Clément Juglar, with an introduction and comments of his own. In spite of the fact that M. Juglar's essay, which embraced England and France as well as the United States, was awarded a prize by the French Institute, we do not think that it exhibits any clear comprehension of our financial history and the causes of our financial disturbances, nor are Mr. Thom's comments of any particular value. By the cruel irony of fate, his book, which bears the date 1893, closes with a declaration that the circumstances justified "the prediction of the steady development of a prosperous period." But it must be admitted that many other prophets have come to grief within the last few months.

Four volumes of the "Social Science Series," published by Swan Sonnenschein & Co. and imported by Scribners, are before us. 'Ferdinand Lassalle as a Social Reformer,' by Edward Bernstein, may have its interest for those who follow the intricacies of German Social Democracy; 'The New Reformation and Its Relation to Moral and Social Problems,' by Ramsden Balforth, is a serious attempt "on the part of a mind nursed in scepticism to search out the truth and to formulate for itself a constructive religious faith"; 'The Agricultural Laborer,' by T. E. Kebbel, is a new edition of an essay based upon the reports of the English Agricultural Commissions; and 'The Eight-Hours Question,' by John M. Robertson, is a protest by a frightened Radical against too much radicalism.

'Poor's Manual of Railroads' for 1893 includes the usual features of this standard work, and continues the effort to tabulate the companies alphabetically. Such tabulation is obviously rendered difficult by the different dates at which the companies publish their annual financial statements, but the companies are now arranged under two alphabetical lists—the first of companies whose fiscal year ends June 30, the second of those reporting to December 31. This, for convenient reference, is a great improvement over the old grouping by States, but it is unfortunate that a complete and single alphabetical arrangement of names is not practicable. Perhaps the most interesting item in the current 'Manual' is the record of outstanding unfunded debt, which has increased from $5,105,902,025 in 1891 to $5,463,611,204 in 1892. The special danger to large corporations, in this year of tight money, has been the constant maturing and renewal of so vast a volume of time loans.

Prof. Newcomer's 'Practical Course in English Composition' (Ginn & Co.) differs pleasingly from the horde of current text-books on the subject in deserting entirely the field of "rhetoric," with its endless discussions of proper uses of words and approved forms of sentence-structure. Instead, it points out to the student the various ways in which observation and experience may furnish him with themes, and sets forth the general principles on which success in any given *genre* depends. The book is designed primarily for use in high schools and academies, and its general tone is that of adaptation to immature students.

Mrs. Alfred Barton's 'Stories from Waverley,' a fourth edition of which has just reappeared in Macmillan's School Library, deserves its success, for it presents the plots of five of Scott's most entertaining novels not only in a form appropriate for young children, but in a fashion that really preserves some of the charm and vigor of the original. As much can scarcely be said for the 'Tales from Spenser' in the same series, but here the task was a harder one, and, in spite of obvious imperfections, the version will still hold a child's interest and stimulate his imagination.

Thomas Archer's 'The Highway of Letters and its Echoes of Famous Footsteps' (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.) derives its somewhat bombastic title from Fleet Street and its varied literary associations, with which the author finds (or forces) a connection for almost every fact in the history of English literature that could be relied upon to catch the attention of the desultory reader. The book is not for the scholar, who will find in it little or nothing which is new, and will miss any attempt on the part of the author to give his authorities for even the most striking facts which he presents. That *rara avis*, the "general reader," may, however, be interested in turning its pages, and pecking here and there at its hoard of anecdotes. The addition of a good folding-map of London would save American readers many a topographical puzzle.

The *Geographical Journal* for July contains the annual address of the President of the Royal Geographical Society, Sir M. E. Grant Duff. It is an interesting summary of the work of the Society as well as of the progress of geography during the past year. The important statement is made that henceforth the Government of India will furnish the Society with all the historical and statistical information contained in the reports of officers engaged in explorations and surveys. These reports have hitherto been regarded as confidential, and it is only after "long discussions" that this concession has been made. Count Pfeil describes Southwest Africa from an economical point of view. His conclusions are not very encouraging. None of the region visited, which includes both British and German territory, is fit for agriculture; and although there are to be found fine pasture lands, yet a large part is absolutely worthless desert, and the whole suffers from want of water. The climate, however, is "bracing, salubrious, and lovely." Dr. H. Schlichter contributes a paper showing what historical evidence there is as to the Zimbabwe ruins. Although this is of an entirely indirect character, it seems to prove the truth of Mr. Bent's assertion that the buildings were erected by the Arabs some time before the Christian era. Mr. Delmar Morgan summarizes the work of the Russian explorers, Col. Pevtsof and M. Bogdanovitch, in Chinese Turkistan. An excellent map accompanies this paper.

We read in the Paris *Débats* for July 22 of discontent among the inhabitants of Neuilly with their annual fair, which regularly lasts a fortnight, and is apt to be protracted a week by the authorities. So the Mayor has resorted to a voluntary referendum to decide whether the longer or the shorter period has most advocates. Only three or four times has such an experiment been made in French history, says the *Débats*, and it proceeds to argue that the vote is not likely to satisfy, even if a full one. Those least inconvenienced by the fair, by reason of living at a distance, and who will probably, therefore, be tolerant of it, will count for as much as the most interested because the nearest to the scene and the most annoyed. In other words, the dispute is not a proper one for settlement in the manner proposed.

In the *Portfolio* for July (Macmillan), the editor comments on the vote of "French artists already recompensed" by which the majority awarded the medal of honor for *the* picture of the year to M. Roybet, painter of the "Propos Galants." This distinction Mr. Hamerton thinks surprising because the canvas in question runs counter to the New Criticism in so many particulars, as, that the theme is fairly to be called literary; the composition has been carefully studied; "the subject is full of costume, and it is not of the present day"; the technique is strong, honest, and unflinchingly laborious throughout, with "none of those great empty spaces which, in so much recent painting, seem as interesting as deserts in a map"; there is no pretension of a study of values, though the values are plainly right, nor display of execution, though exceptional manual power is exhibited, etc. "The cause for rejoicing in this instance is that once again the sound old principles have triumphed over the vanities and affectations that sometimes win a little temporary notoriety."

M. Henri Rauline, present architect of the Church of the Sacred Heart now building at Montmartre, technically describes the edifice—a patriotic ex-voto of the trials of 1870—with illustrations in the *Architectural Record* for the current quarter (vol. iii., No. 1). Analyzing the receipts up to January 1, 1893 (25,873,000 francs), he mentions (2) "the gifts of from 20 to 500 francs, each donor of which can have his initials marked on a stone set apart for him in the edifice," and (3) "the gifts of from 1,000 to 100,000 francs, to the subscribers of which are conceded columns and pillars, in the capitals of which they can have their names or arms sculptured." In fact, the photographic plate on p. 27, "in the chapel of the chevet," shows several stones in the recessed wall inscribed with private names, and four columns each bearing a name at the foot save one, which is carved "Anonyme." The church does not rest on its own soil, which is a dangerous combination of clay and sands, but on shafts sunk to the gypsum substratum of Paris, filled with rubble and cement, and then connected at the top by arches.

We understand that Miss Mary Proctor, daughter of the late Prof. Richard A. Proctor, is making arrangements to give a series of lectures on astronomy for children all over the country during the coming season. The course consists of three lectures, entitled "The Goblins in Starland," "The Stories of the Stars," and "Giant Sun and his Family." Miss Proctor will also deliver a lecture, specially suitable for normal schools, on "How to Teach Astronomy to Children." She has already given

these lectures at Chicago during the World's Fair.

—Among the all too numerous exhibits at the World's Fair which are either overlooked entirely or fail of just appreciation, is that of a popular library shown by the Bureau of Education in the United States Building. The books composing it form part of a selection of 5,000 volumes (exactly, 5,230) made by a committee of the American Library Association "who passed upon the suggestions of about seventy-five librarians and specialists." They are the gifts of the respective publishers, American and foreign, and will, at the close of the Exposition, be deposited permanently with the Bureau of Education at Washington. A service of this nature would have been sadly deficient without a catalogue, and the "A. L. A." has actually provided three, of which two are given in the recent pamphlet issue No. 200 of the Bureau. These are classed (*a*) according to the decimal classification, and (*b*) according to the expansive classification; a dictionary catalogue is yet to come. Wherever, then, it is desired to found a public library of the size indicated, any benevolent person or board of trustees has ready to hand not only a good working list of books, logically grouped, with date of publication, name and address of publisher, and price, but also "the proper class numbers, dictionary headings, and author entries"—in other words, a model for arranging on the shelves and cataloguing. Women graduates of the New York State Library School at Albany have had the brunt of this disinterested labor. Two sections, Biography and Fiction, on account of their length, have been set apart in advance of the classifications, in neither of which are they repeated. Juvenile publications, it may be well to notice, are not separated from the mass. Standard works, like the more voluminous biographies, are often supplemented by popular abridgments (using the word in a loose sense), *e. g.*, Lanfrey's Napoleon by Seeley's, Curtis's Webster by Lodge's, etc., so that a ready choice is afforded if the full list prove too costly. It only remains to add that owners of private libraries will also find their account, for stocking purposes, in this intelligent selection.

—Mr. Lecky's presidential address before the Birmingham and Midland Institute last October has been reprinted with additions as a thin book (Appletons). Its theme is the "Political Value of History," and it is replete with sound remarks on the danger of superficial comparison of past times with the present—especially as a ground of prediction—on the cherishing of obsolete issues, on the utility of studying the history of institutions, on the two schools (represented by Buckle and Carlyle) of historic fatalism or necessitarian evolution, and of heroic individualism, as determining the course of human affairs, etc., etc. There is one distinct reference to the present Home-Rule controversy, with a suggestion of the lecturer's Unionism; and perhaps we may detect an allusion to the same burning question in his insistence "that there has scarcely been a great revolution in the world which might not, at some stage of its progress, have been either averted, or materially modified, or at least greatly postponed, by wise statesmanship and timely compromise." For this he draws an illustration from our American Revolutionary history, as he had already done in his 'England in the Eighteenth Century,' apropos of the Stamp Act—an argument which shows how little he has comprehended the causes of the Revolution. All these causes existed and were manifested in the contest for the Massachusetts charter resulting in the overthrow of Andros a century before, and made ultimate independence inevitable; yet Mr. Lecky speaks of the project to tax the colonies for a standing army as, "such and so small," "the *original* cause of difference between England and her colonies." All the compromisers of the slavery issue from 1787 to 1861 thought they had averted the inevitable as well as postponed it. But what interest was served by postponement, and what was the penalty for all our wise and timely statesmanship? We may well ask, also, what is the use of seeking to prolong the open sore in Ireland, even supposing it possible?

—Mr. George Moore has gathered together a number of articles on subjects connected with art (most of which seem to have been published originally in the *Speaker*), and the Scribners have published them under the title of 'Modern Painting.' In style they are a singular mixture of preciosity and sloppiness, and in substance they are a jeremiad on the decay of art and "the failure of the nineteenth century." According to Mr. Moore, everything is wrong—French art education is bad and English worse. French artists to-day are divided into "pedants" and "experimentalists," and one group is as wrong as the other, while English art is disintegrated by French influence. He admires a few men, but Ingres and Manet are dead, and Whistler and Degas are not young, and he admits that Manet's example led straight to the latest developments of impressionism, which are detestable. Then there are the Royal Academy and the dealer and the Alderman to complete our ruin. It is really pathetic. "Be sure," he says, "that after five years of the Beaux-Arts you cannot become a great painter. Be sure that after five years of Kensington you can never become a painter at all." But the natural question of where one *should* obtain one's education he "does not propose to answer directly"—they never do. Only he tells the lamentable tale of how Renoir, after attaining a personal style, went to Venice, saw Tintoretto, found that he had forgotten to learn to draw, and went into an art school, and "in two years he had utterly destroyed every trace of the charming and delightful art which had taken him twenty years to build up." It *is* a "tragic story," but how if Renoir had learned to draw in the first place? Of Manet he says: "No one painted better, no one will ever paint better," and then leaves one wondering what he can mean by painting when he confesses that Manet's form is always summary and his modelling insufficient. Is mere ease of hand sufficient when it expresses nothing? If, as he admits, Manet is vastly inferior to Hals, who was a pure painter and nothing else, how is Manet as great a painter as ever lived? The fact seems to be that Mr. Moore cares little for other qualities than beauty of technical handling, and that of only one kind. He is equally inconsequential in his treatment of "subject," which he maintains came into art with the nineteenth century and has ruined it. By skipping from the Greeks to the sixteenth century, he manages to make a plausible case, which would have been utterly ruined if he had considered the Middle Ages and the early Renaissance. The best things in his book are paraphrases from Fromentin, which he uses somewhat freely and with no indication of their origin. And this is what Mr. Moore calls "The New Art Criticism"!

—Prof. Auguste Angellier has set himself the impossible task of making Frenchmen understand and appreciate Robert Burns. It is wrong, however, to say "impossible," for M. Angellier is a living proof that a Frenchman may penetrate the spirit of the Scottish lyrist. His two large, thick, close-printed octavo volumes (Paris: Hachette) seem at first glance altogether too long and too full. What can be said of Burns that requires so much print? But M. Angellier is justified in large measure. To make his compatriots understand Burns he has to make them understand Scotland and the Scotch, the Lowland Scotch, of whom Burns was the poet. To this purpose he has devoted many pages, and has given excellent descriptions of Scottish character, feeling, and peculiarities. It is, indeed, quite remarkable how fully M. Angellier has been able to inform himself on these points and to give, in his voluminous work, a clear and satisfactory account of what he has learned. Certainly he is too minute in his analysis of the poet's life—it often becomes wearisome; but he has not bestowed too much space on his study of the country and the people. That he has succeeded in translating some of the songs with a minimum loss of beauty and truth is infinitely to his credit; that he has failed in many cases to render the peculiar savor and grace of the original is not to be wondered at: broad Scotch is rebellious to translation as much as is Parisian *esprit*. It must be enjoyed in the original. Probably not many Frenchmen will follow in M. Angellier's footsteps, though he hints at Allan Ramsay's work as worthy of notice by aspiring seekers after new fields. What is encouraging in it is the proof that the French are beginning to study other literatures in earnest, and to bring to that study a genuine spirit of inquiry instead of the somewhat amused superciliousness which once characterized them. If Taine had done nothing more for France than this, he would still deserve all the praise which men rightly lay at his feet.

## PERSIA AND THE PERSIAN QUESTION.

*Persia and the Persian Question.* By the Hon. George N. Curzon, M.P. Longmans, Green & Co. 1892.

THESE two bulky volumes are a very creditable record of diligence and ability, for they contain a great mass of information which it must have cost the author many months to collect, and they bear witness not only to his talent, but to the width of his culture. It is satisfactory to see that a young politician who executes rapid travels with the aim of mastering the problems of the day, is also keenly interested in history and archæology, and has the patient industry needed to accumulate and digest a great deal of matter contained in the writings of his predecessors. To some extent the book suffers from the very merit of its comprehensiveness. It contains a mass of information, geographical and historical, which the so-called general reader, whether he reads a narrative of travel for his entertainment, or a discussion of current political questions for his enlightenment, does not require and may not appreciate. On the other hand, its discussions of the present relations of the Persian monarchy to Russia, to the Afghans, and to Great Britain are not needed by the scholar or historian, and will in a few years be out of date. The book is in fact a combination of several magazine articles, ephemeral in manner if not altogether in substance, with a full and painstaking description of the country and people; and although an excellent table of contents and index will enable the reader of the future to make the permanent part of it

available for his purposes, the reader of the present suffers by the disparity of the matter and the treatment. The difficulties of fitting in a record of personal experiences in travel with systematic description are, however, so great that no one will blame the author for the defects we have noticed, though it may be worth his while to try to diminish them in another edition by some changes of arrangement, and to get out of the "leading article" style in which a good deal of the book is written. There remains so much that is interesting and useful that a reviewer ought rather to be willing to express appreciation than prone to dwell upon blemishes.

The picture presented of the actual condition of the kingdom is a dismal one. It could not be otherwise if it were to be faithful. There is still some intellectual life left in the Persian race, as no one who sees the Persians can doubt, and as every one who knows Persian literature will be glad to believe. But there is also not only a detestable and apparently hopeless system of government, but a conspicuous moral decadence. The falsity of the people among whom, as Herodotus relates, education consisted in teaching the youth to shoot with the bow and to speak the truth, has now become proverbial even in the not too veracious East. Everybody is venal, from the Shah downwards. All sorts of repulsive vices are rampant, and the Government sets, by its horrible punishments, an example of cruelty to its subjects. No native Persian can accumulate capital, because he would immediately be plundered by the Government or some member of it, or made to pay ruinous blackmail. Large enterprises, therefore, naturally fall into the hands of foreigners, who of course are usually obliged to fall in with the local standard of integrity, and whose undertakings are at the mercy of a capricious sovereign with just enough knowledge of civilized countries to wish to attain their ends without using the requisite means of economy, perseverance, justice, and good faith.

Mr. Curzon, who seems to have had a friendly reception, and who quite properly seeks, both as an obliged traveller and as an Englishman jealous of Russian influence, to avoid offending the Shah and his Ministers any more than truth absolutely requires, draws for us a melancholy picture of a crumbling Government and a people apparently effete. The resources of the country are believed to be great, but are for the most part neglected. The population is less than five millions, though the area is about 650,000 square miles. The revenue is small and irregular, the army is practically useless. While such a country had only barbarous or semi-civilized neighbors, like the Afghans to the east, the Turkomans to the north, and the Turks on the west, it was able to maintain itself and even occasionally make conquests, as Nadir Shah carried his arms far into Hindustan. But since Russia has crept down from the northwest, and now holds the whole northern border from Mt. Ararat to the Heri-Rud and Merv, the position has wholly changed. It is not too much to say that Persia is now virtually at the mercy of the Czar. Ten thousand Russian troops could conquer the country, and would indeed encounter no serious resistance; nor does anything prevent that conquest being effected to-morrow, except the hesitation of Russia to enter on a course which might involve a breach with England, and which, even supposing that war with England were avoided, would impose a strain upon those financial and military resources which she desires to keep unimpaired in the not improbable event of a struggle with Austria and Germany. To govern the vast area of Persia, to reduce the nomad tribes to some sort of order, still more to develop the country in such a way as to make it pay the cost of administration, would involve a large initial outlay which might seriously add to the already grave financial embarrassments of the great Slavic Empire.

People in Europe credit Russia with a desire to obtain a foothold on the Persian Gulf, and thereby free access to the ocean, from which she is barred on the Baltic and the Arctic Seas by the frosts of winter and on the Black Sea by the Turkish command of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles. But on the Persian Gulf, even supposing she were prepared to attempt the creation of a fortified post and arsenal at so vast a distance from her base of strength in European Russia, she would find herself confronted by the superior naval power of England, which is predominant at Muscat on the opposite coast of the Gulf of Oman. There is, therefore, no reason to apprehend any immediate forward movement on the part of Russia, and it is quite possible (so uncertain are the vistas of the future in everything which concerns Russia) that Persia may never be added to her dominions. Mr. Curzon blames his countrymen for not having given her a more efficient support against Russia, but does not point out how it is possible for England to arrest the progress of Russian advance or seriously to counterwork the Russian influence which he so much deplores, otherwise, of course, than by threats of war, which he does not seem to recommend.

More interesting to the American reader than these political speculations, which recur so frequently in his book, are the descriptions it contains of the character and habits of the people and of the remains of antiquity. Mr. Curzon exerted himself to visit the ruins of Persepolis, the famous rock sculptures and inscriptions of Behistun, and the huge mounds of Susa, which have recently been explored first by the Englishman Loftus, then by the Frenchman Dieulafoy. His description of Persepolis is very minute, and will be found the more useful because it is illustrated by a number of woodcuts and contains a résumé of the various theories advanced regarding the age of the respective buildings and tombs. Speaking generally, the topographical parts of Mr. Curzon's book (such as his interesting account of the Persian Gulf ports) are the best, for he is a painstaking observer and a diligent collector of what others have said. He writes, moreover, with clearness and simplicity, escaping the somewhat florid and declamatory style which pervades his political discussions and reviews of history, and which is especially to be deprecated in a book intended to serve more than a temporary purpose. The same remark applies to the expressions of opinion on recent questions of English party politics. Politicians naturally fall into these, but they are very frigid when read a few years hence, and no one who contemplates more than a short life for his book ought to indulge in them. The solid matter which these volumes contain will, we trust, insure for it a place in geographical libraries.

## ALCOTT'S MEMOIRS.

*A. Bronson Alcott:* His Life and Philosophy. By F. B. Sanborn and William T. Harris. Two vols. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

WORDSWORTH, when asked why he printed his "White Doe of Rylstone" in quarto, replied that it was to do justice to his own sense of the importance of the work. There is little doubt that the biographers of Mr. Alcott have been partly influenced by this same motive in devoting nearly seven hundred pages to his memoirs. It is impossible for the reader not to feel some doubts as to this selection of a canvas so ample, especially when compared with the undue reserve and brevity of Mr. Cabot's memoir of Emerson. The criticism will not be diminished by the discovery in the book of many pages which would, among the world's people, be called padding. Thus, we come very soon upon two pages from Morse's *Gazetteer*, descriptive of Connecticut (pp. 26–7), followed by two pages made up from the Life of Colonel Dabney in regard to Virginia, coupled with a page and a half from an anonymous writer, and followed by nearly a page from Henry Adams, all on the same subject (pp. 60–5). Then there is a page and a half giving Dr. Johnson's opinion of Milton (pp. 173–4), two pages of details about Jones Very (pp. 297–8), a page given to the biography of Garrison (p. 438), a page and a half to Theodore Parker (pp. 367–8), and more than half a page to George of Cappadocia (p. 429), whose connection with the narrative lies in the fact that this mythical saint dealt in bacon, and that Mr. Alcott bought in Concord an old house previously occupied by a pig-driver. It is difficult to avoid some vexation at these digressions, but it is fair to say that they are not really to be regarded as conscious padding, but are part and parcel of the rather desultory way in which Mr. Sanborn likes to tell a story.

We speak of Mr. Sanborn as the responsible author of the main narrative, although another trial to the reader's heart occurs in the tardy postponement of information as to the actual identity of the author. There are the names of two writers on the title-page; and although it was doubtless intended to convey the interpretation that Mr. Sanborn was responsible for the "Life" and Dr. Harris for the "Philosophy," yet this is by no means a necessary inference, and will not occur to the majority of readers until they have read the book. Again and again, in the first volume, we find in the footnotes, "I visited this house," or "I believe" so-and-so; and it is not until page 256 that this first person singular has with it the explanatory parenthesis "(F. B. S.)." It is not until we reach the very last chapter and find it credited exclusively to Dr. Harris that we discover where the real line of cleavage between the authors occurs; but it would have been a convenience to have known from the beginning.

Nevertheless a debt of gratitude is due to those who have made of their work such a labor of love in behalf of one of the most important minor figures of that "Transcendental" movement which had so important an influence on our intellectual development. That the present biographers class him as one of the *dii majores* is perhaps to the advantage of their work; probably the first biographers of an eminent man should always overestimate him in order to present his full case before the world. At the time of Mr. Alcott's death, a ready tribute to his marked and individual qualities was paid in these columns, nor can we see that his biographers have added much to the summary then given, though both have brought out more fully his pioneer work in the educational field; and Dr. Harris has made for him, in the philosophical region, claims such as never before have been fully stated. The stress laid on Emerson's high estimate of him seems a little over-emphasized; it is one of the

most amiable qualities of great men to exaggerate the merits of those around them, as Darwin unquestionably did in the case of Herbert Spencer, and Emerson in that of Alcott. It belonged to the quality of Mr. Alcott's mind to enunciate solemnly a vast number of detached statements, more or less mystical, and given utterly without winnowing. In looking back on these Orphic sayings it is perfectly practicable to select a series which would give him rank, as Dr. Harris suggests, with Proclus and Plotinus; but it is unfair to quote these alone as a part of his history and to reprove his public for not appreciating them, without admitting that he also heaped upon that public a vast number of platitudes and some grotesque paradoxes. After all, the merit of a thinker does not lie only in his occasional glimpses of high thought, but in his power to impress those thoughts upon at least a selected public. Emerson and Theodore Parker stamped themselves upon their time; it is impossible to write the history of American thought without reckoning with them. Alcott, Hedge, W. H. Channing, and Margaret Fuller Ossoli also contributed in a very important way to the total influence of Transcendentalism; but it is quite impossible to place their work on the same plane, historically speaking, with that of the others.

So far as Messrs. Sanborn and Harris have provided materials for this interesting phase of history, their work is of great value; and it is, from this point of view, easier to pardon them for giving too much than the biographer of Emerson for giving so little. In Cabot's Emerson we had one reticent man describing another; in this case we have a man who had no reticence described by writers habitually discursive and possessing a wealth of detailed information which almost, though not quite, condones that fault. It is further to be noted, however, that in books, as in conversation, the man who pours upon us a good deal which we do not want is apt at the same time to omit accidentally the very things we most needed to know; and this book is no exception to this common experience. There are one or two points of the greatest interest in connection with Mr. Alcott's individuality upon which those who knew him will seek information with great eagerness in these volumes, but will seek it in vain. One of these points, for instance, was Mr. Alcott's peculiar views and habits as to the use of money. He is credited by his main biographer with "austere principles" (p. 355), and yet there is enough revealed in these pages to suggest in action the kind of austerity attributed to Harold Skimpole rather than that of Cato the Censor. So far does this go that his biographer seems rather swayed by this same attitude, and speaks with a certain contempt (p. 319) of "the Boston money-lender" whom Mr. Alcott himself describes as "N——, a dapperling who treads 'Change, and once lent me a round thousand during my days of prosperity." A jocose description is then given of the despicable moral position of this man, who had committed the high offence of lending the reformer, apparently from sympathy alone, the money on which his enterprise was based, and who had ventured so far as to ask Mr. Alcott, in a bookstore, how his affairs prospered. The diarist sternly adds: "I resumed my reading without selling my thought to the Mammon King." But not a word is given to show whether the Mammon King ever again saw the "round thousand," or, if so, who paid it; or, above all, whether it ever occurred to the debtor as a burden on his conscience. When Emerson, with his unequalled gift for characterization, described Alcott as "a haughty beneficiary," he hit nearer the mark than those who apply the word "austere."

Nevertheless, in these very passages the biographer at least hints at one of Mr. Alcott's weak points, if he fails to elucidate it. But the most curious feature of his book is the absolute omission of that singular reversion to his early beliefs which took possession of Mr. Alcott's latter life, and made him, alone among the leading Transcendentalists, an absolute deserter at one main point from their camp of faith. It is a serious reproach to this memoir, in respect to candor and accuracy, that the name of Joseph Cook does not appear in the index. It must be remembered that no one, among all the Transcendental leaders, took so early or so aggressively the humanitarian or non-Christian view as did Mr. Alcott. As is shown in this work (p. 99), he firmly assumed this position in his Diary in 1827, when Theodore Parker was a boy of seventeen; and the tone in which he habitually spoke of "that fair Hebrew youth" was one of the points which most scandalized the good church-goers among his auditors. Nay, he made it almost a test among his contemporaries that they should hold firmly to this attitude, he being in this respect more consistent than his comrades. It was an infinite amazement to his early friends and perhaps proselytes when, under the profuse and cordial flatteries of Mr. Cook, he was wont to hold forth as the favored guest in that gentleman's hospitable parlors—being habitually introduced to new-comers as "Mr. Alcott, the American Plato"—frankly admitting that he had returned to his early Trinitarian and Calvinistic position, and speaking with some superior censure of those who still held the views which he himself had taught them. He was still, no doubt, the hardest man in the world to keep to any definite doctrine; but of the utter reversion of attitude there was no question. To omit it is to leave out the most curious and perhaps most instructive phase in his whole career. This change is admitted, though insufficiently, by Dr. Harris (p. 627), whose treatment of the whole theme is more judicial than that of his coadjutor; but Mr. Sanborn does not once allude to it. Yet without it the description (p. 530) of his marvellous Western journey of seven months, at the age of eighty-one, when he made addresses or held conversations at the rate of more than one a day, Sundays included, conveys a wholly false impression. The wonderful fact, as there stated, that he brought home $1,000 of his own earning was largely explained by the fact that he now had the evangelical endorsement behind him, given with all the more ardor because Trinitarians claimed him, not without seeming reason, as the captive of their theological bow and spear. It was not, in their estimate, that they had come to him, but that he had come to them. As the friend of Emerson, he had returned from a tour of Western lecturing with a single dollar in his pocket (p. 476); as the friend and supposed convert of Joseph Cook, then at the height of popularity, he brought back a thousand dollars (p. 531).

With all the merits of this book, it must be said that to omit from the main narrative all reference to this extraordinary change of attitude in Mr. Alcott is a defect hard to pardon. Yet the biography, as a whole, adds much that is interesting to the body of material which is slowly being collected for the future author of a literary work which ought to take its place on the shelf with Boswell's 'Johnson' and Lockhart's 'Scott'—the history of Emerson and his friends.

## RECENT NOVELS.

*Ansel's Cave:* A Story of Early Life in the Western Reserve. By A. G. Riddle. Cleveland: The Burrows Bros. Co.

*Marked "Personal."* By Anna Katharine Green. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

*In Blue Uniform:* An Army Novel. By George I. Putnam. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE story of 'Ansel's Cave,' as told by Mr. Riddle, affords an hour or two of reading not entirely without interest. In spite of careless writing, there is a constant progress of the narrative to its end. A plot of considerable improbability is rapidly developed by a generous disregard of points of minor importance, while the author's evident impatience with the necessities of art, which require skilful transitions and deft introductions, results in a "reportorial" breeziness and an absence of digression that insure safety from dulness. The Western Reserve was a portion of northern Ohio reserved by Connecticut from the grant of Charles II. to the Duke of York. It was settled largely by New Englanders, and the story gives one something of an idea of the task required to prepare a forest country for the plough. Mr. Riddle does not take advantage, however, of the possibilities afforded by fiction for making a picture full of life and ideality. His local color is but bare facts, after all, and one will find them equally well observed and set down in Horace Greeley's book; and in Grant's Memoirs, we take it, the glimpses one gets of that pioneer life from the story of Grant's boyhood are clearer and truer than could be had by any effort at romancing. The cave which gives a name to the story really plays a very unimportant part. It is described with a precision which leads one to believe that it actually exists; but as far as the need of the tale is concerned, it is an extraneous "property." What wit there is in the book, like the style, smacks of the newspaper. There is an evident appreciation of humor on the part of the author, but he lacks the touch which is capable of suggesting the remote analogies and essential incongruities which Lowell says alone deserve the name of humor.

The world of the imagination, in spite of utilitarianism, still has its advocates. The popularity which sensational novels frequently obtain is due to the fact that they are really strongly imagined. This is true at least of Anna Katharine Green's novels. 'Marked "Personal"' is of a piece with the other stories in this author's constantly growing list. It is full of incident, mystery, and wonderful coincidences. The characters are not without some resemblance to human beings, and they are constantly "on the go." They are either doing something or having something done to them from the first page to the last. But, after all, the chief element which attracts the bulk of the readers who enjoy such stories is that of the imagination. It is only in the realm of the imaginary world—imaginary in spite of the names of Washington streets and New York avenues—that men either take or keep such dreadful oaths as the one which furnishes the key to all the mystery of 'Marked "Personal."' We should hardly be true to our office if we neglected to warn the jaded novel-reader that he will meet once more, for a hero, the young man who is forced by circumstances into marrying a certain woman; for a heroine, that woman; that he will see them fall in love and flounder about in miserable ignorance of the kindness fate has in store for them until the proper moment arrives for their enlightenment.

It is refreshing to read the first novel of a man who is not entirely devoid of the literary sense, and who approaches his task with the vigor and energy of one who is bent more on telling his story than on filling so many pages. If, besides, the story turns out to have been worth the telling, and the scenes somewhat novel and amusing, a grateful reader can forgive the introduction of a few worn-out artifices and worked-over surprises which surprise no one. The young lady who leaves her art studies in Paris and New York to visit an army post in Texas, her inevitable love affair with the young lieutenant, the martinet colonel and the drunken soldier who proves eventually to be the colonel's abandoned son, are necessary, perhaps, as machinery to carry along Mr. Putnam's panorama of army life. But Capt. Lyndon, with his theories and his fatal shot at the escaping Burton, is a revelation to the civilian mind. His disappointment in regard to Millicent and his lieutenant's success in the same quarter are perhaps a rather palpable seeking for contrast; but the pictures of army life in time of peace, the easy characterization of brother officers, the pleasantly narrated incidents—in fact, the larger portion of the book, which seems to have almost written itself, is excellent.

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*An Historical Sketch of Bookbinding.* By S. T. Prideaux, with a chapter on early stamped bindings by E. Gordon Duff. London: Lawrence & Bullen. 1893.

*Les Relieurs Français* (1500–1800); Biographie Critique et Anecdotique. Par Ernest Thoinan. Paris: Paul, Huard et Guillemin; New York: J. W. Bouton.

*Catalogue des Relieurs de Style* et objets artistiques en cuir ciselé, exposé par L'on Gruel, relieur. Paris. 1893.

THE catalogue of the extraordinarily rich loan collection of bookbindings shown at the Burlington Fine Arts Club in London two years ago was preceded by a brief sketch of the history of the bibliopegic art by Miss Prideaux. This sketch she has now somewhat expanded, appending her most valuable bibliography of bookbinding and three ancillary essays, on embroidered book-covers, on the use of metal in bound books, and on book-edge decoration. In spite of a certain want of proportion in her treatment of the subject, this is probably the best English summary of the history of the art. If only it were illustrated, however simply, it would be just the book to recommend to the book-lovers who have a vague general liking for binding without any exact knowledge on the subject. A discussion of the successive epochs in the development and decadence of any of the arts of design must needs be illustrated. No description of a decoration is a tithe as effective as the baldest sketch.

In this respect M. Thoinan's study of the growth of bookbinding in France is far superior to Miss Prideaux's. Nowhere else can one get so complete a bird's-eye view of the successive changes and transformations of the art as can be had by turning over the pages of M. Thoinan's book and comparing the series of thirty outline drawings of carefully selected typical bookbindings. The text, also, is more carefully prepared than Miss Prideaux's, and M. Thoinan has a firmer comprehension of the underlying principles of art and of the close interrelation of the decorative arts. This last quality is one which every student of bookbinding must cultivate, although very few writers on the subject have as yet seen its full importance. The art of bookbinding is only one of the decorative arts, and it was influenced again and again by its sister arts. The arabesques of the Oriental tile-makers reappear in the ornaments of the Aldine printing-house and on the covers of the books bound for Grolier; the graceful curves and interlacings of the Henry II. pottery reappear on the covers of the books of Diana of Poictiers; the tools of Derome were copied from the intricate patterns of the very skilful workers in wrought iron who were his contemporaries. These are relations which M. Thoinan sees clearly, as M. Marius-Michel had seen them and set them forth before.

In another respect Miss Prideaux's sketch is inferior to M. Thoinan's. She cannot help being British. Again and again she admits the justice of the assertion of M. de Laborde, taken by M. Thoinan for his epigraph: "La reliure est un art tout français"; on pp. 26 and 71, and elsewhere, she is as frank in acknowledging French supremacy as any one could ask; but none the less does she insist on discussing the bindings made for this or that British sovereign as though these rude efforts were of any consequence. On the other hand, her treatment of Roger Payne, a topic in the discussion of which British writers on binding generally lose their heads, is eminently sane. A bookbinder herself, with a craftsman's knowledge of the craft, and a careful and loving student of the great French binders, Miss Prideaux knows that Roger Payne's is not one of the great names in the history of bookbinding. "He was the first English binder," she says, "who endeavored to make his ornaments appropriate to the character of the book on which he put them, and his designs, though not important in composition, are distinctly original, and look well on the straight-grain morocco then in fashion." In other words, he was a conscientious artisan, but he was not a first-rate artist.

In fact, the British had never developed any real originality in bookbinding until Mr. Cobden-Sanderson revealed to us the possibilities of novel and modern beauty which still inhere in the art so many had called outworn and dead. Mr. Cobden-Sanderson is not only original, but he has a distinct style of his own—a style which others can and do borrow. There are in New York to-day half-a-dozen books bound by Mr. Zaehnsdorf in London which are not copies of any one of Mr. Cobden-Sanderson's bindings, but which are obviously the result of an attempt to imitate his style and to assimilate his method. No doubt certain of the Englishman's earlier efforts, in which the whole work of "forwarding" and "finishing" had been done by himself and his wife, are deficient technically; they do not open easily, for one thing, and it is difficult to use the books without breaking their backs. But these defects are not to be found in the later books from "The Doves Bindery," as Mr. Cobden-Sanderson now calls the workshop which he directs.

If it were not for Mr. Cobden-Sanderson in England, and for M. Marius-Michel and two or three others in France, one might despair of the bibliopegic art, for nearly all the rest of its practitioners are content to copy the old masters. Here, for example, is M. Léon Gruel, the catalogue of whose exhibit at Chicago is the third book on our list. M. Gruel is a devout student of the history of the art; to him we owe the important suggestion that the mysterious Gascon is perhaps Florimond Badier. He is a most accomplished craftsman. The bindings he displays in Chicago are most beautiful in execution; and fine as are the photographic reproductions in this catalogue, they scarcely do justice to the originals. But they are wholly lacking in originality; they are modified copies, or sometimes exact copies, of the works of the bookbinders of the past. They have no note of their own; they bear no impress of their own time. Miss Prideaux tells us how the commercial bookbinders of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries made blocks to copy mechanically the hand-wrought designs invented for book-lovers of fine taste. In this last quarter of the nineteenth century the commercial bookbinders are more original than the custom-binders—or, at least, the designs prepared for the leading publishers of America are more original, more interesting, and of a truth more artistic than those copies of old decorations which the best binders of Paris are now putting on new books.

It remains to be noted only that M. Thoinan's book, besides the history of the successive styles of binding, contains also a full account of the corporation of Parisian binders, based on laborious studies in the archives. It includes, further, a dictionary of binders and of writers about binding. Especially noteworthy in this dictionary are the articles on the unknown Gascon and on Florimond Badier.

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*The Silver Situation in the United States.* By F. W. Taussig. [Questions of the Day.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893.

NONE can question the propriety of labelling the subject treated by Prof. Taussig as one of the questions of the day; and as he brings the history down to the close of 1892, his work is not yet out of date. Within the year, it is to be hoped, he will have to add to it another chapter, equal in interest to any that it now contains, and far more comforting to those who desire the honor and stability of our Government. But at present there is nothing to add. The great exportation of gold has taken place since Prof. Taussig wrote, it is true, but it is sufficiently foreshadowed in his book; and as to the causes that brought it about, experience has added nothing to the teachings of theory. The Silver Law is still in force, and though the action of the Indian Government in stopping the coinage of silver is momentous, the change in the situation due to this cause cannot be estimated until Congress has debated and legislated.

We do not hesitate to say that this book is in all respects as excellent as it is opportune. It is extremely concise in statement, numbering only some 130 pages, but everything that is necessary is here. It cannot be read without close attention, but neither can the subject be understood by those who are not willing to give it close attention. The book is divided into two parts, the first, entitled "The Economic Situation," being devoted to an account of our silver legislation and its financial results. This portion is a model of lucid narration. For the events preceding 1878, the year of the Bland Act, reference is made to Prof. Laughlin's 'History of Bimetallism in the United States,' but these events are now of merely historical importance. The succeeding events are divided into four periods, according to the variations in the volume of our silver currency. From a careful study of the quantity of our circulation during these periods, Prof. Taussig reaches the conclusion that the growth of the country is such as to make an annual addition of $30,000,000 to the amount of our currency not more than will be, on the average, required to transact our increased business. He very properly, however, emphasizes the

importance of reckoning as money the transfers of credit indicated by checks, not only because the volume of money of this kind very far exceeds that of all other kinds, but also because its volume is subject to far more violent fluctuations. The proper recognition of these facts gives to Prof. Taussig's exposition here the highest degree of scientific accuracy that the subject admits of.

In the second part of his essay Prof. Taussig enters upon the field of controversy concerning the use of silver as money, and with excellent judgment he dismisses from consideration the long-exploded fallacies which play so prominent a part in current discussion. He is thus enabled to concentrate attention upon the really valid arguments in favor of bimetallism, and we do not think that any rational bimetallist can complain of the manner in which the arguments against the exclusive use of gold as a standard are stated. In our opinion, also, he gives to these arguments their full weight in reaching his decision, and we do not observe the slightest evidence of bias in his reasoning or of intolerance in his attitude. He concedes to the bimetallists their great contention, holding, in opposition to many writers of authority, that gold has appreciated, which in his view is only another way of saying that prices have fallen. He admits, too, that in itself this would increase the burden of debts, and even that many farmers may have actually suffered from this cause, in connection with certain others that have come into operation. But he argues with overwhelming force, upon the other hand, that improvements in production have more than compensated debtors. His argument is so compact that we can indicate it by a few quotations.

"If A borrows from B a hundred dollars, repayable in five years, and if at the end of the five years prices in general have fallen to one-half of the previous rates, B, in paying back to A the one hundred dollars, clearly returns twice as many commodities as he got. But if, at the same time, the efficiency of labor has been doubled by improvements in production, B can produce with the same labor twice as many commodities as before; and he returns to A the product of the same quantity of labor as he received. . . . It is true the creditor gets more commodities than he gave; but he gets the product of the same amount of labor as he devoted to the commodities originally lent; and why should he not share with the rest of the community the benefits of a general increase in the productiveness of labor? . . . The case clearly differs fundamentally from that of a simple rise in the value of money or general fall in both prices and wages. In the latter case, money incomes as well as the prices of commodities fall, and the debtor really pays back more than he got, not only in terms of commodities, but in terms of labor or sacrifice of income."

Such a case occurred when specie payments were resumed, or rather when resumption was approaching, after the civil war. Such has not been the case, however, since the demonetization of silver in this country. The case for bimetallism, therefore, fails for lack of proof. But there are positive arguments on the other side sufficient to dispel all apprehension of "the bare and jagged rocks of gold monometallism" which have so affected the imagination of President F. A. Walker. These, however, we will not rehearse. We have said enough to show our readers that in this little essay Prof. Taussig has furnished the materials not only for a complete understanding of the present silver situation, but also for a sufficient estimate of the bimetallic theory. The book deserves to be read by the learned as well as the ignorant, and the times should insure it the widest circulation.

*The Skeptics of the Italian Renaissance.* By John Owen. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1893. Pp. xvii, 420.

Mr. Owen has chosen a first-rate subject, and he has succeeded, in spite of limitations to which we shall refer hereafter, in producing a noteworthy book. The Renaissance is a period which has been treated from many points of view, and yet we cannot feel that any writer has exhausted its interest or summed up its significance. Indeed, the importance of that period cannot be overestimated. In antiquity mankind emerged from barbarism to civilization, as a child emerges from ignorance and becomes an educated man; but after the age of Attic and Latin culture, mankind receded into a condition of semi-barbarism, which lasted for many hundred years. Then followed a reawakening, a genuine new birth of culture and civilization. This is an experience for which no parallel can be found in the case of individual men. It suggests that the progress of the race is not uniform and regular, but fluctuating, and that the tide of reaction may flow far back towards ignorance. That a Renaissance should have been needed is one of the most startling facts in human development.

What were the conditions from which the race had to emancipate itself, and what the means by which it won freedom? The answer to these questions varies according to the estimate which each historian puts on the several phases of the Renaissance. Mr. Owen is right, we believe, in studying the Renaissance not merely as the period when the study of antiquity was revived, or as an æsthetic efflorescence, or as a readjustment of theological, political, or philosophical standards; he regards it as the period when men once more sought for truth. Dogma, tradition, superstition during nearly a thousand years had reduced the human mind to a state in which advance was almost impossible; in which fantastic notions passed for science, knowledge was a matter of quibble, and religion an unspiritualized routine. In the Renaissance, men came once more to use their reason. So Mr. Owen's sceptics are not simply "atheists," or deniers of the conventional creed, or wicked rebels against custom, but they are seekers after truth. Starting with this elemental conception, one possesses a criterion by which to judge the effects of the Renaissance in the domain of thought and religion, of art, politics, and science.

Mr. Owen introduces his subject by an examination of the general causes which led up to the new birth. He shows how commerce and the Crusades, by extending the acquaintance of Italians with the Orient, gave them a standpoint from which to compare their own ideals with those of alien peoples. The crusader, for instance, could not fail to perceive that his Mohammedan enemies, who, according to the narrow assumption of mediæval Christianity, lay beyond the pale of salvation, were usually not inferior to him in public or private virtue. Saladin was more than the peer of any of the Christian sovereigns who fought for the sepulchre of Christ. Mr. Owen well says that "the history of Islamism, taken as a whole, must be regarded as a powerful propaganda of free thought and liberal culture" (p. 64). He traces the influence of Arab philosophy, chiefly through the contact of the Christians with the Saracens in Spain, on Western Christendom. He follows the course of the secularization of literature from the rollicking parodies and naturalistic poems of the Goliards, through the mysteries and moralities, through the productions of troubadours and jongleurs, to the thoroughly unecclesiastical novels of Boccaccio. He shows the threefold reaction against the asceticism, the sacerdotalism, and the dogma of the Church. He might also with profit have indicated how the rise of the spirit of nationality tended to loosen the authority of the Papacy; because, while this feeling for national life did not then result in the establishment of a united Italian nation, it did help to break up the arrogance of the hierarchy, and elsewhere—as in France, England, Bohemia, and Hungary—it asserted itself against both the temporal and the spiritual encroachments of Rome.

Passing from general causes to leaders, Mr. Owen devotes ten pages to Dante, whom he regards as too great a dogmatist to be included in the list of truth-seekers who have contributed to human progress. The very vividness with which Dante painted the terrors of a material Hell, prolonged, Mr. Owen thinks, the belief in the monstrous doctrine of eternal damnation. We cannot agree with this opinion, for we should lay stress upon a spiritual interpretation of the 'Divine Comedy' that makes that epic of the soul as significant to-day as when it was written, although its readers may have outgrown the mediæval superstition concerning Hell and Purgatory. At least, Dante's influence as an intellectual solvent of literary and political thought deserves to be set forth more fully than Mr. Owen has done. To Petrarch, however, he does full justice; and if any scholar still thinks of Petrarch as merely a writer of matchless love-sonnets, he can here be enlightened. For Petrarch is one of those rare men who, like Bacon in the sixteenth century and Goethe in the eighteenth, take all knowledge for their province, and he summed up, better perhaps than either Bacon or Goethe could sum up, the knowledge of his time. It is interesting to note that Mr. Owen agrees with De Sanctis and others in holding that Laura, though at first addressed as the object of sensuous passion, came at last to be transfigured in Petrarch's imagination, as Beatrice was transfigured in Dante's. "Laura, the unattainable object of his youthful aspiration, became the object of other unattained desires, *e. g.*, undoubted Truth, unalloyed happiness" (p. 124). We must pass over Mr. Owen's chapter on Boccaccio, simply remarking that it is excellent, and his criticism of Machiavelli and Guicciardini. These are all men with whose work English-speaking readers are familiar. But Pulci is too little known, and therefore many persons will learn here for the first time his importance as a disseminator of liberal thought. His comic epic, the 'Morgante Maggiore,' resembles 'Don Quixote' in that it contains, under the cloak of playful satire, a profound meaning. Mr. Owen has done well in assigning Pulci to a high place among the sceptics of the Renaissance.

More than half of the book is taken up with the three thinkers who best represent the philosophical thought of the Renaissance. These are Pomponazzi, Giordano Bruno, and Vannini. The achievements of these men have been almost wholly neglected until this century, owing to the Catholic reaction in Italy, which suppressed their works, and to the fact that the movement in which they were pioneers was taken up in France, Germany, and England, whereby later men have inherited renown which belonged by right to them. Pomponazzi, as Mr. Owen shows, was the first to set up ethics, in opposition to the mandates of supernatural religion, as the guide of conduct. His discussions on the immortality of the soul have now perhaps a greater value his-

torically than essentially, but no one will dissent from such a proposition as this: "Whether the soul be mortal or immortal, death must be despised; and by no means must virtue be departed from, no matter what happens after death" (p. 201). The account here given of Bruno is superior to any other in English, and, if space permitted, we should like to examine it in detail. Of Vannini, too, we have an adequate description. He was by no means so noteworthy a thinker as Bruno, but many pregnant sentences—*e. g.*, "Miracles mark the youth and old age of a religion, not its mature vigor," or, "Evil is the result, not of supernatural and spiritual, but of physical causes" (p. 387)—establish his claim to our thoughtful consideration; and his early martyrdom for his opinions insures him our sympathy.

We spoke above of Mr. Owen's limitations: these are in the form rather than in the substance of his work. He knows thoroughly the literature of his subject; he selects wisely, and presents many admirable suggestions of his own; but he has chosen to intersperse his essays with dialogues in which two women and three men discuss not only the subject in hand but almost everything under the sun. This mixture of conversation and history is a mongrel; we despise mongrels of all kinds. In a second edition (and the merit of the book ought to carry it beyond one edition), we hope to see that these dialogues have been omitted, and that the body of the work has been somewhat trimmed; and further, that the innumerable misprints have been corrected. Thus improved, it ought to have a wide reading, for Mr. Owen is more profound than Symonds and more personal than Burckhardt.

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Arnold, M. Sohrab and Rustum. American Book Co. 20 cents.
Bacon, E. M. Boston Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Burdett-Coutts, Baroness: A Sketch of her Public Life and Work. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
Fuller, Edward. The Complaining Millions of Men. Harpers. $1.25.
Goodale, Frances A. The Literature of Philanthropy. Harpers. $1.
Graduate Courses. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 cents.
Musset, A. de. Frédéric et Bernerette. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Amblard & Meyer. 60 cents.
Remsburgh, J. B. Was Lincoln a Christian? *Truth Seeker* Co. 50 cents.
Richberg, E. O. R. Bunker Hill to Chicago. Chicago: Dibble Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Swinton, W. School History of the United States. American Book Co. 90 cents.
Tainsh, E. C. A Study of the Works of Tennyson. New ed. Macmillan. $1.75.
Tarducci, Francesco. John and Sebastian Cabot. Detroit: H. F. Brownson. $2.50.
The *Critic*, Jan.-June, 1893. *Critic* Co.
Tout, Prof. T. F. Edward the First. [Twelve English Statesmen.] Macmillan. 60 cents.
Warden, Florence. A Terrible Family. International News Co. 50 cents.
Warner, C. D. The Work of Washington Irving. Harpers. 50 cents.


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[*Continued from page iii.*]

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Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

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EDUCATION DEPARTMENT (ONTARIO),
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[*Educational continued on page v.*]

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 17, 1893.

## The Week.

THE President's departure from Washington, to spend the remainder of August on the Massachusetts coast, drives home the responsibility which now rests upon Senators and Representatives. The duty of calling Congress together and recommending the course of action which the exigency required was Mr. Cleveland's, and he has discharged it in a manner which commands the warm approval of good citizens, without distinction of party. He has done all that the Constitution and our theory of government require of the Executive in such an emergency. There is now only necessary "a wise and patriotic exercise of the legislative duty with which the people's representatives in Congress solely are charged"—to quote the apt words employed by the President in opening his message last week. Pending the discharge of this duty by the legislators, there is no call for the Executive's presence in Washington, while his absence puts an effectual embargo upon the stories that would otherwise be sure of circulation as to his attempting undue influence of Congress by the use of the appointing power.

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Large bodies proverbially move slowly, and it is quite as much as anybody could reasonably expect that the House of Representatives should agree to take a final vote on the silver question three weeks from the opening of the session. No room whatever is left for doubt that repeal of the purchase clause of the Sherman Act will be carried by a good majority when the roll is called a week from next Monday. The advocates of repeal do well to allow two weeks for debate, since the displays which the free-silver men will make in that time must result in making their cause all the more ridiculous and hopeless. What Lincoln said to Congress about the slavery issue is true of the currency issue: "This is essentially a people's contest." We have no doubt that they will make their wishes known in Washington with such emphasis and unanimity that they will have their way now as they did in 1861.

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One great advantage of the form fixed upon for the silver debate in the House is that it involves voting only on definite and intelligible propositions. What a ratio of 16 to 1 would mean we know, and so we do what one of 20 to 1 would be, and what a revival of the law of 1878 would be, and what an exclusive gold standard would be. By thus bringing the decision down to distinct terms we shall get rid of a great deal of the nebulous stuff that has passed current on the stump. A "currency adequate to the needs of commerce" might get the votes of many Representatives, on the ground that that was surely a harmless thing which all good men were in favor of, if it were not now necessary for the users of this fine phrase to come out from cover and say they mean by it putting fifty cents' worth of silver in a dollar. So with the various "per capita" and "poor man's money" disguises. They will all be stripped off, and the simple choice of a currency more or less depreciated and unstable brought out to be voted upon in the successive amendments. It will conduce to clearness of thought and to the right decision, but it will for ever make an end of a great many beautiful circumlocutions, like Senator Hill's "free bimetallic coinage."

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The proposal of Mr. Bland and a faction of his faction to change the legal ratio of gold to silver in our coinage to some other figure not yet determined, has been received by the Populists with high indignation. They say that a change of ratio from 16 to 20, or any other change, would give away the whole principle for which they have been contending. They say, furthermore, that such a change would add one-fourth to the national debt and to all private debts. They add that the "dollar of the fathers" would vanish with the change of ratio, and that all the magic appertaining to it would vanish with it. They also say that they are fighting for a larger volume of circulation, and that they have no interest in a fight which is merely for a larger dollar. We think that Mr. Bland has weakened his cause materially by entertaining the suggestion of a change of ratio. The loss of support among the Populists is not of much consequence. They number less than a dozen members, and their moral support, if that phrase is allowable, is even less than their numerical strength. But the moment the silver men leave the anchorage of 16 to 1 they will be dashed on the rocks. New questions will come up immediately upon which they can never agree among themselves. In the first place, the question *What ratio?* contains the germs of controversy lasting for years. In each international monetary conference the bimetallists have been balked by this question. So, too, in the British Monetary Commission of 1886 the bimetallist section could not agree. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that, knowing they could not agree, they did not try. They were gently taunted by their adversaries on the Commission, but they gave no answer except to say that it would be time enough to agree upon a ratio when the principle was settled in favor of bimetallism at some ratio. The rejoinder of the other side is, and always will be, that the numerical expression of the ratio is the very essence of the question, and that a decision in favor of bimetallism would be impossible unless the ratio were satisfactory. But, of course, we must know what ratio the other side propose before we can say whether it would be satisfactory. So the scientific pursuit after the double standard takes a circular motion like the chase of a kitten after its own tail.

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Senator Stewart of Nevada carries about a great fund of misinformation for the confusion of himself and others. Here is a sample of it. Senator Dolph was making a speech last week in favor of the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Act, and against free coinage, and against State bank-notes, and Mr. Stewart interrupted him to say:

> "Let me ask the Senator from Oregon whether he is aware of the fact that the French Government has $260,000,000 of silver in its treasury and $700,000,000 in circulation, and all its obligations are payable the same as ours, in either silver or gold."

Senator Dolph was not able to admit that the French Government had $260,000,000 of silver in its treasury, or any other amount, but he was prepared to admit that the Bank of France had a considerable amount in its vaults. Then the Nevada Senator proceeded to affirm: (1.) That nobody could obtain gold for exportation from the Bank of France. (2.) That nobody could obtain gold for exportation from Germany. (3.) That no government except that of the United States had "robbed the people of gold and given the creditor the preference when the option belonged to the Government." This last saying is rather obscure, but is supposed to mean that Secretary Carlisle ought to have redeemed the new Treasury notes in silver and kept his gold, and that when he paid out gold for Treasury notes he "robbed the people." These are very strange words coming from a man who contends that silver is as good as gold, if not better. Why is it "robbing the people" to pay out one metal instead of the other? It appears to us that Mr. Stewart has, in this extraordinary splutter, betrayed the same preference for gold that he showed when he required the buyers of his town lots to give notes and mortgages for the deferred payments in the yellow metal exclusively. It should be added that the representatives of Germany in the recent Brussels Conference denied flatly that any obstacle had ever been interposed by the Reichsbank to the withdrawal of gold for exportation or for any purpose whatsoever. Moreover, the cable says that $1,000,000 gold was drawn from the Bank of France on Friday for exportation to America.

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The Ministerial Alliance of Denver has prepared a memorial addressed to the Pre-

sident, asking that he proclaim a day for national fasting and prayer in view of the existing financial distress and "the great legalized sins of the nation." The only legalized sin we know of that bears on the financial distress is that of endangering the standard of value by the silver purchases. If the Denver clergy mean that, we are heartily with them in thinking it a national humiliation and danger, though we cannot believe they are recommending the surest way to remove it. As far as fasting is concerned, the natural operation of the Silver Law seems to be taking care of that, especially in Colorado, and the kind of prayer which the situation calls for is best summed up in the old saying, *Laborare est orare.* The men with whom the Denver ministers should labor are Senators Teller and Wolcott; and the ministers and other professional men, and particularly the business men, of the rest of the country should see to it that their representatives in Congress are left in no doubt as to what the people need and want. Then in a few weeks the Ministerial Alliance will feel more like calling for a day of national thanksgiving and rejoicing, and to such a call, or to a plan for making the regular Thanksgiving Day in November one of devout commemoration of our escape from a depreciated currency, we should have no objection whatever.

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The action of the Ohio Democratic Convention in sustaining President Cleveland's position on the silver question is a significant illustration of the power of public opinion. There is little doubt that there was a strong free-coinage sentiment in the Convention. The Chairman was so confident that this sentiment would prevail that he made a furious pro-silver speech, borrowing his economic ideas mainly from the school of Peffer, Bland, Jones & Company. He would not have done this, it is reasonable to suppose, had he suspected that the Convention would repudiate him and his views by adopting with practical unanimity a platform in favor of the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law. What he did not take into account was the force of public opinion among the people of the State. The delegates felt the pressure of that so strongly that they had no alternative but to sustain the President. What happened in the Convention will happen in Congress when the time for action arrives there. Public sentiment will make itself felt so imperatively that every Representative and Senator who hopes for a political future will discover that he can find no excuse for voting against repeal. There is really only one side to the question, and the pretence that there is more will not be able to survive public discussion. The business interests of the country know what they want Congress to do, and Congress will be forced, willy-nilly, to do it.

It is now becoming plain that the money market has emerged from its recent chaos, obtaining relief, as a panic market always does, by wholly unexpected means. This monetary relief is visible and tangible; it has already influenced the market for time-loans—though movements in this quarter should still be reckoned on with caution—and it has been reflected by a partial recovery in stocks. We refer again to these developments, however, for the purpose of warning people against reasoning too boldly from them. There is a disposition, most marked, as usual, on the mercurial Stock Exchange, to conclude that since temporary relief has come without the restoration of a sound currency, the problem of the vote at Washington is no longer the foremost financial issue. People who argue thus are reckoning sadly without their host. The $22,000,000 new gold imports have been obtained from London; how? Partly through sale in advance, at panic prices, of our agricultural produce; but chiefly, as all close observers understand, through sale or loan to English capitalists of huge blocks of American securities. Does any reasonable man suppose that London would keep such investments if it were known that United States finances were to be plunged into the abyss of free silver coinage? Why was the twenty or thirty millions currency which this new gold replaces hoarded in safe-deposit vaults? Clearly, for the very reason which would make timid people and hard-pressed banks hoard the new money if Congress were to threaten ruin afresh. We state the case thus plainly, not to revive alarm, because we believe that Congress will act wisely and as promptly as possible. Europe apparently believes so too, hence Europe is no longer selling on our market. But then she is no longer buying, and is seemingly following the prudent policy of watching. Our own investors having faith in the action of Congress, their liquidation, too, has ceased. But neither are they accumulating fresh lines of securities. It is a "room-traders' market." This is a situation very easy to understand, and it can be hardly overlooked that its chief, if not its sole, basis is belief in sound legislation.

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Under the title, "Wrong Conceptions," the Republican editor of the *American Wool and Cotton Reporter* rebukes his fellow-Republican editors who have been endeavoring to read a dread of tariff changes in the present financial disturbance, and who have been representing the great industries of the country as on the verge of ruin. In regard to the textile industries at least, for which, he says, he can "speak by the book," he affirms that they are "not suffering depression because of any inherent condition of the market—the cause is external, it comes from the monetary disturbance; and, the cause removed, the recovery is only a question of a short time." He gives the highest and most unqualified praise to the President's message, and even walks up calmly to the tariff paragraph of it, without any of that snorting and backing and rearing in which the old party war-horses feel compelled to indulge. Settle the currency question, says the *Reporter*, and "a brisk business will be done."

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The showing of the Fall River mills for the quarter ending July 31 is more favorable than would have been supposed. Thirty-one corporations, representing nearly $19,000,000 in capital stock, have paid out in dividends during the three months almost $415,000—an average of 2.21 per cent., while five paid 3 per cent., one 4, and one 5. This is partly accounted for by the fact that the mills were working largely during this period on contracts which had been booked at higher prices than have ruled during the last sixty days; but, even after making this allowance, the showing is exceedingly satisfactory. That the existing depression is due to the lack of confidence caused by the silver situation, rather than to the fear of tariff changes, is proved by the fact that the Fall River mills did so well many months after the election in which the country declared against the McKinley tariff. Thomas Dolan, the well-known textile manufacturer of Philadelphia, cites the experience of that city to the same effect. "In the woollen business," he says, "everything went along swimmingly until the 1st of July. Orders came in good and strong for fall goods. The situation was like this: Manufacturers had the benefit of the McKinley Act, which kept out foreign competitors, while they were able to buy raw material at lower prices than during the previous year. Conditions were thus favorable, and, with the good demand, everything was prosperous until the silver craze upset the country." Mr. Dolan, who is a Republican in politics, declares his belief that "the depression is almost wholly due to the silver policy," and that "confidence will be restored to the financial community by the repeal of the purchasing clause of the Sherman Act."

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Some months ago Mr. Edward Atkinson proposed that all outstanding arrears of pensions, which the Commissioner estimates will all be audited before the end of 1894, should be treated as "a part of the existing public debt," and provided for by the issue of exchequer bills at 3 per cent. interest, which would at once ease off the Treasury by $48,000,000. The Hartford *Courant*, Senator Hawley's newspaper, now comes forward with a scheme looking further in the same direction. Premising that from 1861 to 1892 the Government paid out the enormous sum of $1,418,348,212 for pensions, and that the appropriations on that account for the current fiscal year are $144,956,000, with an estimated deficiency of

$10,508,621 besides, the *Courant* characterizes these payments as "a legacy of the war," and "part of the cost of the Union," and asks, "Why should the immediate present bear the whole of this heavy burden, whose benefits are not for now alone, but for by-and-by as well?" It suggests that we divide with posterity future pension payments, and issue bonds enough to pay say half the cost of the annual bill. The *Courant* urges not only that such a plan would be sound and just in the long run, but that its early adoption, and the issue in the near future of $70,000,000 to $75,000,000 of low-rate gold bonds, would not merely relieve the present situation, as the banks would be quick to pick up such bonds and issue currency against them, but would also take so much off from the taxes. The principal and fatal objection to this plan is, that it would be made the groundwork for an enlargement of the pension list to the extent of the borrowing powers of the Government.

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We are having a practical demonstration of the usefulness of the new quarantine regulations passed by the last Congress. Surgeon General Wyman of the Marine Hospital Service is present in person almost daily at the Quarantine Station in the lower bay, and is coöperating harmoniously with Dr. Jenkins in the work of examining the passengers from incoming ports suspected of cholera infection. The Surgeon-General has on duty also Dr. Young of the Marine Hospital Service, and is making it very clear that he looks upon the new law as conferring both responsibilities and powers upon him which he is determined to exercise to the full extent of his ability. The whole country has reason to feel safer than ever against a cholera invasion because of this conduct. The Surgeon General's presence will diffuse a stronger feeling of confidence in the New York Quarantine than has hitherto been possible.

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The appointment by a Democratic President of a negro as postmaster in an Ohio town is a sign of the times. George Harding is the man, and Wilberforce the town. Wilberforce is the seat of a college devoted to the education of colored youth, and the county in which it is situated has the largest negro population, proportionally, of any in Ohio, though of course a large majority of the people in both county and town are white. But it never occurred to the Republicans to make one of the negroes postmaster, and we are under the impression that this is the first time a black man has been given such an office in Ohio.

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It must occur to the Hon. Patrick Egan that his final return from Chili now presents a more or less melancholy contrast with his temporary return during the Presidential campaign of last year. Then he was received with great favor by the Republican potentates, and was taken out to Ophir Farm to be dined by the candidate for the Vice-Presidency and to address the yeomanry of Westchester County at a spontaneous serenade, followed by a collation in the evening. Those were glorious days for the Hon. Patrick. Everything he said and every movement he made was chronicled with deferential carefulness, for there was a profound conviction in the mind of the Republican Vice Presidential aspirant that an innumerable host of Irish voters was following close upon the coat-tails of Mr. Egan. When election day arrived, it was evident from the figures of the returns that there had been some mistake about the Irish vote, for there were no signs of it in the Republican total. It happens, therefore, that when Mr. Egan reappears among us now, the most that he gets in the way of attention is a very bad wood cut of his features, and a few lines of space for his views on the monetary crisis. Small wonder that the announcement is made that, after a brief sojourn here, Mr. Egan will go to his former home in Nebraska, and will, at the same time, we feel authorized in predicting, pass away for ever from American politics. He was the last of the Blaine Irishmen.

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The most cursory examination of the Irish "estimates" would enable any one to form his conclusions as to the costliness of the task of seeking to govern a country without the assistance of the effective public opinion of its inhabitants. The report of the Irish Land Commissioners to the 31st of March last is in truth a review of the complication and cost involved in the tenure of land. The simple system of individual contract prevailing in most countries, in Ireland was untempered by the free play of public opinion, and hopelessly collapsed upon the outburst of the Land League agitation. Upon its wreck has been reared an elaborate system of inquiry, arrangement, settlement, and purchases under a permanent Land Commission. Judicial rents are fixed by chief commissioners and sub-commissioners, by valuers and by civil-bill courts. Fair rents are fixed by agreement and by arbitration, by commissioners, and by civil-bill courts. Appeals are heard. Orders are made for laborers' cottages and allotments. Judicial leases and fixed tenancies are arranged. Leases are inquired into, and if unjust declared void. Lessees are declared permanent yearly tenants. The surrender of holdings by middle-men is negotiated. Ten million pounds was granted for the sale of land to tenants under the Act of 1885, and £30,000,000 further guaranteed by taxes on Ireland, under the extremely complicated procedure of the Act of 1891. The present report is illustrated by ninety-five tables.

Immense benefits have been conferred upon the Irish agriculturists. Altogether, since the inception of the legislation in 1881, 288,054 cases of fair rent have been fixed, dealing with 8,666,151 of the 20,000,000 acres of Ireland. The rental in these cases has been reduced from £5,975,697 to £4,733,262 per annum, or 20.7 per cent. This reduction by law in Ireland, after a fierce agitation and untold suffering, is no greater than the rent reductions brought about in Great Britain by voluntary agreement. About £12,000,000 of the £40,000,000 already provided for has been lent to 30,000 persons to enable them to become proprietors. Of the annual instalments but 1 per cent. is any way in arrear, and an almost infinitesimal proportion can be considered as irrecoverable. So much for the average honesty, under reasonable conditions, of the Irish tenantry. The reductions in rent above noted have induced a perhaps corresponding amount of reduction by voluntary agreement out of court. The report by no means sums up all the benefits (in so far as the breaking down of ordinary economic principles is likely to be of permanently enduring benefit) assured to the Irish people by the agitation from which they are emerging. Laborers' houses by the thousand have been erected over the length and breadth of the country, and a system of registration of title, as yet greatly hampered by legal prejudices, has been instituted. It would be as easy to persuade the French that their great Revolution was not an untold benefit to their country as it would be to persuade the Irish to turn their backs upon the Land League.

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The present protective laws of France were brought about by a combination between the manufacturing and the farming interests. For the sake of getting duties of nearly 70 per cent. on their wares, the manufacturers conceded to the farmers about half that rate on grain and various other food products, though they still insisted upon free silk and wool as necessary to their business. This combination was entered into rather grudgingly by the agriculturists, one of whom said that a quarter of the products of French agriculture was "outrageously sacrificed to the Mo'och of free trade," and it now seems in danger of being broken up entirely. The severe drought in some parts of France has cut off the supplies of forage, and driven the price of cattle down to about one-sixth of what it was a year ago. The cattle-owners appealed for aid to the Chamber, which reluctantly gave them free entry of hay and straw, but refused, by large majorities, to grant them free corn and oats. The result has been to open the farmers' eyes to the beauties of protection, and it is thought that they will hereafter be found taking much more kindly to the Moloch of free trade.

*THE EXPERIENCE OF FRANCE.*

In his speech in the House on Friday Mr. Bland quoted the British Gold and Silver Commission of 1888 to prove that the bimetallic law of France at the ratio of 15½ to 1 kept the market ratio steady at that ratio for the period of seventy years, from 1803 to 1873. This is one of the fictions of the silverites from which no amount of refutation will suffice to loosen them. But we will try to shake them once more. We might ask, as a preliminary question, why the spell was broken in 1873. The argument, based upon the supposed fact that silver and gold ratio was steady for the seventy years in question, is that there was a peculiar force in the French law causing that steadiness. Why did this magic cease to work in 1873? France did not close her mint to silver until after the market ratio had changed. It was nothing but the change of market ratio, which had begun to drain her of gold, that drove France to stop the coinage of silver. The bimetallists themselves admit this when they throw upon Germany the blame of forcing the hand of France by selling silver in 1873 and later. So it appears, even according to their own showing, that the French bimetallic law of 1873 was good only for fair weather. When a strain came, like the selling of silver by a neighboring country, the bimetallic law gave way. So the real question at issue is, *how much* strain such a law could possibly endure. If we admit all that is claimed for the experience of France, the sum total of the gain is that a bimetallic law has a *tendency* to hold the market ratio at a particular level, but that this tendency may be overcome by the conditions of supply and demand.

Even this is more than we can concede. And first let us glance at the report of the British Commission of 1888. This Commission consisted of men of a high order of intelligence, but, as it happened, it did not embrace a single person who could be called an expert. Not one of the members had any special familiarity with the subject in hand, while all of them had general familiarity with it. Accordingly they were in the mood to accept as true any scrap of misinformation that had passed for a long time unchallenged. Such a scrap of error was the statement that France had had the two metals in concurrent circulation for seventy years, from 1803 to 1873, at the ratio of 15½ to 1. They took this for granted and proceeded to advance certain *a priori* arguments to account for the remarkable steadiness of the market ratio. Among other things they said:

"The fact that the owner of the silver could in the last resort take it to those mints and have it converted into coin which would purchase commodities at the ratio of 15½ of silver to 1 of gold, would, in our opinion, be likely to affect the price of silver in the market generally, whoever the purchaser and for whatever the country it was destined. It would enable the seller to stand out for a price approximating to the legal ratio, and would tend to keep the market steady at about that point."

When their final report was published, Mr. Robert Giffen, the statistician of the British Board of Trade, who is a real expert in monetary science, took up this paragraph, so fraught with mischief, and showed that it was founded upon an entire misapprehension, for the reason that France did not have the two metals in concurrent circulation during the period under consideration, but had had them alternately, first one and then the other. He produced and published the market reports of Paris for each month from 1820 to 1847, during all of which time there had been a premium on gold ranging from ½ per cent. to 2 per cent. Nobody would pay a debt in gold when ½ per cent. could be saved by paying it in silver. On every debt of 1,000 francs from five to twenty francs could be saved, according to the premium of the day, by paying in silver. The literature of the period is full of proofs that gold was not in circulation at this time, although it was coined more or less at the French mint for money-changers and hoarders.

After 1847 a change took place due to the gold discoveries in California and Australia. Silver went to a premium in France, and was exported and melted to such an extent that the country was left with an insufficient supply of small change, and was obliged to adopt a token coinage by debasing the fineness of all coins smaller than five francs to 835 thousandths, instead of 900. After 1867 there was another change. Gold went to a small but increasing premium, which became so excessive in 1873 that the coinage of franc pieces was limited by law, and stopped altogether in 1876, in order to prevent the exportation of gold. In short, the facts show that France did not have the double standard in practice during the period in question any more than we in America had it. Mr. Giffen showed conclusively, too, that the French law of 1803 had no *tendency* to hold the two metals together. It should be remarked that as no reason has been assigned by the bimetallists for the spell coming to an end in 1873, there is as little reason for putting its beginning in 1803. The ratio of 15½ to 1 was adopted by France in 1785, and was continuous from that time, and was merely reënacted in 1803. On this point we will cite what Chevalier, the French economist, says in his celebrated treatise on money. Chevalier, it should be added, was the great champion of silver in his day.

"In the year XI. (1803)), when the law of seventh Germinal was enacted, which established for a temporary standard the ratio of 1 to 15½ between the two metals, this ratio actually existed in the commercial world; but little by little it changed, and soon gold came to be worth ordinarily a little more than 15½ times as much as silver—it has sometimes been worth a little above 16 times as much. This discrepancy, which has usually been about 1½ per cent. (that is, one-half of that which manifested itself from 1726 to 1785) would have had no effect if the prevision of Gaudin had been correct. On the contrary, it had a very considerable effect: *it sufficed to retire gold from circulation.* A few years after the passage of the law of the year XI. gold became so scarce that people had to buy it of the money-changers when they wanted to carry that kind of cash on their journeys. In fact, the circulation of the two metals side by side which Gaudin flattered himself that he should establish by means of the coinage of pieces denominated twenty francs and forty francs, *had ceased to exist shortly after the year XI., and twenty-five years after that date the circulation consisted of silver only*" ('La Monnaie,' p. 216).

*CANADIAN AND AMERICAN BANKING.*

The comparative freedom of the Canadian banks from the troubles now afflicting the American banks and the American people, has been discussed of late. In an interview in the *Evening Post* Mr. Walter Watson attributed the Canadian exemption to its system of branch banks. He pointed out that Canada, with its few leading banks, but with the branches of those banks extending throughout the country, was in a better position than our own bankers to have exact information about the true state of affairs, and could therefore arrange banking matters much better, anticipating and perhaps preventing so great a collapse of credit as we are now witnessing.

That the system of branch banks has great merits cannot be denied. Besides the advantage of more precise and extended information, the system lends itself also to a smaller proportion of reserves. The joint-stock banks of England, with their branches running up into the hundreds, are content with a proportion of reserve to liabilities of but 12 to 15 per cent. Saturday week's bank statement for the New York Clearing-house, though unusually poor, showed a reserve of about 21 per cent. The percentage of reserve, fixed by statute at 25 per cent. for city and 15 per cent. for country banks, is purely arbitrary. It is a high proportion, judged from a foreign standpoint. It is possible for a bank doing a regular business among conservative men to be safe in ordinary times with but half this legal requirement. The actual percentage needed must vary with the kind of business done. Now the low average of London banks is due in part to confidence in English finance and in part doubtless to the system of branches, which seems to require less money in each case, the home banks keeping the reserve for the hundreds of branches. With us to-day our lack of currency is in part due to the wish of each small bank throughout the country, acting independently, to have on hand a larger amount of cash than usual. So long, however, as there exists a popular, though unjust, prejudice against banks, it is useless to discuss the question of establishing branches in the United States.

But granting the branch plan its proper praise, there still remain large differences in national conditions which cannot be ascribed to that cause alone. Branches in Australia, for example, did not prevent disaster there. The want of branch banks did not cause our present disaster. The New York Clearing-house Association has

been, from the day that it began to issue loan certificates, virtually one gigantic institution, larger than any bank with branches in the whole world, except perhaps the Bank of England and the Bank of France, both of which have branches. But the example and weight of the Clearing-house Association had no effect whatever to prevent the hoarding of money when the public began to apprehend a change in the standard of value from gold to silver. The reason is obvious. No bank or union of banks can do more than pay their obligations in the legal-tender money of the country. If causes are at work to change the legal tender, why, the banks are in the stream and must swim with it. Frightened depositors, however, will try to escape. Everybody who can will lay something aside, in order to be provided for the worst that can happen, and, as we all know, the withdrawal of one dollar actual cash removes the foundation of ten to twenty dollars of credit. The primary difference between us and Canada is that the latter is not exposed to a change of standard, and hence her fabric of credit is not impaired.

Moreover, the bank note system of Canada is grounded upon the true principle that the bank's bills receivable shall provide for and redeem the circulating notes. Bank-notes are issued by the discount of commercial paper. A B offers his promissory note at 60 or 90 days for discount. It is for the bank officers to know that this note represents goods produced and actually in the market, either sold or ready to be sold. Any other kind of promissory note is accommodation or speculation. The discounting of the latter is not entitled to be called banking. When the bank discounts the promissory note, it may and generally will pay out its own notes to a corresponding sum. So long as the bills receivable are good the bank-notes must be good, because the one offsets the other. This is the Canadian system. We need not now consider the safeguards employed. They have been found sufficient thus far, although they do not require a deposit of Government bonds. It is obvious that as long as the safeguards are sufficient there cannot be a "currency famine" like that which we are now suffering from.

Another reason why Canada is not suffering like the United States lies in the fact that Canada has not been so progressive as we have. The lack of advancement in numbers and in wealth has long been known to and bewailed by Canadian statesmen. This is due to a circumscribed territory. It has a physical cause and cannot be helped. In a country which advances in prosperity but slowly, banking cannot well be otherwise than slow and cautious. While Canada has been standing still, comparatively speaking, the United States has advanced by leaps and bounds. Faith in American enterprises has in general been well deserved and well kept. If we had been restricted to a humdrum career, we should, like Canada, have been beyond a credit panic. As it is, it is not the industries and railroads of the United States which are unsound, generally speaking. Suspicion has indeed reached them, but only because of the distrust of all values first engendered by the fear of our currency. Great Britain itself would be in a panic if a law were enacted there throwing doubt upon the standard of value. London, with its enormous structure of credit, would feel the effects of such a law at once and disastrously.

Of course we have ourselves to thank for the unfortunate position in which business is placed. Yet, as compared with Canada, our distress is great in proportion to our previous prosperity. Our aim should be to strengthen our credit by a good banking system, though not necessarily by branch banks, so that we may have the old-time prosperity, and yet with safety. It is certainly the duty of Americans to go on utilizing the great advantages which our country offers to the enterprising; but if we are to succeed in this, we must take especial pains to support the credits by which alone great advances in wealth and prosperity are easily possible. We can thus secure our future, while having Canadian conservatism and security too.

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### *THE BERING SEA DECISION.*

It is clear to any one who will read the official correspondence that the Paris arbitrators have simply put us back where we were in 1890, and have given us, after three years of tremendous shedding of ink and discharge of argument and a costly arbitration, only what we might have had then for the asking. From the very beginning, the British Government showed itself willing to come to an amicable agreement about a close season. Mr. Bayard was in a fair way to secure from Lord Salisbury in 1888 all that was needed, with the additional advantage of having Russia a party to the agreement, when the Presidential election and the request of Canada for delay broke off the negotiations. But the willingness of Great Britain to come to a friendly understanding remained unchanged, and on April 30, 1890, Sir Julian Pauncefote offered to Mr. Blaine what were substantially the same terms that the arbitrators now impose—or what, under the further negotiation that was invited, might easily have been made the same.

Expressing for the twentieth time the earnest desire of his Government for a friendly settlement of the dispute, and for "the preservation of the fur-seal species for the benefit of mankind," Sir Julian proposed (1) "that pelagic sealing should be prohibited in the Bering Sea, the Sea of Okhotsk, and the adjoining waters, during the months of May and June, and during the months of October, November, and December, which may be termed the 'migration periods' of the fur-seal"; and (2) "that all sealing vessels should be prohibited from approaching the breeding islands within a radius of ten miles." The use of firearms and other minor matters were to be settled in view of the further evidence to be brought to light by special inquiries. Thus the United States were freely offered substantially all that they have now secured. But Mr. Blaine replied that the proposals "cannot be accepted," and that the United States could not be expected to be content with anything less than an acknowledgment that their "rights within the Bering Sea and on the islands thereof" are "absolute."

Later on he proceeded to develop his conception of what those "rights" were and were founded on, and on December 17, 1890, stated, as the real "issues" between the two Governments, precisely those five points all of which have now been declared to be untenable, on three of them one of the American arbitrators, Justice Harlan, being unable to sustain the position of his own Government. Mr. Blaine was especially emphatic on our property rights in the seals, in a letter of April 14, 1891, dwelling upon the "homing instinct" of the seals and all the rest of it in the way carried to such ridiculous lengths by the arguments at Paris. Thus it appears that all these points, which he said made up the only "issue," and which he put into the American case, have been thrown out of court. Mr. Blaine's history has been declared, one of his own arbitrators concurring, to be fiction, his geography pure fancy, and his international law a mere whim; and the result of the long and expensive arbitration is to give us what he contemptuously refused in 1890.

The part which Mr. E. J. Phelps has played in the whole affair is not one that he or his countrymen can look upon with complacency. In a letter to Mr. Bayard, of September 12, 1888, he practically advised our Government to go to war with Great Britain, international law or no international law. Nothing else could have been intended by or could have followed from his advice to make a "resolute stand," and his "earnestly recommending that the vessels that have been already seized be firmly held, and that measures be taken to capture and hold every one hereafter found concerned in it [sealing]." This was an extraordinary letter to have come from the American Minister to England, and Mr. Bayard simply filed it away as a curiosity. But when Mr. Blaine came in, he seems to have found it, to have approved of it, and acted upon it. Certainly he published it in 1891 with approval, and certainly he seemed prepared to provoke a war in 1890 in the line of its recommendations. It was only the flat notice, served upon Harrison by Lord Salisbury, that the United States Government would be held responsible for seizing

British vessels upon the high seas, that led to the temporary *modus vivendi* and the subsequent arbitration. Mr. Phelps, however, disapproved of such a weak policy, and his voice was still for war no longer ago than in his argument at Paris, when he said that, had he been President, he never would have submitted the question to arbitration at all.

The result, especially in view of Justice Harlan's judicial-mindedness, is a fresh triumph for international arbitration.

### *OWNED AND RENTED HOMES.*

ACCORDING to the eleventh census, there were resident in New England on the first day of June, 1890, 1,034,262 families. Bulletins giving a summary of the returns of farm and home ownership and encumbrance have been issued for each one of the six States in that section of the country, and from the figures therein contained it appears that, of the total number of families, 461,414 resided upon farms or in houses owned by some member or members of the families occupying them, while the remaining 55 per cent., or 572,848 families, lived in hired habitations.

Among farmers, proprietors are proportionately more numerous and tenants less so than is the case among the non-farming classes of the community. Of the 190,361 New England farming families, no less than 165,455, or very nearly 87 per cent. of the whole, own their farms, while of the 843,901 other families only 295,595, or but a trifle over 35 per cent., were not tenants. It further appears that, excluding the farms altogether, home ownership is much more frequent in the rural districts and in the smaller villages and towns than it is in the cities, and that as a rule the more populous the city the smaller is the proportion of its inhabitants who are the proprietors of the houses in which they live. Thus, the percentage of owning to total families was 46 in the case of non-farming families residing outside of cities of at least 8,000 inhabitants, 31 in cities of from 8,000 to 100,000 inhabitants, and but 19 in the cities of over 100,000 inhabitants.

In other words, comparing the farmers with the people of Boston and Providence, the only two New England cities with over 100,000 inhabitants each, we find that, proportionately, proprietors of their own roof-trees are about four and a half times more numerous among the former than among the latter. Of course it does not follow that, because the general rule is that the more populous the city the smaller is the proportion of its people who own their homes, a particular city of, say, 50,000 inhabitants must necessarily have relatively more home owners than a city of half a million people. Special local conditions may, and in particular cases do, more than offset the influence of the general tendency. Thus, in Holyoke, with 35,673 inhabitants, only 16.16 per cent. of the families own their homes, as against 18 43 per cent. in Boston, with a population of 448,477. No attempt was made by the Census Office to find out how many people owned residences. All it tried to to do was to ascertain how many people owned the particular house in which they lived, and how many did not. Of course it frequently happens that the proprietor of one or many houses does not live in any one of them, but may himself be a renter of an entire house or of a "flat" from some one else, or may live in a boarding-house or at a hotel. In the census such a person figures as a renter.

The reasons why a very large proportion of the inhabitants of cities, and especially of our larger cities, do not own the houses in which they live are many, and not a few of them are obvious. In the first place, the larger the city the more costly, as a rule, is the average house in it, the value of the ground being so much greater. Thus, while the average Massachusetts mortgaged farm is worth $3,158, and the average mortgaged house outside of the cities $2,660, the average value of such a house in cities of from 8,000 to 100,000 inhabitants is $4,167, and in Boston $7,026. In all great urban communities the proportion of the purely transient population is always important. Neither the rich nor the poor persons so situated are likely, except under very peculiar circumstances, to be the owners of the houses in which they happen to be when the census is taken. Practically all of the tenement, apartment, and boarding-house and hotel population will be included in the families who hire their houses. Then in cities there are very many people, quite well enough off to own the houses in which they live, who do not do so because, as they happen to be situated, it is cheaper or more convenient for them to rent.

These and other causes sufficiently explain the very much larger proportion of proprietors among the farmers than among the inhabitants of cities, not only in New England, but throughout the country, if scattered States in other sections for which the statistics on this subject have been published can be accepted as fair samples. It is not easy to explain, however, why it is that, in New England, of the homes other than farms occupied by their owners, so much larger a proportion are under mortgage than is the case with the farms. So much has been said and written about mortgaged farms that it will probably be a surprise to most persons to learn that in New England only 28 per cent. of the farms owned by their occupants are mortgaged, as against 31 per cent. of the homes outside of the cities, 42 per cent. in the cities of between 8,000 and 100,000 inhabitants, and 39 per cent. in the two cities with more than 100,000 inhabitants each.

From the returns thus far published for other States, however, it seems probable that, as a general rule throughout the country, the reverse is true, as it is even in the New England States of Maine and Vermont. Among the six New England States there are some curious differences in the proportion of owned and hired and of free and encumbered habitations. The peculiarities of Rhode Island (in which the tenant farmers are proportionately very much more numerous than in the other States, constituting as they do 25 per cent. of all the farming families, while on the other hand less than 20 per cent. of the farm-owning families have encumbrances on their places—a smaller proportion than in any other New England State) may be passed over as unimportant on account of the small number of farming families in the State, viz., only 5,500 all told. It is not, however, so very easy to dismiss or explain the fact that while in Maine only eight and in New Hampshire only eleven out of every 100 farming families are renters, in Vermont no less than eighteen hire the land they till; or that while only 22 per cent. of the Maine and New Hampshire farms occupied by their owners are mortgaged, in Vermont 44 per cent. are subject to such encumbrance. On the other hand, in respect to the percentage the encumbrances bear to the value of the encumbered property, as that value is estimated by the owners, there is very little variation among these States, the extreme range being from 36.68 per cent. of the aggregate value of the encumbered farms of Maine to 45 03 per cent. of the value of the encumbered homes of Massachusetts. Nor is the range of the average interest paid great, varying from 5.38 per cent. in the cities of Connecticut to 6.26 per cent. on the farms of Maine.

In the value of the encumbered farms and of the encumbered homes outside of the cities, there is a very great difference between the three northernmost States and the three southernmost, as the following table shows:

| State. | Average Value of Encumbered Farms. | Average Value of Encumbered Homes Outside Cities. |
|---|---|---|
| Maine | $1,449 | $1,592 |
| New Hampshire | 1,940 | 2,014 |
| Vermont | 2,405 | 1,831 |
| Massachusetts | 3,158 | 2,660 |
| Rhode Island | 3,581 | 2,786 |
| Connecticut | 3,115 | 2,726 |

### THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.—III.

FINE ARTS: PICTURES BY AMERICAN ARTISTS — SCULPTURAL AND PICTORIAL DECORATION.

CHICAGO, July, 1893.

A MOST gratifying thing about the American exhibition is the large number of good portraits. The two small beautifully drawn portraits of a lady by T. W. Dewing, the stately full-length seated figure of a lady in a black gown by Frederick P. Vinton, the brilliant and remarkably life-like "Portrait of Mr. Joe Evans" by Alfred Q. Collins, the fine picture-portrait of Augustus St. Gaudens by Kenyon Cox, and the excellent full-length figure of a boy in a blue suit by the same artist, the seated figure of a lady in white by E. H. Blashfield, the picturesque "Portrait of Mme. Eames-Story" by Julian Story, "My Sister Lydia" by Edmund C. Tarbell, and "Portrait of Miss E. A. H." by Carroll Beckwith, are some of

those that for one or another merit are conspicuous. Mr. Thayer seems less happily represented than he might have been, with two works that scarcely show his best qualities, "Portrait of a Lady" and "Brother and Sister." Mr. Chase, on the other hand, is seen in one of his best phases in the full-length figure of a little girl in a white dress, "Alice—A Portrait." A very well composed and soundly painted picture is the "Portrait of a Lady" by Samuel Isham, and other notable works in portraiture are those signed by Frank Fowler, Charles Sprague Pearce, Jules L. Stewart, Frank Benson, Charles E. Boutwood, Eastman Johnson, W. W. Churchill, George W. Maynard, Anna Lea Merritt, Cecilia Beaux, and Dora Wheeler Keith.

It would have been much more interesting if, in the American galleries, the pictures by the various painters who are represented there by five or six or more works each could have been hung in groups. Such an arrangement was effectively carried out in hanging the French galleries at Paris in 1889, and made it much easier to form a right estimate of the value and importance of each artist's work than is possible when the pictures are widely scattered, as they are at Chicago. I feel sure, too, that it would have made the walls look better, though it is stated by the officials who had charge of the hanging, that the group system was tried but was found impracticable for several reasons. Possibly the question might have been most satisfactorily settled if the works of two artists—one a figure-painter and the other a landscape-painter—had been selected for groups, and the arrangement carried out as far as the number of works sent by such painters would warrant. It is easy to see by the catalogue (in which we find, for example, that Mr. Homer has fifteen pictures, Mr. Sargent nine, Mr. Dewing seven, Mr. Harrison six, Mr. Cox twelve, Mr. Chase six, Mr. Curran eleven, Mr. Vonnoh twelve, Mr. Eakins ten, Mr. C. Y. Turner eleven, Mr. Melchers seven, Mr. Weir eight, and so on, and that among the landscape-painters there are fifteen pictures by Mr. Inness, fourteen by Mr. Tryon, ten by the late A. H. Wyant, eleven by Mr. Gifford, six by Mr. Davis, five by Mr. Enneking, five by Mr. Twachtman, four by Mr. Dewey, six by Mr. Coffin, and from three to four by a considerable number of others) that the material was not lacking.

Grouping would have shown us better, also, how the work by American artists at home compares with that by those abroad—a question in which all who are following the development of an art atmosphere in New York are keenly interested. So far as the painters of the figure are concerned, the honors are about even, inasmuch as, in the present exhibition, for such men as Sargent, Whistler, Harrison, Abbey, Melchers, Dannat, Simmons, Hitchcock, Walter Gay, Marr, Weeks, Stewart, Vail, Pearce, and Bridgman on the other side of the water, we have here among those at home Winslow Homer, Chase, Dewing, Cox, Thayer, Brush, Tarbell, Collins, Blashfield, Mowbray, Weir, Low, Vinton, Millet, and Wiles. Almost all the landscapes in the exhibition are by the home artists, and the excellence of the work by American artists in this direction seems to be largely due to home influences.

Such pictures as Mr. Thayer's "Virgin Enthroned," Mr. Simmons's "The Carpenter's Son," Mr. Brush's "Mother and Child" and "The Sculptor and the King," Mr. Dewing's "The Days," Mr. Cox's "An Eclogue," Mr. Denman's "The Trio," Mr. Millet's "At the Inn" and "Anthony Van Corlear the Trumpeter," Mr. Weeks's "Three Beggars of Cordova," Mr. Walter Gay's "A Gregorian Chant," Mr. Melchers's "Skaters," "Married," and "The Sermon," Mr. Mowbray's "Evening Breeze," Mr. Blashfield's "Christmas Bells," Mr. Hitchcock's "Tulip Culture," Mr. Ulrich's "In the Land of Promise," Mr. Stewart's "The Hunt Ball," Mr. Low's "Love Disarmed," and Mr. Du Mond's "Holy Family," which have had successes in exhibitions in New York or Paris, and now appear here together, show how diversified are the purposes of American painters and how individual are their technical methods. Mr. Dannat, the painter of the robust and solidly modelled group of Spanish idlers singing in a tavern, "The Quatuor," in the Metropolitan Museum, New York, sends from Paris a picture called "Spanish Women," which shows he has taken a path that leads in the opposite direction from the one he was following when he painted "The Quatuor." As character studies, the five women seated in a row are admirable, but the picture seems to have no more "body" than so much wall paper, and it is strangely pervaded by various tones of blue. The immense picture by Carl Marr, "The Flagellants," shows a great deal of ability on the part of the painter in holding together a large canvas with a great number of figures, and possesses much that is good in the technical sense; "Tea al fresco" and "June Morning," by Mary Fairchild MacMonnies, are large pictures painted in a very high key, and more decorative than realistic; "The Fishermen's Departure" and "Evening," by Louis P. Dessar, large canvases also, show much truth of observation in painting out-of-doors effects and healthy sentiment, and Mr. Bridgman's spirited composition, "The Passage of the Red Sea," presents, among other qualities, some notable drawing of horses in movement.

These pictures and others by the same artists, and by C. C. Curran, Childe Hassam, Robert Reid, H. R. Poore, Theodore Robinson, Eugene Vail, W. S. Vanderbilt Allen, E. L. Henry, J. G. Brown, Louis Moeller, Irving R. Wiles, C. P. Grayson, F. S. Church, Thomas Hovenden, Frederick James, D. Ridgway Knight, L. Lee Robbins, Amanda B. Sewell, R. V. V. Sewell, C. J. Thériat, C. Y. Turner, F. C. Jones, Henry O. Walker, and John McLure Hamilton, together with the portraits previously mentioned, include what is most notable from the figure-painters. To the list, however, should be added, though it is a decoration intended for the Boston Public Library, the section of a frieze representing Galahad brought to Arthur's Court, by Edwin A. Abbey. It shows this artist, who has achieved such a high reputation as an illustrator, in a new field. One decorative work by him, "The Bowling Green," has been in place in the Hotel Imperial in New York for several years, but, excellent as it is, there is little in it to foretell the success he has achieved in this last composition. The first and most important consideration, that such a work shall be decorative, has been well observed; the arrangement of the figures is effective; the double row of angels in white robes close above the congregation of knights is capitally disposed as to line and mass, and the color scheme is agreeable and harmonious. The picture will certainly increase Mr. Abbey's fame, and in all probability it will look even better in its place in the Library hall than it does in the galleries of the exhibition.

Landscapes are numerous in the American section, and no other pictures show more conclusively than they do that American artists are making steady and rapid progress in individual expression. A criticism applicable to many of the exhibits is that form is somewhat neglected in the effort to obtain color quality. There is no lack of cleverness in brush work, and picturesqueness of general arrangement is notable in many instances where sincerity and thoroughness in the comprehension of drawing are not so apparent. Most of the painters seem to be synthesists in method, and that is a tendency in the right direction, but at the same time synthesis without the fullest comprehension of the underlying constructive forms in nature leads to emptiness and lack of character. With the fine feeling for color shown by so many American painters of landscape, more attention to form would do much to raise their work to a level which painters of other schools scarcely attain. Mr. Inness, the dean of the landscape-painters, is well represented by fifteen pictures. They extend over a considerable part of his career as a painter, and include the "Delaware Valley," an early work, some such excellent interpretations of Nature's changing aspects as "Winter Morning," "A Day in June," and a "A Gray Lowery Day," and one picture, "End of the Shower," with a dark sky and a white cow in full sunlight in the foreground, that is certainly equal to if it is not better than anything he has yet produced. It is a beautiful work, quite free from a certain softness and indecision in form that may be noted in some of the other pictures, admirable as a piece of color and most effective in composition. Mr. Tryon, in addition to a number of sympathetic, poetically treated pictures, such as "Starlight" and "The Rising Moon," exhibits a series of decorative panels, a form of landscape art to which his temperament seems to be peculiarly well adapted. They are simple in composition and notable for unity of effect and breadth of handling. A group of ten pictures by the late A. H. Wyant, who was one of the best landscape-painters we have ever had, show very well the charm and personal character of his work; and Mr. Gifford's methods are exemplified in eleven compositions, including moorland motives and coast scenes. A strong, virile landscape is Mr. Donoho's "La Marcellerie," a delightful rendering of morning sunshine on green meadows and tall trees is Mr. Davis's "Summer Morning," and two canvases by T. C. Steele, a newcomer, "On the Muscatatuck" and "September," evince qualities of a high order. E. Evans, another newcomer, shows excellent work in "Harvest"; and "Pasture Land, Connecticut," by Charles H. Hayden, is a direct, frank piece of painting remarkable for good modelling. Most of our well-known landscape-painters are well represented—H. Bolton Jones, Homer D. Martin, R. C. Minor, Charles Melville Dewey, W. L. Picknell, Appleton Brown, C. A. Platt, H. G. Dearth, Leonard Ochtman, C. H. Eaton, C. W. Eaton, R. W. Van Boskerck, G. H. Bogert, J. H. Twachtman, Edward Gay, and J. J. Enneking being the most prominent in the long list; and there are landscapes, also, or landscapes with subordinate figures or cattle, by J. Alden Weir, Theodore Robinson, W. L. Metcalf, R. W. Vonnoh, W. H. Howe, C. Morgan McIlhenny, and H. S. Bisping.

To sum up, the landscapes in the American section are extremely good, and one has but to walk through the galleries of the other nations after looking at them, to feel how good they are. If we have as yet no Corot or Daubigny, it is easy to perceive that the conditions are at least favorable for the appearance of such masters, for, as in all great "art movements,"

surpassing merit comes as a flower of steady, healthful growth.

The exhibition of water colors, pastels, black-and-white drawings, engravings, and etchings by American artists is as complete and comprehensive as that in oil paintings, but space does not permit of a review in detail. The collection of architectural drawings also shows the same remarkable progress in the practice of the art in the United States that is observable in painting. One of the galleries on the ground floor of the Art Building is devoted to a "Retrospective Exhibit of American Painting" from the colonial days when John Smibert (1684–1751) and John Singleton Copley (1737–1815) painted portraits, up to a period of a decade or so ago. It embraces works by Washington Allston (whose "Paul and Silas in Prison" shows how little there was in his painting to justify the reputation ascribed to him by his biographers), Thomas Doughty, Charles L. Elliott, William M. Hunt, Jervis McEntee, the two Peales, Pine, William Page, Gilbert Stuart, Sully, Benjamin West, Joseph Wright, John Trumbull, R. W. Weir, George Fuller, and others. It is much more interesting as an historical summary than as an art exhibition, except in the case of some of the canvases by Stuart, Elliott, Hunt, McEntee, Foxcroft Cole, and two or three others, possibly. It was a happy thought to bring the pictures in this room together, and if, through the difficulties that are inherent in such an undertaking, the collection is not as complete as it might be, it suffices to show that the United States has an honorable if not a brilliant past in art, and that the excellence of the work of American artists in our day dates almost as clearly and cleanly from 1876–'77 as if it were an actual beginning.

When the beautiful buildings in which the World's Fair is held were projected and the plan of the grounds was laid out, means were found by the public-spirited citizens of Chicago to pay for pictorial and sculptural decoration by American artists. Mr. MacMonnies's beautiful fountain, the splendid statue of the Republic by Mr. French, the quadriga crowning the peristyle—a work of great beauty which reflects the highest credit on Messrs. French and Potter, the sculptors who created it—the monumental groups of animals by Mr. Potter and others, Mr. Martiny's figures on the Agricultural Building, and other works, show that their enterprise was justified. How much they count for in the grandeur of the ensemble of the Fair could only be estimated if they were removed, and what has been done here will certainly make it out of the question to attempt to carry out architectural schemes of similar importance on other occasions without the beautifying coöperation of the sculptors. Mural decoration in color has also been provided for in some of the buildings. In one instance, and the only one in which it is an absolute, miserable failure, the United States Government is the sponsor. The Government Building is bad enough outside, but the walls of the rotunda and the interior of the dome are far worse. Unspeakably bad compositions, supposed to typify the arts, sciences, and industries, are framed there between green and brown imitation marble columns, and over these are ugly little bird's-eye views of various towns and places painted in weakly brownish tints. It is all bad beyond words, and presumably visitors to the Fair will give all the credit for the good work in the other buildings to Chicago, and wonder why the national Government, which ought to be foremost in such matters, shows no comprehension of them whatever.

The principal color decorations at the Fair are found in the Manufactures and Liberal Arts, the Agricultural, and the Administration Buildings. In the last-named the ceiling of the dome is decorated by William L. Dodge with a spirited, strongly handled composition that can be seen only by ascending to the gallery from which the dome proper rises. In the Agricultural Building there are figures in the porticoes by George W. Maynard, typifying the seasons, and in eight domes in the entrances to the Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building there are compositions by Carroll Beckwith, E. H. Blashfield, Kenyon Cox, Robert Reid, C. S. Reinhart, Walter Shirlaw, and Edward Simmons. Mr. Maynard in his work shows a full comprehension of the exigencies of his task, and his figures with the Pompeian red backgrounds are eminently decorative and suitable to their environment. Mr. Cox and Mr. Blashfield have been most successful in the treatment of their domes—the one with the simplest of compositions obtaining excellent effect by the apparent sureness of his procedure, very good drawing, and the careful treatment of accessories; the other, with a more elaborate scheme, showing equal ability to cope with difficulties, and a fine sense of unity in binding the different parts of the composition in a harmonious whole. Both are good in color and look well in their places. As everything about the pictures in these domes is white, without even a single note of color anywhere, the artistic problem involved was not an easy one. The domes by Mr. Reid and Mr. Weir are pleasing in color and decorative effect; that by Mr. Simmons is notable for the sturdy, virile character of his design; Mr. Beckwith's introduces a modern note in the use of recent electrical inventions as accessories to his figures, and those by Mr. Shirlaw and Mr. Reinhart are well held together in composition. The work in these domes on the whole, as well as the more ambitious compositions by J. Gari Melchers, Walter McEwen, and F. D. Millet in the same building, and by Mr. Dodge, which has been mentioned above, prove plainly that American painters are equal to undertaking the execution of decorative projects of the most complex character; and it is to be hoped that what has been done here will induce more architects who have public work to design, and individuals who have money to spend on buildings for private use, to invoke the aid of our artists in beautifying them. In the Woman's Building, too, where the decoration of the tympana has been done by Mrs. MacMonnies and Miss Cassatt, there is excellent work. Miss Cassatt's composition is not nearly so effective as it would have been if the figures were larger and the great masses of green which make their background were less vivid in hue; but the decoration by Mrs. MacMonnies is one of the best at the Fair. William A. Coffin.

## DISORDER—THE SPEAKER IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

London, August 4, 1893.

Last week's fracas, although exaggerated in newspaper reports, was unquestionably disgraceful. For the first time in 250 years, members laid violent hands upon each other in the House of Commons. There was, however, no premeditated ill-feeling between individuals, the acute stage did not last for many seconds, and as to blows only three were concerned. For the moment the scene was sufficiently shocking, uncertain as one felt how far it might extend, and how many might become involved. Yet to thoughtful minds it was no anomaly. It was a natural outcome of the contending passions and the irritating language so freely indulged in since the commencement of the session. The promise of a great act of justice, the reversal of the tyrannical policy of the past regarding Ireland, has worked a complete change in the spirit of the country and her representatives. The Opposition, especially the Liberal-Unionist section, have blindly opposed such change. As the past has been, so must be the future. Irishmen must be condemned to continue the hereditary enemies of each other and of the sister island. So every idle word spoken within late years, under most aggravating circumstances, and every crime committed, when crime was almost the only weapon left in the hands of the Irish people, was to be daily and hourly resuscitated, and presented in naked form, stripped of all extenuating considerations and circumstances. An opposition based upon no principle, shameful in its tactics of delay and confusion, has been resorted to. More maddening than all, at least to the Irish members, has been the cowardly parade of present Irish crime, as proof that the Irish are a hopelessly inferior race—cowardly because it has been impossible to retaliate and show by a recital of British crime that crime is not peculiar to Ireland, since such a course would hopelessly alienate British feeling; and so passions were inflamed and feelings dangerously repressed.

Yet in this scene all parties were to blame, and quick as lightning a succession of incidents, many of which, taken alone, might have passed without result, led up to a shameful catastrophe. There had been already excitement and noise enough, as each succeeding Thursday brought the hour for closure of the sections of the Home-Rule Bill appointed for settlement within the week. This was to be the final evening in committee. A few minutes before the hour, Mr. Balfour pulled down one of his own supporters who was speaking, so that Mr. Chamberlain might have an opportunity of being the victim upon whom the closure guillotine should fall. He was even more than usual coolly exasperating and insulting in his language. He spoke of Mr. Gladstone's voice being to his followers the voice of a god, and then compared him to Herod. The Irish, ready enough to thwart Mr. Chamberlain under ordinary circumstances, determined he should be heard no further, and, more wantonly than ever, by shouts of "Judas, Judas!" they indulged in the interruptions by which they have unhappily distinguished themselves, and which the good sense of their leaders apparently cannot restrain. A call to order of a Conservative member failed to reach the Chairman's ear. He completely lost control of the House, which, instead of passing out of the division lobbies on the closure being put, surged up the floor and on the benches. The approach of a Liberal to the Conservative position was construed into a meditated assault, and an attempt was made to repulse him. The approach of an Irish member to mediate was construed in like manner. He was barred by an Ulster Conservative and blows were exchanged.

This scene, and many of the difficulties of the past months, have been due to the choice of an amiable and conscientious but singularly inefficient Chairman of Committees. The moment the Speaker, sent for in hot haste, appeared, an entire cessation of hostilities, a complete lull, an almost painful stillness, supervened. Affairs were temporarily patched up, a sitting

was allowed to pass, and on Monday mutual explanations and apologies were heard, and desires expressed that the incident should, as far as possible, be forgotten. The Irish, whom a large section of the British public had at first endeavored to make the scapegoats, were quite sufficiently cleared; indeed, it would have been more graceful, and even more politic, if their leader, in the few words which in the course of the explanations he so felicitously uttered, had admitted that some of his followers, although not originators of the game, had without doubt used their hands "in the scene which ensued." Deplorable as was the occurrence, inevitable perhaps as some such crisis was, it will not have been altogether regrettable if it has impressed upon the House the necessity of more measured language and greater self-control.

The Speaker's ability, tact, and governing power were never more conspicuously shown than upon this occasion. Much of his influence is due to his splendid voice. Its clarion-like, sonorous swell calls to mind Bulwer Lytton's description of O'Connell's. A man should be very certain of being in the right who would not cower under it in reproof. Yet it is often attuned to tones of the deepest feeling. The splendor of the position of Speaker of the British House of Commons is perhaps not generally realized. The appointment, nominally for the duration of but one Parliament, generally extends over several. The present occupant of the chair, the Right Hon. Arthur Wellesley Peel, the youngest son of the great statesman, is the eighth who has held the office within the present century. Chosen from among the members, subject to the approval of the Crown, the Speaker can be removed only upon an address to the Crown. Besides a palatial residence occupying one wing of the Houses of Parliament, and large patronage, he receives a salary of £5,000 a year. At the end of his labors he is rewarded with a peerage and a pension of £4,000 per annum for two lives. He is a member of the Privy Council, and the first gentleman in the United Kingdom, taking rank after barons. His duties, under ordinary circumstances, extending over only portions of five days of the week for half the year, although apparently light, demand for their proper performance the exercise of trained abilities of the highest order, an unfailing memory, keen eyesight, and a quick ear. The wig and gown which he wears, the state and ceremony with which he is surrounded, doubtless contribute to the isolation and impressiveness of his position.

The profound respect voluntarily and by custom accorded him rest, doubtless, upon those perhaps illogical traits in the British character which have contributed to the continuity and steadiness of British institutions. When, at the opening of proceedings, he makes his way in state from his residence to the Chamber, through the corridors used by members for passing to the committee, library, and refreshment rooms, it is against etiquette for any one to be found therein. When on summer evenings he and his family take the air upon the portion of the terrace which is outside his residence, there is no more thought of approaching them than there would be if he were a Grand Lama. When in the chair, he can be approached only upon strictly business matters. His levees, held twice a year and open to all members, can be attended only in court costume, sword by the side.* The invitations to his state dinners, distributed among men of all parties, are extended only to those who have attended these gatherings. The Irish members and the increasing number of Radicals who will not don court dress are consequently shut out from personal intercourse with him.

Nor are the recollections of their bitter history, and of bitter struggles in the House, sufficiently faded, nor are the hopes of complete amalgamation in feeling through the accord of home rule sufficiently clear, to allow of the former indulging in the same amenities as other members on entering and leaving the chamber. It is not in the power of the present Speaker always to rise above political prejudices; he is perhaps as fair as can be expected under all the circumstances. Those who make immediate and unhesitating submission receive more allowance than those who strive to withstand his decisions. He is a punctilious stickler for the dignity of his office, and is believed to have much resented an appeal recently put forward by Radical members for the simplification of dress at his receptions. The importance and responsibility of the office have of late years been vastly increased. It now rests with the Speaker, as with the Chairman of Committees, to accept or refuse motions for closure. The Speaker can suspend members for the remainder of a sitting. Disrespect to his rulings, punishment for which up to 1882 was merely nominal, may now be visited by suspension for one, two, or even four weeks. Had he been in the chair at ten o'clock on Thursday, the House would not have been disgraced by the scene which then occurred. D. B.

* It shows how completely Quakerism has altered from its former standards that many members of the Society of Friends attend so attired and girded.

## SOCIALIST POLITICS AND PLEASURE IN BERLIN.

Leipzig, July 27, 1893.

Although these are the dog-days in Berlin, as in our own great cities, and although the elections to the new Reichstag belong already to the category of the past, there is no cessation on the part of the more popular parties (Social Democrats and Anti-Semites) to the political activity displayed during the campaign. The Anti-Semites, having only lately become a "people's party" through their repudiation of Stöcker and his conservative contingent of Jew-baiters, have still to reorganize and consolidate, besides squaring accounts with their former allies. For the Social Democrats no such necessity exists, but it is a matter of principle with them that no halt shall be called in the propaganda. During the week and more that I passed in Berlin, every evening had its meetings, usually as many as half-a-dozen, held in different quarters of the town, and generally well attended.

These meetings are invariably presided over by two members of the police force, who smoke their cigars, stare stupidly at the crowd, and affect to take notes of the speeches delivered. Often it chanced that the assembly had nothing more startling to talk about than the result of the recent election; they seemed never to weary of being told over again what all knew within a day or two of the vote. At all of these meetings a *Referent*, or chief speaker, is announced through the party organ in advance; he presents the subject selected for the evening's discussion, a debate follows, and the transaction of such business as may require attention concludes the exercises. It is uncommon for the *Referent* to stint himself as to time, and as the number of debaters, who announce themselves by means of cards bearing their names and addresses during the course of his remarks, is usually large, it follows that the meetings are frequently prolonged until the early morning hours, and seldom or never reach their conclusion before midnight. Yet, although the greater number of persons present will go to their work at six o'clock the following morning, it is uncommon for any considerable number to leave before the end. Indeed, motions to conclude the debate, to limit the remaining speakers to five minutes each, etc., are almost invariably voted down. To see people apparently so much in earnest is in itself a pleasure, and this impression is deepened by the quiet, grave manner in which the German expresses his approval of the opinion advanced. Instead of vociferous applause (which, however, comes too in its place), he punctuates the speaker's periods with the words: "Sehr richtig," "ganz richtig" ("Very true," "quite right"), delivered in low tones and with a strong accent on the first word.

As for the opinions themselves, they are usually the commonplace of Socialism, and do not demand consideration here. Now and then the fresh expression given to an old doctrine by some young workingman thrills one with the thought of what all this agitation is doing for the education of the masses. It is not necessary to be a Socialist to see that what tends to make the people think for themselves, to awaken them to consciousness, has an educational value, and, so far at least, is in itself a good. Socialism reaches the people in Germany (as the close upon 1,800,000 votes cast in the last election prove to us), and education, by which alone society advances, spreads unconsciously in the trail of such a movement.

Before taking leave of such a meeting, it is worth remarking that there are women present. This is, in the meetings of the other political parties in Germany, never the case. Their presence may be, and has been, used by the police as a pretext for adjourning the meeting. A short time ago some spiteful police officers availed themselves of this idiotic and shameful regulation, but the storm that was raised about their ears will not lead them quickly to renew the attempt. At a large meeting of some two thousand people held quite lately, not only were women present in large numbers, but three or four took part in the debate, and one was subsequently elected a delegate to the international Socialist Congress at Zürich. In beginning a speech the customary form of address is "Genossen und Genossinnen"; the male and female forms of the word meaning "comrades," somewhat resembling the French "citoyens" and "citoyennes," though corresponding more closely to the French "compagnons." How revolutionary this public recognition of woman in politics seems in Germany, one must have been there to know.

But there is another, non-political, side to the present social-democratic movement in Germany which has not yet received in the press the attention it deserves, and it was of this that I proposed to write in beginning this letter. For about three years now there has existed in Berlin a society calling itself the Freie Volksbühne (People's Free Theatre), composed of workingmen and women who have had for their aim the development in themselves and in their class of a taste for literature, poetry, and art—all that æsthetic side of a man's nature for which so little opportunity has been left under the crushing exigencies of modern industrial life; and, secondly, perhaps the bringing to the light (or only to the footlights) some of those plays written by their brethren of the so-called "literary proletariat" embody-

ing the newer socialistic ideas. In this latter respect the success, I believe, has not been brilliant; one or two such dramas have been produced, but the members are willing to admit that the kind of play they seek is not yet to be had, and they have been obliged to fall back upon the classics of all time. Performances during the season (which lasts until the middle of July) are given on Sunday afternoons, and are open only to subscribers. It costs, however, only thirteen cents to become a subscriber, with twelve cents more for initiation fee; and the payment of this small sum entitles the subscriber to entrance to all the performances. Once inside the theatre, the distribution of the seats is secured by lot, so that all have an equal chance of occupying the boxes and front orchestra chairs, and invidious distinction is avoided.

It was not my good fortune to attend one of these performances in Berlin, but I was able to be present at the festival and country party in commemoration of the third anniversary of the society's founding, held at Schloss Schönholz, near Pankow, a suburb of Berlin. For this a long programme, containing some interesting features, had been prepared. The exercises began at seven o'clock in the morning (Sunday) with a concert in the wood. Schönholz is one of a hundred recognized places of popular resort in the immediate neighborhood of Berlin, and is justified of its name by the pretty pine and birch woods with which it is surrounded. The musicians upon this occasion, instead of belonging to a military band, were all civilians; even in their hour of relaxation the Social-Democrats would not seem to encourage the military, against which, they fully recognize, the primary fight in Germany is to be directed. Everywhere entwined among the branches of the trees were the red flags of the Socialistic Republic. People began coming early in the morning, and the crowd steadily increased until evening, when there must have been several thousand present. Three bowling-alleys were kept constantly in use, besides all the other popular amusements, carrousels, lung-testers, ring-tossing, etc., which one can see at Coney Island or elsewhere. In the afternoon there were games for men, women, and children; masked races, in which the men ran blindfold, causing general merriment when they stumbled and fell or ran deliberately into the crowd; egg races, where each must run carrying an egg in a spoon which must be held out in front of him; and private parties of puss-in-the-corner under the trees. Besides the physical enjoyments of racing, dancing, beer-drinking, etc., the Committee had made provision for the intellectual entertainment of the people with a *Festspiel*, a kind of allegorical drama, and with a rough scenic representation of the *Zukunftstadt*, or City of the Future, as it is pictured in a satirical brochure written by Eugen Richter, the radical leader, which recently created a mild sensation in Germany.

A single street of the new city is represented by means of some bits of outworn theatre scenery, and the different houses are labelled with the names of the institutions that are supposed to have survived. Among these are a theatre, a museum (containing instruments of culture in use during the nineteenth century, viz., guns, swords, pitchforks, and other similar weapons), a Home for Young Ladies belonging to the Upper Classes, and a prison (both empty), and a Stock Exchange (utilized by the community as a bath and wash-house). The boot-blacking establishment of "Comrade" Richter, who wrote that in the absence of servants members of the Reichstag would have to neglect the public service in order to attend to the blacking of their own boots, is represented, and the dropping of a ten-pfennig piece in a slot causes a mysterious hand, armed with a blacking-brush, to emerge ready for business. Ahlwardt, the ridiculous *Judenfresser* (Jew-devourer), is represented in person by a "comrade" who somewhat resembles him; and his activity, to judge from his remarks, seems to be unabated in the city of the future. The sale of "sausages of the future," "cigars of the future," and even "schnapps of the future" is permitted in the streets of the new city.

The name of the *Festspiel* which is played every half-hour in the great hall of the "Schloss" is "Empor zum Licht" ("Upward towards the Light"), and it sets forth the struggle of a young man (the people, *i. e.*, the working classes) to escape from the counsels of Egoism (the doctrine of modern political economy) and Care, and to follow the beckonings of Truth, Love, and the Muses, who stand ready to help him on his way. In Paul Carlow, the actor who plays the part of the hero, the People's Free Theatre has a young man who, in beauty of figure and nobility of face, is a worthy representative of humanity personified.

Before the day is over, the inevitable lottery is held, for which chances are sold at five cents apiece. The prizes are displayed in a booth to the public gaze: there are portraits of the Socialist leaders Marx, Lassalle, Bakunin, etc., but most of the prizes are the books, in cheap editions, of Schiller, Shakspere, Byron, Heine, Ibsen, Darwin, Dickens, Zola, Tolstoi, Dostoyevsky, etc., an effort having been made, as you can see, to be international.

Such a festivity as the one I have tried, in a few words, to describe, may be accepted as typical of the non-political activity that exists as an adjunct of the Socialist movement in Berlin. Its influence is assuredly great, for it tends to bring the amusements of the people into direct relations with their political aims and ideas. It is difficult to believe that any result tending to effect a unification in the conception of life is in itself an evil.

J. K. P.

# Correspondence.

## GO STRAIGHT QUICKLY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We all know that when a man who must cross a yawning abyss feels dizzy, his best chance is to fix his eyes on some firm thing on the other side and go straight towards it quickly. Most of us common men, in the present confusion of business affairs, feel dizzy, and we cannot therefore safely gaze over the precipice, as Mr. Bland courageously urges us to do. Because silver has fallen and lies dead, it surely is not our duty to die with it.

Ever since we were born, the silver to be coined by the United States has been bought as merchandise, first at a premium in gold and then at a discount. For more than fifty years gold has been in fact our only measure of values. Even during the terrible confusion of war and of panics, the people of the United States have kept the gold standard clearly in sight, and always found safety by doing so.

No man, unless he has lost his head, can really think that a great nation which has passed through the experiences of war and of the panics of 1857 and 1873 without changing from the gold standard, will now, at the dictation of silver-miners, adopt another standard, in defiance of the expert opinion of the whole world.

To put off final action on this silver business any longer, while everybody is suffering, is, if honestly done, a frightful blunder, and if done for personal or party gain, a crime. Our only chance now lies in fixing our eyes steadily on the gold standard, and in urging Congress to let us go towards it quickly. The President has done his part well, and the House of Representatives has promised speedy action. We now have a right to demand that the Senate also shall help us to save ourselves by going straight quickly. H. C.

Cambridge, August 14, 1893.

## CHEAP MONEY IN ITALY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am neither a financier nor an economist, but a plain man; but my experience here has provided me with an illustration of the doctrine, persistently preached by the *Nation*, that cheap money drives out dear, and that a silver standard would drive all the gold out of the country. Here paper money is at a discount, and there is no gold and hardly any silver, even as small change. Twice to-day, after selecting what I wished to buy, I have left a shop without completing my purchase, because the shopkeeper could not or would not give me the change for a five-lire note! As yet I seem to be making money, getting 7 or 8 per cent. discount in my favor when I draw on my letter of credit, but how is it with the natives, and how long will it be before prices go up in proportion?

When one asks the reason for the state of things here, the answer is that it is all the fault of the speculators, who have been wicked enough to make a penny by shipping silver to France. Verily, "popular political economy" is everywhere the same. Casey.

Venice, August 2, 1893.

## OUR CONSUL AT CHRISTIANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter of "L. W. H.," published in the *Nation* of August 3, came under my observation only to-day. If not too late, I should like to add my own experience to the statement of the writer, that Mr. Gade is ever ready to extend to Americans of every degree kind hospitality.

Some years ago, while travelling abroad for purposes of visiting the universities and other scientific institutions of the north of Europe, my steps were directed to Norway. During the sea journey one of the ship's officers spoke in warmest praise of Mr. Gade, and assured me of the Consul's readiness to give information, or assist in any way desired those of our countrymen who applied. I had not anticipated that the Consul's hospitality would extend beyond a pleasant talk at his office, but this was not the end; later, I received an invitation for myself and maid to spend the afternoon at his country-seat, a few miles out of Christiania. Those hours passed in the society of himself, wife, family, and a few of their Norwegian friends remain in my memory as one of the pleasantest of my Norwegian experiences.

I remember an incident that occurred which showed his disinterestedness and kind heart. A lady, stranger to Mr. Gade, had written from the States asking him to purchase for her a particular kind of silver object not to be had outside of Norway. His prompt efforts to exe-

cute the commission impressed me then as showing that Mr. Gade, beyond the customary office duties of his position, willingly and conscientiously devoted his time to serve, even in details, the best interests of our country.

I trust with "L. W. H.," if the newspaper paragraph has not been proved an error, that there may still be time to bring this matter before the Department of State for reconsideration. I am sure there are other women who could unite with me in thanking Mr. Gade for kindness received at his hands. For myself and them, I express regrets for this summary dismissal. HELEN ABBOTT MICHAEL.

PHILADELPHIA, August 9, 1893.

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TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to add my testimony to that of "L. W. H.," under date of July 23, published in your issue of August 3, 1893, as to the peculiar fitness of Mr. Gade for the position of United States Consul at Christiania, in Norway. During a residence of several years on the Continent, I came in frequent contact, official and social, with our consular officers in various cities of the different European States. Nowhere did I meet a consul so prompt and efficient in the discharge of his official duties, nor so ready and willing to devote himself and his time to the furtherance of the comfort and pleasure of visiting Americans. Of an eminent social position among his countrymen, noted for his distinguished courtesy and hospitality, and married to one of our most charming countrywomen, Mr. Gade has made a personal friend of every American who has had the good fortune to meet him. The income from the office is small, the official dignity valuable only to a resident of Christiania, and no American sent over there can begin to fill the office of Consul so thoroughly to the credit of our Government and so acceptably to visiting Americans as does Mr. Gade. He should not be removed.—Respectfully,

EDWARD W. TAYLOR.

KANSAS CITY, MO., August 11, 1893.

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## EARLY PROFESSORSHIPS IN MEDICINE AND LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of July 27 Prof. Lyon G. Tyler of William and Mary College speaks of the professorships of Medicine and Law established in that college in 1779 by Jefferson, as the first of their kind in America. In Prof. Thorpe's 'Franklin and the University of Pennsylvania,' issued recently by the Bureau of Education from the Government Printing-office at Washington, in the chapter on the Medical Department by Prof. H. C. Wood, at p. 273, it is stated that Dr. John Morgan was elected in May, 1765, "to the first medical professorship in America, namely, the chair of the Theory and Practice of Physic," and "the following September Dr. Shippen was elected Professor of Anatomy and Surgery." These were in the College of Philadelphia, which subsequently became the University of Pennsylvania. Dr. Cadwalader gave courses of lectures on anatomy in Philadelphia in 1751, and Dr. William Shippen, jr., in 1762, so that the Medical School really dates back to the former year. In 1768 Dr. Adam Kuhn was made Professor of Materia Medica and Botany, and in June of that year the College of Philadelphia conferred the degree of Bachelor of Medicine on ten candidates, the first of some ten or eleven thousand doctors who have since then been sent into practice from the Medical School of the University of Pennsylvania. In 1769 Dr. Benjamin Rush was added to the Faculty of the Medical School as Professor of Chemistry. In 1779, when the chair of Medicine was established at William and Mary by Jefferson, the charter of the College of Philadelphia was abrogated, on the score of the disaffection of some of its trustees to the new Government, and its property was transferred to a new institution chartered under the name of the University of the State of Pennsylvania. Can any of your readers, by the way, point to any American instance of an earlier use of the title "University" than that of 1779 in Pennsylvania? In 1789 the Legislature repealed the act of 1779 depriving the College of Philadelphia of its charter, thus permitting it to be revived, but in 1791 the two institutions were united under a new charter creating the University of Pennsylvania.

In 1790 Mr. Justice Wilson was elected Professor of Law in the college department, and delivered his introductory lecture in the presence of President Washington and the other chief representatives of the Federal and State and city Governments. A reference to Prof. Thorpe's volume will show that English and modern languages, French, Spanish, and especially German, so largely spoken in Pennsylvania, were included in the broad plan suggested by Franklin in his first scheme in 1749 and elaborated by Dr. (later Provost) Smith in his plan of a college in 1753. J. G. R.

BAR HARBOR, ME., August 12, 1893.

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## THE COMPETITION FOR THE *PRIX DE ROME*.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The strong interest that is felt in the United States in matters pertaining to art—an interest that has received new impulses during the last eighteen months—makes it possible that some of your readers may like to hear of the last result attained in painting in this country under the influence of academical training and Government patronage.

The works of the competitors for this year in painting for the *Grand Prix de Rome* have just been put on exhibition, and it is of these that I speak. The subject given for representation this year—for the competitors do not choose their own subject—was Samson grinding the corn of the Philistines; and one would think that with such a prize as four years in Rome to strive for, and such suggestions as the words "and he did grind in the prison-house" might give them, the competitors would be inspired to their utmost, and would display at least some power, however little, of conception and execution. The first feeling one has, however, on inspection of the works of the ten competitors, is of the poverty of ideas displayed in them. That the story of Samson at work in the prison should suggest to no one of the competitors anything more than a clumsy prize-fighter, straining at the millstone, while a crowd of brutal-looking enemies maltreat him and jeer at him, is surprising. No one of them has recognized the poetic capacity of the story. In not a single case is Samson more than a somewhat brutal athlete, or the Philistines other than coarse, low people. Every one of the pictures seems to be an attempt to catch the attention of the public by means of cheap mental stimulant, and to deceive the untrained eye by the false semblance of non-existent power. To the untrained eye lurid color and quick, sketchy execution give more pleasure, because they are more easily understood, than the color that is quiet, and the finished, though oftentimes hasty, execution of a master. The technique of these paintings gives the impression that the artists have taken one of Rembrandt's roughest and most incomplete sketches for their model, but, having none of the Dutch painter's unerring instinct for putting his simple strokes where they ought to be, have trusted largely to luck in the laying on of the paint, with the result that those parts of the work where the form is intended to be merely suggested are little more than masses of blur. Examples of this can be found in the hair of many of the figures, as in M. Trigoulet's Samson, where it is more like pieces of felt than hair, or in that of the same figure in M. Thierot's work, where it resembles small bits of tape. The faint and shapeless feet of the Samson of M. Maxence are absolutely incapable of performing the work assigned to them.

Carelessness of execution might be overlooked were there any beauty suggested, but instead of beauty one finds composition that is commonplace, color that is either muddy or, as I have said before, lurid, and, worst of all, faces and figures that are of a low type. If the Philistines had faces similar to Michelangelo's caricatures, as M. Rouault seems to think, still, why draw them as deformities and their children as abortions? The effects of hazy light that M. Foreau shows are clever in the extreme, and the dogs with which the chained prisoner is baited are well drawn, but the hideousness of every figure, their diseased-looking skins, and Samson's bloody eyes make a whole that is revolting. Again, in M. Mitrecy's work, combined with slightly more care in painting, one sees similar ugliness reproduced in figures that look like yelling idiots or human devils. Like M. Foreau, M. Laru is clever in his rendering of light, but chooses models almost as ugly as the worst.

Glaring realism and attempted dash seem to be the order of the day, and the realism is of the kind to please the uneducated. Not one of these men has sought to represent the elements of beauty or splendor that are to be found in the tale, or to make the beholder of his work conceive the significance of the story more truly than he had before done, but, instead, the painter has satisfied himself with showing such things as bleeding eye-sockets or hair dripping with sweat, which require no imagination to conceive or represent. If this is the best result of the teaching young men receive now in the Paris schools, the prospect of the art of painting in France is not brilliant.

R. N.

PARIS, July 24, 1893.

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# Notes.

AMID the unfailing supply of reprints, Scott and Shakspere again come to the front. 'The Monastery' is the tenth volume in the Dryburgh edition of the Messrs. Black (New York: Macmillan), and as to its illustrations—each volume's being by a new hand—can hardly be ranked above that number. In the International Limited Edition (Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.) Vols. 13 and 14 are 'The Legend of Montrose,' and Vol. 15 comprises 'The Bride of Lammermoor' and 'The Black Dwarf.' Here, too, the etchings are not remarkable in the series, and it is somewhat misleading to speak of two copies of steel engravings as photo-etchings "from painting," as if at first hand. From the Messrs. Putnam we have the second group in the pocket Ariel

edition with its separate volume bound in leatherette for each play. This group embraces seven of the histories, viz., "King John," "Richard II.," "Henry IV." (first and second parts), "Henry V.," "Richard III.," and "Henry VIII." The typography will injure no eyesight, and this is not the least recommendation of a series that has found a ready welcome.

"The Last Slave Ship," which is one of the four 'Stories of the Sea' in the new volume of "Stories from *Scribner*," is a really valuable contribution to the history of a now universally infamous traffic. As if to satirize a pseudo-philanthropical act, the ship in question cleared from New Orleans on its kidnapping errand by the lucky facility offered it as conveyer to Liberia of John McDonogh's freedmen, whose liberty was conditioned on their expatriation. It went hard with the slavers not to put into Cuba on the way and sell the Christianized product of American slavery—thus clearing a profit at both ends of the voyage.

A personal note is sounded in 'Other Essays from the Easy Chair, by George William Curtis' (Harpers), through such a sketch as "Bryant's Country" and such obituary appreciations as those of Emerson, Beecher, Sherman, and Francis George Shaw. The portrait of Emerson is particularly just and felicitous. Other Easy Chair Essays of the familiar type are "The New Year," "The Morality of Dancing," "The Hog Family," "Decayed Gentility," "The American Girl," "Statues in Central Park," and a dash of politics, as "Tweed" and "National Nominating Convention." A pleasing likeness of Mr. Curtis forms a frontispiece.

"Mr. Gladstone had in the previous year [1860] exhausted his peculiar faculty of devising obnoxious reasons for questionable measures." "The separation of the United States into two independent Republics will make the first year of the decade conspicuous in the annals of the century." These extracts from the 1861 chapter in 'Annual Summaries, Reprinted from the *Times*' (2 vols., Macmillan), show what we must look for in the Thunderer's review of the period 1851–1875, 1876–1892: nothing dispassionate, and not the perspective of history. Nevertheless there is a certain convenience in having such annals close at hand, and of course the *Times's* own political meanderings are reflected in its yearly comments on the wisdom of rulers and the fate of peoples.

The 'Popular History of Astronomy during the Nineteenth Century,' by Agnes M. Clarke, has reached a third edition (Macmillan), and bears evidence of unremitting and very intelligent study of the subject since the first edition of 1886, to which we gave a hearty welcome. It is a plump volume of nearly 600 pages, illustrated and indexed, provided with copious references to authorities, and brought down to date.

We observe that Mayor Matthews, whom some think Boston's greatest Mayor since the elder Quincy, did not approve within the legal limit—and hence did not defeat—the order of the Common Council for the printing a sixth edition (1,500 copies) of the Old State-House Memorial. We infer, therefore, that if he thought the expenditure doubtfully prudent, he was not averse to a still larger circulation of one of the best of the best sort of municipal documents. In fact, even a rescued historical monument needs, in this age and country, to be still defended, and the citizens of Boston cannot too widely be informed of the treasure they possess in the Old State-House. The new edition, like the old, is beautifully printed, and contains two more cuts, besides a profile likeness of the present City Registrar, Mr. W. H. Whitmore, whose historical address was the main feature in the rededication proceedings of July 11, 1882 (and so of this volume), and to whom more than any one else the city is indebted for the restoration of the ancient seat of the State Legislature, the city government, and the Federal postal service.

A little group of book-lovers in Cleveland founded the Rowfant Club a few months ago, modelling themselves on the Grolier Club of this city and calling themselves after the library of Mr. Frederick Locker-Lampson. Although the name they chose is British, the first book they issue is American. It is the 'Culprit Fay, and Other Poems,' by Joseph Rodman Drake; and it is printed at the University Press very like in style to Mr. Francis Wilson's privately published translation of Horace by Mr. Eugene Field. The book needed editing. An introduction and a few notes would have doubled its value; and for these last the Bradford Club's reprint of 'The Croakers' could have been drawn upon.

'Elementary Geography of the British Colonies,' by George M. Dawson and Alexander Sutherland, in Macmillan's Geographical Series, can be recommended to any one who feels the need of a handbook of this kind. It is well enough written, and may be of service in teaching. The paper and print are good, the illustrations are cheap; there are no maps. It is a mistake to say (p. 189) that the language of the Maltese is a "kind of corrupt Italian." It is rather Arabic corrupted by Italian.

MM. Édouard Noël and Edmund Stoullig have at last published the eighteenth volume of their 'Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique,' the most solid and spacious of all theatrical annuals. To this record of the French drama and music during 1892 M. Jules Lemaître contributes a preface on "Le Mysticisme au Théâtre," in which he shows that the recent revival of religion in Parisian play-houses is but a passing manifestation of an abiding literary epicureanism.

At last the great edition of Molière in the sumptuous and conscientious series of "Grands Écrivains de la France" (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern) draws to its conclusion. Begun twenty years ago with the late Eugène Despois as its editor, and continued by M. Paul Mesnard, this edition will be complete in thirteen volumes, of which nine devoted to the text and one to the biography had appeared in 1889. Now we have an appendix to vol. x., and also a vol. xi., containing the bibliography, far fuller than that published sixteen years ago by the late Paul Lacroix, being enriched with all the suggestions gathered by the monthly *Molièriste* during its ten years' existence. The twelfth and thirteenth volumes, containing the lexicon, are in preparation; and so is an album of portraits, views, music, etc., like those which accompany the splendid editions of Corneille and Racine in the same series.

Of the two first volumes of Prof. D'Ancona's 'Manuale della Letteratura Italiana' (Florence: Barbèra) we have already spoken with approbation. The third, a stout octavo of nearly 750 pages, beginning with Tasso and ending with the close of the seventeenth century, is no less praiseworthy than its predecessors, and may be relied on not only for a wide selection of representative passages from a large number of authors, but for a great deal of important historical and critical comment.

F. T. Perrens, well known as the historian of Florence, is the author of a new volume in the "Bibliothèque d'Histoire Illustrée," entitled 'La Civilisation florentine du XIII^e^ au XVI^e^ siècle' (Paris: Quantin). The style is sprightly and the aim of the book confessedly that of a popular presentation of the subject; but this does not prevent the writer's sound scholarship from being everywhere apparent. The illustrations are numerous, well chosen, and, as a rule, good, and the work altogether deserves the attention of any one who wishes to fix clearly in his mind, without much research, the great debt that civilization owes to Florence.

The *Revue Hebdomadaire* of Plon is now printing a French translation of the overrated and bogus 'Englishman in Paris.' In the number of this otherwise excellent weekly for July 15, M. Paul Bourget has an interesting paper on his friend the late Guy de Maupassant.

If, as Englishmen remark, we Americans have a habit of confining the term Congressmen to members of the lower house, "Member of Parliament" has the same restriction in England, and the usage dates, according to Mr. S. R. Gardiner's observation, from June 27, 1650, when this reference to the House of Commons appears first in the order-book of the Council of State. Mr. Gardiner's note is to be found in the current number of the *Historical Review*.

Westermann & Co. send us the first part of the first division of the Spruner-Sieglin Atlas of Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern History. This enterprise is a revision and extension of Spruner by Dr. Wilhelm Sieglin, and the portion devoted to antiquity is wholly the work of the latter scholar, for it is wanting in the Spruner-Menke edition of 1880. It alone contains 34 sheets, divided among two or more maps. There are five such sheets in Part i., relating to Egypt, Palestine from David to Hadrian, the Persian Empire in the time of Darius, Italy after the Second Punic War, and Britannia and Hibernia. The Egyptian sheet has no fewer than ten maps, the Palestinian eight, the Italian five, the Britannic six (including the Roman walls of Hadrian and Antonine). The cartography of these early periods is of course plain and open. In the middle era there will be something to say by way of comparison with previous editions of Spruner.

We have also received from Westermann the eleventh part of Vogel's Maps of the German Empire, with the Cologne and Augsburg sheets—the latter showing not a little of Switzerland and the Austrian Tyrol; and the third and fourth parts of Langhans's German Colonial Atlas, showing the variegated sphere of the New Guinea Co. and the Marshall Islands protectorate.

The Atlas illustrating the official records of the civil war has reached the fifteenth and sixteenth parts, and keeps up the high quality in cartography which has marked the work throughout. As heretofore, the Board of Publication, of which Major Davis is Chairman, have reproduced all the topographical sketches which accompanied field reports, making it their good rule to save all authentic contemporary maps, since these are often essential to the comprehension of the reports, and show more clearly than any description could do the point of view and the understanding of the officer who made the written statement. Many of these sketches are small, and a large number are frequently united on one sheet, yet there is no undue crowding or lack of clearness. The general maps are, of course, of larger size, and can hardly be excelled in beauty of drawing and coloring. In the numbers before us some of the greatest movements and engagements of the war are

depicted, particularly those at the winding-up—the Twentieth Army Corps's march from Atlanta to Savannah and Goldsborough, Howard's winter campaign in the Carolinas, Hood's defeat before Nashville, the battle of Franklin, Sheridan's campaign in Central Virginia, the Army of the Potomac's advance to Appomattox, the battle of Dinwiddie Court-house, the Petersburg mine. Of earlier date are the maps of Pittsburg and Corinth, of Gettysburg, of Fort Fisher (as captured by Gen. Terry), etc.

—That the home field of Washington story is unworked and rich in possibilities is again proved by President Lyon G. Tyler, who publishes in the *William and Mary Quarterly* some interesting and novel facts about John Washington, the immigrant. This worthy has lain under a serious charge—of cruelty and treachery—in connection with his campaign against the Susquehannocks. Five of the Indians were murdered in cold blood, and in a way that called out the reprobation even of Gov. Berkeley. The records of Westmoreland go far towards exonerating Washington of all blame in this matter, and leaving the commander of the Maryland force, Maj. Trueman, the real culprit. Washington is even represented as being properly shocked at the atrocious deed. One more incident in his life is displayed. When he had fled from his plantation in the time of Bacon's rebellion, his servants were prohibited by the insurgents from sending stock or produce into Maryland. The tables were soon turned. Stephen Mannering, who issued the warrant, on bended knee "heartily and unfeignedly" confessed his acts in the "late horrid rebellion"; and one White, who undertook to execute the warrant, was caught in a suit with Washington, driven to the wall, and most abjectly pleaded for mercy. On the whole, the more we know of this ancestor, the better is his position in the colony. In the same issue Mr. Brock speaks of a portrait of Gen. Washington by Alexander Campbell as a fact. We have always understood the Campbell portrait to be fictitious. Certainly no one who has seen the Campbell engravings can trace any resemblance to Washington, and the General himself made fun of one that was sent to him. If Mr. Brock has any authority for his statement he ought to give it.

—Apropos of the recent revival of interest in the Cock Lane ghost and the possible verity of its manifestations, it may be worth while to put on record certain events which took place in the early sixties at Fort Yukon, the outermost post of the Hudson Bay Company, in Alaska, north of the Arctic circle. At this lonely fort, half-a-dozen men from the northern isles of Scotland traded for furs under the command of Strachan Jones, post trader of the company. Once a year a party ascended the Rat River, and crossed to La Pierre's House, at the head of navigation on the Porcupine River, bringing a supply of trading goods, one sack of flour, and a little tea and sugar for the commander, with the mail of the past six months, and receiving in exchange the bales of furs which had been purchased during the previous twelve months. The bateaux from the fort then returned down stream with the goods. In midwinter a courier on snowshoes brought the half-yearly instructions from the chief factor at York factory. At other times the little community vegetated among the tundra, or was busied with the hunting and trade which supplied the business and subsistence of the post. About a year after Jones relieved his predecessor, strange rumors prevailed among the residents at the fort. Singular noises were heard during the still arctic night. Raps on the door were responded to, but, the door being opened, there was no one there. Utensils hung on the walls of the log huts in which the company's servants lived, fell down or were moved when nobody was near them. Jones had a house to himself, as commander, and around this house the uncanny doings seemed to concentrate. Jones himself preserved a dignified silence, or professed ignorance of anything out of the common. But in spite of this the noises and turmoil continued, and were experienced by every one at the post, even by visiting Indians.

—When spring came, the bateaux started, as usual, for La Pierre's house with the bales of furs, Jones commanding the party. At the nightly bivouac, to the astonishment of the voyageurs, the noises continued. The man who slept in the boat as a sort of guard reported that he heard raps and a curious scratching on the mast. Men who slept around the campfire ashore declared that they heard Jones talking in the night to some one who answered in a voice unknown to any of the party. On meeting the party from Fort Macpherson at the portage, the voyageurs naturally compared notes, and the doings of Jones's familiar were soon discussed by every camp-fire and at every trading-post throughout the Northwest Territory. A visitor at the fort in 1866 was assured of the reality of these manifestations, which remained without explanation, as Jones had retired from the post and carried his secret with him. The same visitor, while waiting the return of the officer then commanding, had the curiosity to look through a little library which, in the course of years, had accumulated in the commander's quarters. Among the worn novels and less dilapidated volumes of Scotch theology, of which the collection was made up, was a copy of Dr. Johnson's account of the extraordinary history of the Cock Lane ghost.

—The thirty-fifth volume of Sidney Lee's 'Dictionary of National Biography' ends with Maltby, and is filled with every variety of Mac, beginning with MacCarwell. An unusually large number of the persons commemorated had relations of some sort with the United States and British North America; such as Madog, the reputed Welsh discoverer of this continent; Sir Alexander Mackenzie, the explorer whose name is attached to the great affluent of the Arctic Ocean; Sir Robert McClure, who discovered the northwest passage; the Canadian Premiers Alexander Mackenzie and Sir John A. McDonald; D'Arcy McGee; Allan Napier MacNab, who cut the *Caroline* adrift and sent her afire over Niagara Falls; John Francis Maguire, who visited these shores in 1866, and who is recorded as having elicited from Mr. Gladstone the first declaration against the Irish establishment; and Charles Mackay, who came among us in 1857 as the apostle of the brotherhood of man, and again in 1862–'65 as the pro-Southern war correspondent of the London *Times*—his sympathies being concealed in the present notice. Few think of the Pretender's Flora Macdonald as having lived three years in this country (1773–'79); fewer still of "Ossian" Macpherson as having held a Government appointment in Florida under British occupancy in 1764. Further, we are reminded by the sketch of Rear-Admiral Maitland of the *Bellerophon* that Napoleon prayed to be taken to the United States rather than to England. Sir Henry Sumner Maine (a tutor at Cambridge, by the way, of the American Charles Astor Bristed) and Sir James Mackintosh have Mr. Leslie Stephen for their biographer, and there are few more eminent names in this volume, which embraces also the actors Macklin and Macready—the one the object of Garrick's jealousy, the other of Forrest's; the painter Maclise; Sir Morell Mackenzie; the contumacious Mackonochie; the inventive Charles Macintosh, whose weatherproof fabric has made him immortal; "Rob Roy" MacGregor, the patron saint of the canoeist, and so forth.

—An unusually large number of woman students (17) appear in the list of the Oxford modern-history honors published on July 22. Two, Miss Ewart of Somerville and Miss Lees of Lady Margaret Hall, are placed in the first class, and the distinction is the greater because only three men out of more than 100 attain it. Six women take seconds; eight thirds. This list, with one candidate in each class of the final Science School, and two in each class in the School of Modern Languages, completes the honors record of the term; and it is on the whole a very satisfactory one. It is to be expected that, as the practice grows of giving daughters equally with sons the advantages of a university education, a larger number of women of average ability will offer themselves for examination, and that the proportion of high honors to the whole body of candidates will probably decrease; indeed, this tendency appears already to have affected the Oxford History School. The average in the Modern Language School has been remarkably high in both Oxford and Cambridge. In the latter university, where men as well as women entered for this examination, two women had the first class to themselves. This year no candidate came forward at Oxford to be examined in English language and literature. This is probably an accidental neglect of a study whose importance at Oxford has brought and is bringing many Americans under the direction of Profs. Napier and Wright. It will be useful for women intending to study at Oxford to know that the Association for the Education of Women will henceforward have official quarters on University premises in the Clarendon Building. We will add that the new statute affecting women students in Oxford to which we called attention some weeks ago, will come into operation for the next examinations. It provides that the name of the educational body to which a student belongs shall be appended to her name in the examiners' lists. It has been somewhat modified since its drafting, and now gives this privilege indiscriminately to all educational establishments whether in Oxford or elsewhere, so long as they are accepted by the delegacy which receives the candidates' names.

—News comes from Paris that Rudolphe Salis has sold the "Chat Noir," the paper which was its organ, the little theatre, and the whole company of tame poets and artists. This sale means the disappearance of a café, or cabaret, which, though of comparatively recent origin, had become one of the literary and artistic landmarks and centres of Paris, and, therefore, should not be passed over lightly in silence. Salis, in his way, was a genius, though it must be confessed a genius with a Yankee shrewdness where his own profit was concerned. The building, which, in time, came to be one of the stock sights of the capital, and the remarkably clever performances for which the hall on the second floor served as theatre, had their beginning in a little nightly reunion of

young and aspiring (but unknown) poets and ar ists and journalists who met in an unpretending wine-shop, of which Salis was proprietor, in the Boulevard Rochechouart. There, the company—as is the fashion in all such companies—recited their own verses, sang their own songs, exhibited their own talents as draughtsmen. Among them were a few of genuine distinction. As a natural result, the place became known, the assembly grew ever greater in number and the performance more ambitious, until a move to larger quarters was necessary. From the Boulevard Rochechouart, poets and artists passed to the Rue Victor Massé, and established themselves in the house hanging out the sign of the Black Cat.

—Salis now organized matters on a sounder basis. A regular show—it can scarce be called by any other name—was given; this was duly advertised; a fair price of admission (five francs) was charged; the café was decorated and furnished in a style eccentric, but also in good taste, enough to draw. The Chat Noir developed into no mean rival of the *café chantant*. It deserved success. Salis and his poets drinking beer in the room decorated by Willette were, after all, worth looking at, and it was in the little theatre up stairs that Caran d'Ache's "Épopée," Dauphin's "Ste.-Geneviève," the irresistible "Phryné," were first seen; while the poets, now tamed, continued to recite their verses, the musicians to sing their songs. But the old genuineness, the old spontaneity, had gone for ever, just as it has departed already from the *Mirliton* of Achille Bruant, the fine singer of "Dans la Rue." The last step in the gradual downfall came last summer, when Salis took theatre and poets on a tour through the provinces. One felt then that the end was near. But if the Chat Noir at the last was but a money-making enterprise, it cannot soon be forgotten; it was in connection with it that their reputation was first made by Caran d'Ache, Willette, Steinlen, draughtsmen of unquestioned talent, who have had a wide and, on the whole, beneficial influence on the illustration of the day. And it was there, too, that poets of the standing of Jean Rameau and Paul Roux, Clément Privé and Georges d'Esparbès were first heard. To the credit of Salis must these facts be recorded. He has shown his cleverness not more in organizing the Chat Noir at the start than in disposing of it at the right moment. Its glory was fast going from it.

## FINCK'S WAGNER.

*Wagner and his Works:* The Story of his Life, with Critical Comments. By Henry T. Finck. Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols., 8vo.

SURELY no other composer of the higher music, not even Sebastian Bach or Beethoven, has been brought before the world so conspicuously in literature as Richard Wagner. Biographically, analytically, critically, polemically, offensively, and defensively—in all these modes the number of the works pertaining to the man of Bayreuth is legion. There are many respectable libraries smaller in contents than the array of books and pamphlets, not to mention newspaper and magazine articles, that have been written for and against him. There has been recently concluded (1891) a catalogue of a "Richard Wagner Bibliothek," compiled in three bulky volumes of the sturdy German sort by Nicholas Oesterlein, containing no less than 9,462 distinct items. There might be added to this colossal catalogue enough pieces to carry the list well towards 12,000, the large majority published during Wagner's life. The casual reader may well ask the question whether there is anything left to say concerning this daring innovator who flashed in among the musical planets, with their regular orbits, like the most erratic of comets; and yet among these thousands of publications there has been scarcely a first-rate biography of Wagner until the appearance of the work whose title is given above.

Mr. Finck was well equipped for his task. No one is more familiar than he with the music and the writings of the genius he celebrates. No one has explored more industriously the entire field of biography, panegyric, and hostile criticism on which his Life of Wagner is based. His profound admiration for the composer is notorious; his pity, scorn, contempt for those who, early and late in Wagner's career, ranked among his opponents, are relentlessly exhibited in these volumes. It is true, as Mr. Finck says, that duty required him to record the contemporary failure to understand the new musical evangel, and to indicate how great a mass of unintelligence, jealousy, and malevolence thwarted the production of Wagner's works upon the stage and checked his creative energy, while fatally aggravating the struggle for mere existence. It must, however, be felt that the pillory is too often introduced, and the exposure too often accompanied with missiles. Time had sufficiently avenged itself on those whom Mr. Finck holds up with heat instead of a tranquil humor, and his excess in this direction is unfortunately calculated to make the impression of blind partisanship on the other side. But nothing could be more unjust to our author than such an impression. We have only to refer to his cardinal ground of difference with Wagner in the matter of 'Judaism in Music,' and the passage which we now cite proves that Mr. Finck's too constant belaboring of the anti-Wagnerites is an error of taste and perspective rather than of candor. Controverting the famous tract just named, Mr. Finck says (i., 333):

"The opposition to his [Wagner's] works had various sources, prominent among which were the inability of conductors and singers to interpret them correctly, and the slowness of hearers (especially critics) in assimilating not only new music but—what is much more difficult (and to some people impossible)—*music in a new form*. In regard to the *virulence* of the attacks on him, however, Wagner was partly right in his argument. He was attacked by the critics because he had criticised or attacked their favorites—especially Meyerbeer and Mendelssohn. But these composers were thus savagely defended and avenged because they were fashionable idols, and not because they were Jews; for among their fanatic worshippers there were more Christians than Jews."

Again, on a later page (369):

"He [Wagner] had composed three operas with a pen dipped into his heart-blood, and these were now being mutilated by conductors, misinterpreted by singers, misrepresented by critics, misunderstood by the public, while he, the exiled father, had to witness from a distance this prostitution of his noble offspring. . . . You might say, therefore, that the musical world was not to be blamed for not receiving these operas as we now think they ought to have been received—with open arms. True, we may absolve the public from blame, but we cannot absolve the musicians and the critics. It was their duty, on meeting with a new form of operatic art, to study, learn, investigate, before they misperformed and then condemned."

This is both temperate and rational and free from hero-worship.

Rare literary skill has been shown in handling the formidable amount of material available for this biography, in which there is hardly to be found a dull page. A strictly chronological progression was, if not out of the question, certainly extremely difficult. Mr. Finck has preferred an episodical treatment, and he would, in our opinion, have left nothing to be desired if he had provided at the end a table of dates, by which the memory would be assisted in retaining Wagner's several places of residence, and especially the interlacing periods of conception and composition of his masterpieces. The chapter titles in volume i. reveal the method adopted: A Theatrical Family; Richard Wagner's Childhood; The First Operas; Königsberg and Riga; First Visit to Paris; Rienzi in Dresden; The Flying Dutchman; Wagner as Royal Conductor; Tannhäuser in Dresden; Revolution—Artistic and Political; Lohengrin at Weimar; Literary Period; Welding the Nibelung's Ring; Was Wagner a Great Conductor? As each music-drama makes its appearance thoughout the narrative it is analyzed in an admirable manner, well fitted for standard reference, and this is not the least of the services to both amateurs and connoisseurs which Mr. Finck has rendered. Another, not so conspicuous, but involving far more labor, is the translation from original sources of a large quantity of interesting passages, along with, in the case of Wagner's own writings, pithy abstracts for which the reader of either nationality may be grateful—for Mr. Finck is a very discriminating critic of Wagner's prose style. His opinion of Wagner as a poet to be weighed in the same scale with dramatists like Shakspere, Goethe, and Schiller, seems overstrained, but could in the nature of things not readily be substantiated because of the impossibility of making an adequate translation. Still, one not a German can see that verse shortened or lengthened to suit the musical expression cannot give the pleasure afforded by the conventional poetic rhythms, all the more where archaisms or alliterations are purposely resorted to. And in fact Wagner might as well have objected to having his librettos read in and for themselves as much as he did to having his pieces performed in the concert-room. It is not a question of poetic quality, but of poetic rank, and if one concedes that Wagner's gift was sufficient for his need, both in conception and in expression, it will not, perhaps, be heretical to rate his musical gift a great deal, even immeasurably, above it.

The conjunction of the two is the marvel, and marvellous is the account of Wagner's rapid musical development after a non-precocious infancy, during which his inability to play the piano was taken as one sign of his incapacity to be a musician even of a very ordinary sort. The shortness of his studies when he had determined his career for himself is amazing, and in the very middle of his term of life we find that he has already laid out all that can be accomplished in the remainder. We cannot differ from Mr. Finck in thinking that Wagner had a just appreciation of his own powers, and that this fact relieves his dependence on others, on Liszt above all, of a degrading character. He found his true sphere in the music-drama. None of his concert compositions, early or late, says his present biographer, "quite equal the best parts of his music-dramas, with the exception of the 'Siegfried Idyl,' in which, however, the chief themes are borrowed from the *Siegfried* drama." His "Centennial March" of 1876 was "the weakest thing Wagner had written in forty years." Praise is accorded to his "charming settings" of certain French songs, with an exception in the case of Heine's "Two Grenadiers"; and of course to the Faust

Overture. His overmastering preference prevented his being "a safe and infallible critic."

"He judged almost everything from the standpoint of the music-drama, and whatever is one-sided and exaggerated in his verdicts must be placed to this account. Some of the greatest and most original composers are, moreover, not mentioned at all in his writings, or only incidentally—for example, Chopin and Schubert, whom Rubinstein very properly classes among the five greatest masters the musical world has seen. . . . Here [in admiration for Schubert] Schumann and Liszt doubtless had a keener scent for genius than Wagner and Mendelssohn."

In another place (ii., 146), Mr. Finck writes, apropos of composers "who *create*, *i. e.*, provide new harmonic, melodic, and rhythmic *material*": "In this sense, the four greatest composers the world has ever seen are, in my opinion, Bach, Schubert, Chopin, and Wagner. And if we take single works to compare in point of originality and creativeness, the palm must, I am convinced, be given to *Tristan and Isolde*." This sentence is a measure at once of Mr. Finck's catholicity and of his extreme Wagnerism. We have already quoted evidence of his independence towards the Master, and if more is needed, his readers will find it in the second volume in the remarks on Wagner's change of mind and recantation as to choruses (pp. 233, 235), on the defects of the *Walküre* (p. 337), on the shortcomings of the hidden orchestra at Bayreuth (p. 287), on the "foolish libretto" of 1870 *à la* Offenbach (p. 254). Equally frank is the judgment on the metaphysical portion ("nebulous stuff") of the masterly treatise on Beethoven (p. 250). "In philosophy Wagner was almost as much an amateur as Schopenhauer was in music; and the disposition which is at present being shown by some fanatic admirers in Germany to worship him as a great philosopher is absurd" (p. 251). "Tedious," with "turgid, metaphysical phraseology," is the essay of 1868 on 'German Art and German Politics.' Mr. Finck speaks plainly also about Wagner's violation of the laws of health in eating and working, and makes light of his squint at vegetarianism in the essay on 'Religion and Art,' on the strength of which "some of the foolish Wagnerites, who took every utterance of the Meister as gospel law, started a vegetarian club at Bayreuth." The apology for Wagner's foibles for luxurious surroundings seems to us justified; as Mr. Finck points out, a genuine painter would never be blamed for the same thing, and Wagner too had a color-sense to cultivate. The separation from his wife, and his relations with Frau von Bülow ending in marriage, are treated leniently, but apparently without any suppression of the essential facts.

On the whole, we conclude that this painstaking biography will enhance the author's reputation as a maker of entertaining books, and, subject to the limitations set forth at the beginning of this notice, as a musical critic; and that it will do more to make the genius of Wagner comprehensible to the lay mind than any other work on the same subject ever written or perhaps likely to be written.

## HALE'S NEW ENGLAND BOYHOOD.

*A New England Boyhood.* By Edward Everett Hale. Cassell. 1893.

Dr. Hale was born in 1822. His memoirs begin about 1826. In 1835, at the age of thirteen, he entered Harvard College, and duly graduated in 1839. He mentions only one or two incidents after the last date, and little about Boston after his entrance to college. Thus, the memories are those of a child, affording no insight into the ways and thoughts of men, nor even picturing in detail the external aspect of anything, but taken up with the all-important doings of the boy. The swinging signs before the old Boston auberges (if Dr. Hale won't let us call them inns) did attract his attention —"The Indian Queen" in Bromfield's Lane, "The Bunch of Grapes" in State Street, "The Lamb" in Washington Street; and he mentions that when the Tremont House was built, it seemed to the boys wonderful that there should be a "tahvern" with no sign before it and no stable behind it. While he was at the Latin School, between 1831 and 1835, the first omnibus appeared on the streets of Boston—a very long affair, drawn by four horses, and blessed with a name, the "Governor Brooks." Dr. Hale says "the first omnibus in the world was put on its work in Paris. It was called 'La Dame Blanche' from the White Lady of Scott's novel of 'The Monastery,' about the year 1821."

The old Latin School of this book stood on School Street (christened after it), opposite the little green just below King's Chapel. The boys began the study of Latin—boys nine years old—by learning the Latin Grammar by heart in English. Such stupidity seems almost incredible, at a time when Hoole's 'Visible World,' a translation of the instruction-book of Comenius, had gone through numberless editions in English. It was quite a different thing at an earlier date to make boys commit the Latin Grammar to memory *in Latin*. That taught them a great deal, just as learning any other simple Latin book by heart would have done. It was a method somewhat similar to those of Comenius and of Robertson. Yet, doubtless, the substitution of the grammar in English for the grammar in Latin was conceived to be a reform. No wonder the language was never conquered. Many of Hale's afternoons were spent sailing toy boats in the neighborhood of Beach Street (so called because it ran down to the beach); he made magic lanterns, dabbled in chemistry and electricity, went to Papanti's dancing-school and to the swimming-school, coasted from the foot of Walnut Street to the head of West Street, flew kites and invaded houses to get on the roofs to recover the twine, played marbles on the malls and baseball on the parade ground, shook props (deepest of crimes), and doubtless battled with Fort Hill boys, though that is more than he will confess to—in short, did everything that boys did fifteen years later. He also went to the gymnasium in Washington Gardens.

Dr. Hale notes many vestiges of Puritanism in those days. We should like to have been informed whether, in a house like the Hales', a great deal of theology was talked, and whether most people passing the evening casually together would be likely to talk about the points of Calvinism. According to Dr. Hale, the settlement of the Massachusetts Bay colony was due to the insistence of the Puritans upon their Thursday morning religious lecture, which was prohibited in England; and he attributes the preëminence of Boston in population to people being attracted by Cotton Mather's preaching—rather narrow causes for such broad effects. Mr. Palfrey, he tells us, at the Brattle Square Church would frequently break off his long morning's sermon with the words, "I shall continue this subject in the afternoon," entirely sure of having the same hearers. He notices the high pews in that edifice; but he does not say whether those along the sides were square, nor whether the deacons faced the congregation. He does not recall much about the drama, although it must have been within the period of his memories that the Tremont Theatre was built only a few doors from his home. Fanny Kemble is mentioned, not J. B. Booth, nor even Fanny Elssler. The subsequent forswearing of the drama by the good people of Boston was a curious movement, which we wish somebody would describe. Of the early secular lectures we learn something here, but that would be a subject for a volume. It was Dr. Webster's on chemistry that most attracted the boys. Emerson's were nowhere in comparison.

Dr. Hale does not represent Boston as being so pretty as one would think it must have been, with its many fine old gardens, with the superb orchids and exotics in the greenhouses of his classmate Boott's father (where the Revere House now stands), with much of Beacon Hill blooming with roses, with Summer Street an enchanting alley of verdure and peace, with Franklin Street's pretty park and fountain, with Winthrop Place and other delightful nooks. But neither does he say anything of the beauty of Cambridge, which was then so rural. Nor do the imposing buildings which were put up in those years seem to have made any impression—the Quincy Market, the Custom-house, the Court-house, the Merchants' Exchange, and other buildings in State Street, etc.

The most interesting person in the book, by far, is the author's father, Nathan Hale, editor of the Boston *Daily Advertiser*, chief promoter of the early railways, especially the Boston and Worcester Road, and a man of much wisdom about education. Indeed, we may perhaps say that only two other characters are brought clearly before us, Fulham, an old family servant, and Prof. Peirce. The evidence of Nathan Hale's great good sense in the bringing up of his children, and the little glimpse that we catch, when the corner of the curtain is momentarily pushed aside, of the Hale interior, are so attractive that one is annoyed that there is so little of them. But, indeed, this boy was as unobservant of the inside of the house as he was of the outside. All kinds of interesting people must have frequented it, yet we hear nothing of them. There was Edward Everett, a man who had the art of charming boys as well as he did everybody else. Mr. Webster and Judge Story were there. The railway engineers are mentioned in a general way. Those men, Daniel Treadwell and Maj. Whistler, for example, were as strong and striking personalities as ever walked the earth; but for this boy they were mere abstractions—railway engineers, in a general way. As for the anti-slavery movement, or the temperance movement, or Transcendentalism, they did not exist for him.

Of course, it would be unreasonable to complain of this. Yet the history of Boston during those times is so fascinating, and it so clearly appears, as we can see now, that all the culture and all the good in it sprang out of philanthropy, while all the fogyism, and all that caused the city's overthrow in certain departments, came from the love of money, or "intelligent selfishness," that we are naturally a little impatient to see the real Boston so closely approached without ever being touched upon. There is some description of the Broad Street riot of 1837, but the important anti-anti-slavery riot of two years before and the burning of the Ursuline Convent are not so much as mentioned.

There is a pretty good account of a student's life at Harvard College from 1835 to 1839, the

Navy Club parade, the exhibitions, the long Commencement exercises under the auspices of the Governor, the commons in University Hall, with the bill of fare for each day of the week, indelibly stamped on the author's brain, etc. The following shows how the custom of dancing on the college green on class day arose:

"Class day seems to have originated as early as the beginning of the century. The class itself chose a favorite speaker as orator, and some one who could write a poem, and had its own exercises of farewell. There grew up side by side with those farewell exercises the custom by which the class treated the rest of the College, and eventually treated every loafer in Cambridge. As I remember the first class days I ever saw, they were the occasions of the worst drunkenness I have ever known. The night before class day some of the Seniors—I do not know but what all—went out to the lower part of the plot, where there was still a grove of trees, and 'consecrated the grove,' as the phrase was, which meant drank all the rum and other spirits that they liked. Then, on the afternoon of class day, around the old elm tree, sometimes called Rebellion Tree and sometimes Liberty Tree, which stood and stands behind Hollis, all the College assembled, and every other male loafer who chose to come where there was a free treat. Pails of punch, made from every spirit known to Cambridge innkeepers, were there for everybody to drink. It was a horrid orgy from end to end, varied, perhaps, by dancing round the tree.

"With such memories of class day, President Quincy, in 1838, sent for my brother and one or two others of the class of that year in whom he had confidence, to ask what could be done to break up such orgies. He knew he could rely on the class for an improvement in the customs. They told him that if he would give them for the day the use of the Brigade Band, which was then the best band we had in Boston, and which they had engaged in the morning, they felt sure that they could change the fête. The conditions, observe, were a lovely July day, the presence in the morning at the chapel, to hear the addresses, of the nicest and prettiest girls of Boston and neighborhood with their mammas, and the chances of keeping them there through the afternoon. Mr. Quincy gladly procured the band, and when the day came it became the birthday of the modern 'class day,' the most charming of fêtes. Word was given to the girls that they must come to spend the day. In the chapel Coolidge delivered a farewell oration. Lowell, alas! was at Concord, not permitted to come to Cambridge to recite his poem; it had to be printed instead. When the ode had been sung, the assembly moved up to that shaded corner between Stoughton and Holworthy, the band people stationed themselves in the entry of Stoughton, between 21 and 24, with the window open, and the dancing on the green, of which there are still traditions, began. The wind-instrument men said afterward that they never played for dancing before, and that their throats were bone dry; and I suppose there was no girl there who had ever before danced to the music of a trombone. When our class came along, in 1839, we had the honor of introducing fiddles. I shall send a copy of this to the charming lady—the belle of her time—with whom I danced in the silk gown in which I had been clad when I delivered the class poem of the year. Does she remember it as well as I do?"

Although we cannot help regretting some omissions, yet, after all, these very omissions demonstrate that the book is made up of genuine living recollections, without resort to documents, and the same is true of some little errors of detail; thus, when Dr. Hale informs us that he spouted at the Latin School a poem of Tom Moore's containing the line

"If there lingers one spark of their fire, tread it out!"

instead of

"If there lingers one spark of her light, tread it out!"

we see that the whole is a faithful record of the actual state of the author's memory—and a very pleasant memory it is.

## LADY DE ROS AND WATERLOO.

*A Sketch of the Life of Georgiana Lady de Ros.* With some Reminiscences of her Family and Friends, including the Duke of Wellington. By her daughter, Hon. Mrs. Swinton. London: John Murray. 1893.

THE Personal Recollections written for *Murray's Magazine* in the first months of 1889, when Lady de Ros was in her ninety-fourth year, are well supplemented by the "sketch," as Lady de Ros's daughter calls the account which she has compiled of a very remarkable woman. Georgiana Lennox was the third daughter of Col. Charles Lennox, and was born at Molecomb House in Goodwood Park, Sussex, England, on September 30, 1795. Her mother, Lady Charlotte Gordon, was the eldest daughter of the beautiful and witty Jean Maxwell, wife of the fourth Duke of Gordon. Lady Georgiana's father became Duke of Richmond in 1806, succeeding his uncle as fourth Duke. He was Lord Lieutenant of Ireland from 1807 till 1813. In 1819, when Governor-General of Canada, the Duke died of hydrophobia, caused by the bite of a tame fox. Lady Georgiana, when a child, was often allowed to play with the Princess Charlotte. The Princess, a merry and frank young girl, talked without restraint to her companions, and would openly avow that the two things in the world which she most hated were "Boiled mutton and — Grandmamma [Queen Charlotte]."

The life-long friendship between Lady de Ros and the Duke of Wellington began when her father was Viceroy of Ireland. Sir Arthur Wellesley was Chief Secretary for Ireland, and it was the delight of the young Ladies Lennox to ride every morning with "great Sir Arthur," as they called him, from the Vice-Regal Lodge in the Phœnix Park to the Dublin Gate; Sir Arthur going on to his official work in Dublin Castle. Lady de Ros saw the jubilee of George the Third at Dublin in October, 1809; and in June, 1887, she saw the jubilee procession of Queen Victoria. On that occasion she presented to the Queen a beautiful illumination on ivory, the work of her own hands. The Duke of Richmond, on leaving Ireland, lived at Richmond House, London, now Richmond Terrace, Whitehall. His daughters used to run down the garden to the river with a sixpence in their hands, with which they would buy a flounder from a Thames fisherman, in order to propitiate their very cross Swiss governess. As the girls grew up, they were presented at court, being carried to St. James's Palace in the evening, each in a sedan chair attended by running footmen. When Lady Sarah Lennox, the sister of Lady de Ros, was to be presented, inquiry was made if she had any other name. Lady Sarah's great-aunt, the beautiful Lady Sarah Lennox (afterwards the mother of the three heroes, Sir Charles, Sir George, and Sir William Napier), had been the early love of George the Third, and it was feared that the announcement of the name might seriously affect the aged King. But Lady Sarah had no other name. When the blind old man, then over eighty, heard the name once so dear to him, he, like Isaac, "trembled very exceedingly," and asked if there was any resemblance to *his* Lady Sarah. On being told that there was a likeness, he begged the young girl "to allow a blind old man the privilege of passing his hand over her features. This," adds Lady de Ros, "he did, making no remark."

Lady de Ros had been acquainted with no fewer than nineteen Prime Ministers of England, beginning with Mr. Pitt. Of Lord Salisbury she was wont to quote his mother's opinion, that "Bobby would some day be a very clever man." In 1814 the Duke of Richmond settled with his family at Brussels. They lived in a large house in the Rue de la Blanchisserie, and the Duke of Wellington always called it "The Wash-house." This house was afterwards pulled down, and when Lady de Ros visited Brussels in 1868, she could find no trace of it. The controversy in 1888 as to the street in which the celebrated ball-room had been situated led, most fortunately, to the publication of Lady de Ros's 'Recollections.' In a letter she indignantly complains of the persecution she had undergone about the ball-room, and that correspondents of newspapers would neither believe her nor allow her to know the name of the street in which she had passed those eventful days. A large garden extended from the house to the ramparts, and when the Duchess of Richmond was sitting under the trees on the afternoon of June 15, 1815, Gen. Lord Hill called. He was in command of the Second Corps at Waterloo, but to the Duchess and her daughters he "disclaimed any knowledge of a move." There seems to have been no certainty, but much uneasiness. When, at the request of some young officers, Lady de Ros asked the Duke of Wellington's leave to get up a picnic outside Brussels, he answered, "'No; better let that drop.' For he knew we should all have been probably taken prisoners by the French." There were constant reviews of the troops, and to many of them Lady Georgiana Lennox accompanied the Duke of Wellington, often riding his celebrated charger Copenhagen. She describes Copenhagen as "a most unpleasant horse to ride, but he always snorted and neighed with pleasure at the sight of troops." Copenhagen, it may be observed, was nearly the death of his master after Waterloo. The Duke, on dismounting, gave his favorite a flattering slap on the quarters with his gloved hand. Copenhagen did not appreciate the honor, and lashed out with such force that the Duke narrowly escaped serious injury.

On May 22, 1815, Lady Georgiana Lennox rode with the Duke of Wellington to a review of the Brunswick troops, commanded by the Duke of Brunswick. As she returned rain fell, and she rode back wrapped in a soldier's greatcoat, and escorted by Gen. Alava. Gen. Alava had been in Spain with the Duke of Wellington, and used to say that he asked the same three questions every day and got the same replies: "When do we start?" "Daybreak." "What do we have for dinner" "Cold beef." "Where do we sleep?" "Don't know."

Most people will recollect the description of the state of Brussels in June, 1815, which is given by Thackeray in 'Vanity Fair.' Much anxiety was felt lest the Duke of Wellington should not return from the Congress of Vienna in time to take the command of the troops. Napoleon was known to be on the point of invading Belgium, and, in the absence of the Duke, the command would have devolved on the Prince of Orange, an inexperienced and possibly somewhat rash young officer. Lord March, son of the Duke of Richmond, was aide-de-camp to the Prince, and when the Prince, rather offended, asked Lady Georgiana why she had no confidence in him, she had the courage to reply: "Well, sir, *you* have not been tried and the Duke *has*." The Duke did return, and the famous Waterloo ball was given by the Duchess of Richmond. The room had been used as a coach-house before the

house was let to the Duke of Richmond, but it was now the school-room and play-room of his daughters, and had a paper, "a trellis pattern with roses." The list of invitations is still preserved. The Duke of Wellington arrived rather late, and Lady Georgiana was dancing. However, she at once asked him as to the rumors of immediate action.

"He said very gravely, 'Yes, they are true; we are off to-morrow.' This terrible news was circulated directly, and while some of the officers hurried away, others remained at the ball, and actually had not time to change their clothes, but fought in evening costume. I went . . . to help my eldest brother to pack up, after which we returned to the ballroom, where we found some energetic and heartless young ladies still dancing. I heard afterwards that it had been said that the Ladies Lennox were *fine*, and did not do the honors of the ball well. In the course of the evening the Duke asked my father for a map of the country, and went into his study, which was on the same floor as the ballroom, to look at it. He put his finger on Waterloo, saying the battle would be fought there. My father marked the spot with his pencil."

Lady Georgiana continues:

"It was a dreadful evening, taking leave of friends and acquaintances, many never to be seen again. The Duke of Brunswick, as he took leave of me in the ante-room adjoining the ballroom, made me a civil speech as to the Brunswickers being sure to distinguish themselves after 'the honor' done them by my having accompanied the Duke of Wellington to their review! I remember being quite provoked with poor Lord Hay, a dashing, merry youth, full of military ardor, whom I knew very well, for his delight at the idea of going into action, and of all the honors he was to gain. And the first news we had on the 16th [the next day] was that he and the Duke of Brunswick were killed."

In 1887, Lady de Ros, then in her ninety-second year, inspected the Queen's jubilee presents at St. James's Palace. While waiting for her carriage, her attention was called to a picture in one of the rooms on the ground floor. This picture represented the death of the Duke of Brunswick. Her companions said that the review on that summer morning so long ago seemed as fresh as ever in her memory, and that tears ran down her cheeks as she described it to them. On the eventful evening of the Waterloo ball at Brussels, Lady Georgiana Lennox went in to supper with the Duke of Wellington, and he presented her with his miniature, painted by a Belgian artist.

The days which followed the Waterloo ball were very sad ones. Everybody was scraping lint or preparing "cherry-water." Lady Georgiana continues:

"On the 18th we walked about nearly all the morning, being unable to sit quiet, hearing the firing and not knowing what was happening. The first sight of the poor wounded was sickening, and each litter, as it came into the town, filled us with intense anxiety to know whom it contained. . . . In the evening of the 18th the brilliant victory was known in Brussels. . . . The next morning we heard that the Duke had arrived in Brussels, so I walked with my father, about ten A. M., up to the Parc, his house being in the Rue de la Montagne du Parc, and my father went into the house to inquire for the Duke, who sent word he would join us in the Parc, which he accordingly did, and took a turn with us. He looked very sad, and when we shook hands and congratulated him, he said, 'It is a dearly bought victory. We have lost so many fine fellows.' The reason of his coming early into Brussels was that he had given up his bed at Waterloo to poor Sir Alexander Gordon, who was dying of his wounds. The Duke tried to sleep on the floor in the next room, but after being called up to speak to Sir Alexander he could not go to bed again, and began to write his despatch; however, poor Sir Alexander's groans were so distressing that he could not get on with it, and so he rode into Brussels, where he was busy with despatches all day, and left on the 20th."

In 1824 Lady Georgiana Lenox married her cousin William, afterwards Lord de Ros. She is described as being small and slight, with beautiful hands and feet, and a transparent complexion. She continued to see much of the Duke of Wellington, and many anecdotes of him are given in her 'Recollections.' He presented Lady de Ros with the Spanish translation of the Book of Common Prayer which had been given to him by Lady Elinor Butler, one of the celebrated Ladies of Llangollen, when he, in 1808, took the command of the troops in the Peninsula. It was from this book alone that the Duke learned Spanish. He always declared that if he had commanded his Peninsular army at Waterloo, the battle would have been over in four hours; and his invariable comment on Napoleon was that "He was not a gentleman." The sudden death of the Duke of Wellington in 1852 was a great shock to Lady de Ros. All readers of 'Pendennis' will recollect the description of Arthur's sensations when he met the Duke out walking in London, and he was treated as a hero to the end of his life. When he dined out, he was received with royal honors, ladies as well as gentlemen rising to receive him. Waterloo Day was always kept by Lady de Ros; her house in London was decorated with laurel, and on the 18th of June she never failed to send a laurel bough to the Earl of Albemarle, who had been the junior ensign of the British Army in 1815. Lady de Ros took the liveliest interest in all that went on around her, and delighted in reading. She was never idle for a moment, and when her failing sight obliged her to give up embroidery and illuminating, she continued to knit. In the last week of her life she was busy over some knitting which was to be sold for the benefit of the Distressed Irish Ladies' Fund. Lady de Ros died in London, December 15, 1891, after an illness of only a few days. She was in her ninety-sixth year.

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*The Naturalist on the River Amazons:* A Record of Adventures, Habits of Animals, Sketches of Brazilian and Indian Life, and Aspects of Nature under the Equator, during Eleven Years of Travel. By Henry Walter Bates, F.R.S. With a Memoir of the Author by Edward Clodd. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. lxxxix, 395, illustrated.

Of the first edition of this work there were not many copies; the second was much abridged; this one is a reprint of the more desirable first with the addition of a biographical memoir filling eighty-nine pages. Lapse of time since the material was gathered and since publication has not impaired the value of the book, but rather, as a record of facts, for purposes of comparison and in view of the changes that have occurred in the region traversed, its importance has increased, while it has lost none of its interest and freshness as a narrative of personal adventures on the borders of civilization as they were in the Amazonian forests forty years ago.

The field covered reached from Pará westward to San Paulo, about 1,800 miles, and was widened by numerous excursions up lateral confluents of the main stream. Bates had an ability to see things in their actual relations, and a breadth of view that are rare; he had, besides, the spirit of a true naturalist, one of the few deserving the name as compared with the many who collect, dissect, or toy with nature otherwise, who are not naturalists, but only manipulators. Inclination and previous work and field training fitted him for the task; the eleven years of his stay with independence as to place and time gave him unusual opportunities for observation. Fortunate in his personal characteristics, in his accomplishments as a linguist or with guitar and song, he was enabled to adapt himself to the people, making himself a welcome accession on formal occasions in the best society, as also in the merry-makings and hunting or fishing expeditions of the mixed bloods and the Indians. As a result, his book is packed with information a great deal of which could not have been gathered by an ordinary traveller, pertaining to nearly everything to be thought of in connection with the country—geography, geology, soils, products, weather, drainage, government, society (white or Indian), schools, religious matters, customs, costumes, implements, as well as zoology and botany, or the objects of his more special research. The narrative was written to impart information; it is approximately accurate; there is no padding in it; the amount of speculation is small. It bears evidence of thorough enjoyment in the accomplishments of month by month, bringing together the specimens of the many thousands of species and the mass of notes from a life practically new to science, and yet sufficiently indicates that the privations—lack of suitable food, exposure to heat, cold, storms, swamps, dripping and steaming forests, fevers; attacks of insects that bite, that sting, that burrow in the skin, that house their young in tumors of the flesh; dangers from serpents, wild beasts or wild men, or the perils of travel in the wilderness—were fully appreciated and endured only because unavoidable in the prosecution of our naturalist's undertaking. With so many elements of value and permanence the work is one that cannot be superseded; it is worthy a place in any library.

The preface is too full of compliment: the letters to and from the author are overladen with mutual admiration; one is led to ask whether he might not perhaps get a better idea of Mr. Bates from a more impartial and less enthusiastic pen.

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*Stones of Stumbling.* By the Hon. Lionel A. Tollemache. London: William Rice.

*Safe Studies.* By the Hon. Mr. and Mrs. Lionel A. Tollemache. London: William Rice.

Now for the first time regularly published in book form, these writings of Mr. Tollemache's have most of them seen the light before either as magazine articles or in privately printed volumes. It was on the receipt of such a volume that Mark Pattison wrote to the author in 1884: "The level of the collected papers stands so high that I now regret the volume was not published—for your credit, that is, since, as a collector, an unpublished volume is five times as precious to me." From the same source we may as well take another tribute to Mr. Tollemache's quality. In a letter quoted, with modest apologies, in an appendix, Pattison wrote to the author: "For my part, I cannot expect ever to see you again; and I must be content with here recording my experience that your conversation was to me more stimulating than that of any man I ever met."

It would be somewhat unfair to the reader to whet his appetite by this high praise from one who never gave praise lightly, without confessing that the books under notice scarcely meet the high expectations thus aroused. Yet they are witty and interesting, and besprinkled throughout with the dew of wide and unusual reading. Particularly in his resort to apt

classical quotation does Mr. Tollemache preserve an honorable literary tradition in a way which now seems a little old-fashioned, though agreeable from its very quaintness as well as its frequent pungency. The 'Stones of Stumbling' consist in the main of essays on certain moral and theological subjects which, as the author himself admits, have lost most of their interest, but in a long appendix of eighty pages we get past that rough part of the path and emerge into the thoroughly delightful "Recollections of Pattison." Based upon a long friendship, and upon a certain affinity implied in Pattison's remark quoted above, they are altogether charming in their mingled analysis and reminiscence, narrative and anecdote. Of the many good things which the reader will find here, we can quote only the following as perhaps peculiarly suited for citation this side of the Atlantic:

"The following abridgment of an account which he [Pattison] gave of his meeting an American young lady at a foreign table d'hôte, reproduces his characteristic sayings almost, if not quite, verbatim: 'She was only nineteen, but she knew everything. She told me the exact amount of affection which the Princess C. has for her future husband; and she gave me a full account of the divorce laws in all the States of America. She appealed to me sometimes; of course I agreed. At last, she asked whether I did not think she could write a book; and I told her that she was the most ignorant girl I ever met!'"

What Pattison's idea of writing a book was, may be inferred from the advice he gave a friend who asked his opinion about a literary undertaking, and who thus reports the matter:

"He suggested that I should edit Selden's 'Table Talk.' The preparation was to be, first, to get the contents practically by heart, then to read the whole printed literature of Selden's day and of the generation before him. In twenty years he promised me that I should be ready for the work. He put the thing before me in so unattractive a way that I never did it or anything else worth doing. I consider the ruin of my misspent life very largely due to that conversation."

At any rate, Pattison was not exposed to the "Physician-heal-thyself" reproach, for had he not followed his own advice, in his Life of Casaubon?

The second volume, 'Safe Studies,' is made up of various literary and philosophical essays and recollections—in much the same vein as those of Pattison—of Grote and Babbage, Charles Austin and Stanley and Kingsley. Mrs. Tollemache's contributions appear at the close in the form of translations and poems. We take pleasure in commending these books for their biographical interest, which, in parts, is of the greatest, as well as for the refinement and learning that pervade them throughout.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ariel Shakspere. Second Group. 7 vols. Putnams. 75 cents each.
Bell, Clark. Medico-Legal Studies. Vol. 3. *Medico-Legal Journal.*
Black, W. The Wise Women of Inverness, and Other Miscellanies. Harpers. 80 cents.
Clerke, Agnes M. A Popular History of Astronomy during the Nineteenth Century. Third edition. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $4.


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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 24, 1893.*

## The Week.

THE most important feature of the committee appointments in the House is, of course, the constitution of the Ways and Means Committee, which must frame the new tariff bill. Speaker Crisp has made the wisest possible selection for the chairmanship of this Committee in Representative Wilson of West Virginia, who is a thorough student of the subject, a vigorous and able debater, and a man of the highest reputation with both parties. The restoration to this Committee of Breckinridge of Arkansas and Bynum of Indiana, who were formerly members of it, strengthens it, and it seems to be admirably framed for its work. The retirement of Holman from the chairmanship of the Appropriations Committee is a great gain to the cause of good government, his ridiculous ideas of "economy" having brought much discredit upon the theory of frugal administration, while his successor, Sayres of Texas, is, by the confession of his political opponents, a man of broad views, without any tendency to extravagance. Having disregarded precedent as to these two committees by refusing to reappoint their former chairmen, it is a great pity that Speaker Crisp did not do the same thing by deposing Mr. Bland from the head of the Coinage Committee. It is some consolation that Bland has among his Democratic colleagues such sound-money men as Tracey of New York, Rayner of Maryland, and Harter of Ohio, but a man of Harter's type ought to have been the chairman. Fortunately, the importance of this committee will be greatly diminished after the passage of the pending bill repealing the Purchase Act.

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Senator Vest's coining ratio of 20 to 1 has received a fatal blow from Secretary Carlisle, who has prepared a statement showing that it would cost $89,741,900 to give effect to it in merely recoining the standard silver dollars, and that it would cost $23,124,421 to recoin the subsidiary silver so as to make it bear the same proportion to the new silver dollar that it now bears to the existing one. These two items of cost foot up $112,866,321, which it would be necessary for Congress to appropriate. Without this recoinage, Mr. Vest's bill could not be carried into effect. We could not have two silver dollars of different weights under the principles of free coinage. We might have any number of such under the present system of limited coinage and gold redemption of silver. The metal in the present silver dollar is worth only 56 or 57 cents. That of the Vest dollar would be worth 72 or 73 cents. We might have as many varieties as there are Senators as long as the coinage is only on Government account. But if the mints be opened to unlimited coinage for private individuals, all silver dollars must be alike. Hence the gravity and seriousness of Secretary Carlisle's letter. It would require years, moreover, for the mints to do the work, and meanwhile free coinage would be in abeyance. Meanwhile we should have neither the benefits of the gold standard, nor those of free silver coinage, if there are any. Of all the devices called out by the present crisis, this "20 to 1" scheme is the most impracticable, and, when closely examined, the most ludicrous. If it had the advantage of conforming to the market ratio, that would be something in its favor, as it would afford some basis for an international agreement, but it has not even that advantage.

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Secretary Carlisle's service in the cause of sound money has been recognized on all hands as particularly effective. What he has practically done is to assume the right of a Cabinet officer to a seat and a voice on the floor of Congress. Yet in what a roundabout and handicapped manner he has had to do it, by writing letters to the Chairman of the Committee on Finance and giving out statements to the press. These have been particularly telling, it is true, and his volleyed figures have gone like grape and canister through the ranks of the silver men; but how much more deadly execution he could have wrought, and how much more surely he could have caught and influenced public sentiment, if he could have been really, as he made himself constructively, on the floor of the Senate, driving the truth home in the give-and-take of debate. As it is, Senator Vest will probably take a few days to bind up his wounds, and will then make some sort of reply, which will have to go unanswered until Mr. Carlisle can go through the process of getting another letter published. Face to face with an opponent, and with equal right to free speech, he could not only smite the enemy through the midriff, but could twist the spear in the wound until there was an end of the business. By an instructive coincidence, on the same day that Secretary Carlisle was doing his long-range shooting in this country, the Chancellor of the Exchequer in England was at close quarters in the House of Commons with his opponents on the Government's silver policy, and was putting them *hors de combat* on the spot. He was doing directly and by warrant of custom and law what the American Secretary was doing indirectly and by a tacit and awkward overriding of custom if not of law. If we are to have the system at all, and are not to condemn our Cabinet officers to absolute silence and nullity, on all pending questions of legislation, it is only common sense to have it in its best form. Perhaps if we oftener had members of the Cabinet of Mr. Carlisle's effective debating powers, we should become ashamed of compelling them to dodge about committee-rooms and write letters in order to get their views before Congress and the country.

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Senator Vest says in his speech on the silver question:

> "It is a favorite expression now to talk of the 'silver lunacy.' Mr. President, I am willing to follow that great lunatic, Thomas Jefferson, on this question."

This shows how necessary it is for a Senator to know the history of the subject he is talking about. There are few events in our monetary history better known than the fact that Thomas Jefferson, when President of the United States, in the year 1805, gave a peremptory order to the Mint to *stop coining silver dollars*, and that this order remained in force until 1836, although Jefferson had long ceased to be President and had long been dead. The reason why he gave this order is thus stated by Mr. Upton, in his work entitled 'Money in Politics':

> "He desired that gold should circulate as well as silver, and *to prevent the expulsion of gold* he peremptorily ordered the Mint to discontinue the coinage of the silver dollar."

Whatever the motive, he certainly gave the order, and that is the reason why there is a blank in the coinage statistics of the silver dollar from 1805 to 1836.

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The bill reported by Senator Voorhees from the Finance Committee is sufficient for all purposes, and if passed will stop the panic and bring out of its hiding places the money now locked up by frightened depositors. There is a great deal of mischief done which cannot be undone, but the bill when passed—and we have little doubt of its passage—will *restore confidence*, which is the great desideratum and *sine qua non*. The clause which declares it to be the policy of the United States to continue to use both gold and silver as standard money, and to coin both gold and silver into money of equal intrinsic and exchangeable value, etc., is of no consequence one way or the other. It is what Thomas H. Benton called, on another occasion, "a stump speech in the belly of the bill." If anybody can be brought to vote for the measure by reason of the stump speech who would not otherwise do so, then, in Heaven's name, let him have it. The declaratory clause is a nearly verbatim copy of the Chicago platform. If it will help the bill along to put in the Minneapolis platform also, let that be done. The two are so nearly alike that no incongruity would result.

The statement of the condition of the banks of New York city published on Saturday, which was awaited with so much interest, proved in several respects encouraging. The gain of $4,500,000 of reserve is satisfactory, as showing that the condition of the banks is stronger, and as demonstrating that their solvency is above suspicion. Taken by themselves, the shrinkages in the amounts of the loans and of the deposits are not cheering, but taken together some elements of hope may be extracted from them. The loans have decreased over $5,000,000, but the deposits have decreased less than $2,000,000. This may be considered to indicate that we are reaching that stage in our financial crisis when deposits increase faster than loans—the period when stagnation succeeds panic. At first the banks cannot contract their loans as their deposits contract, and a long process of pinching has to be gone through with until something like an equilibrium between deposits and loans is brought about. Then follows a period when depositors are more disposed to put their money in the banks than the banks are to lend it—a period of general business depression but of gradual recuperation. When loans begin at last to expand, we may be tolerably sure that prosperity is returning.

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The fact that the India Council in London has sold bills on Calcutta at the rate of 1s. 3¼d. per rupee, thus confessing its inability to maintain the rate of exchange at 1s. 4d., has been construed by some uninformed people as tantamount to a failure of demonetization in India. Even the London *Standard* has fallen into this error. The truth is, that this contingency was carefully considered by the financial authorities of India before they decreed the demonetization of silver. Their original programme did not contemplate the fixing of a rate of exchange between the rupee and the sovereign. Their plan was simply to stop coining silver, and then to leave the rate of exchange to find its own level. The idea of fixing a rate of exchange at 1s. 4d. came from the Herschell Commission. It was seen by competent financiers to be a blunder the moment it was announced. It is now proved to be such. But the Indian Government, in accepting the suggestion, was careful not to pledge itself to maintain the rate of exchange at any particular figure. Its members foresaw that it might be impossible, under all circumstances, to make good such a pledge. So they limited their undertaking by the following words:

> "Arrangements will be made to issue rupees from the mints in exchange for gold and sovereigns at the rate of sixteen pence per rupee *until further notice.*"

Therefore the only argument to be drawn from the sale of India Council bills at fifteen and a quarter pence per rupee is that the Herschell Commission made a mistake. That Her Majesty's Opposition should make the most of this is to be expected. Fortunately for the Gladstonians, Mr. Balfour, the leader of the Opposition in the Commons, committed a greater mistake the other day by making a speech in favor of bimetallism.

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This squall will soon blow over. It will then be seen that the demonetization of silver by India is an accomplished fact, and that the maintaining of a rate of exchange has no necessary bearing on the main question. All persons who expect the Government of India to take the back track will be disappointed. Our problem will continue to be exactly what it has been from the beginning. Our silverites will get no help from the Asiatics. They will get no help from any quarter. Their favorite metal will fall to the level required by its cost of production. And so it would do even if we had free coinage. Free coinage in India did not prevent silver from declining in value there. Free coinage in Mexico does not prevent its declining in value there. The only thing it would accomplish here would be to cheat creditors and wage-earners, including all bank depositors, savings depositors, and pensioners, and persons who have fixed incomes. After this had been accomplished we should have two kinds of money—gold and silver—the latter being at 40 or 50 per cent. discount. The *Times* seems to be the only London paper taking a calm and accurate measure of the fact that the arbitrary par of exchange cannot be maintained. It warns speculators not to risk money on any theory that the India mints are to be reopened to silver.

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The absurd attempt to make apprehension of tariff changes responsible for our business troubles was all along so devoid of support from any commercial body that when the Tacoma Chamber of Commerce was reported to have come to its support, many despairing Republican editors thanked God and took courage. It now turns out that the resolutions bewailing the "threatened overturning of the protective policy" were so laughed at and repudiated in Tacoma itself that the Chamber had to recall them. They were originally adopted on August 1. On August 5 they were reconsidered, and everything about the tariff left out, to the satisfaction of all concerned except one lonesome member, who could see nothing but tariff on every bush. This leaves the record clear again, and we can still challenge the high-tariff organs to produce the testimony of a single respectable commercial or financial organization to sustain their view.

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Secretary Carlisle has notified the North American Commercial Company, the lessees of the Pribyloff Islands, that the reduction in their rental made in 1890, 1891, and 1892 was without warrant of law, and that they are liable for the full amount. This involves a question of law which the courts will undoubtedly be called to pass upon; but as far as the equities of the case go, there will be a general agreement that the company ought to pay for the trouble and expense it has put upon the Government to maintain its monopoly. The whole controversy arose out of the wrath of the monopolizing company at the invasion of its preserves by the impudent Canadians; and whatever advantages have been won by the Paris arbitration will inure to its benefit solely. No American citizen can do any pelagic sealing in the close season, or venture within the 60-mile zone, any more than a British citizen. The whole result is to confirm and establish a monopoly of the sealing industry in the hands of this San Francisco company. That is what it has been after from the beginning, and all the tears shed over the suffering seals, and the talk about the "crime against nature" in killing the gravid females, and the pictures of the absolute despair and misery of the human race when deprived of sealskin cloaks, had their origin in the fears of an endangered monopoly. The company has kept the country in hot water for seven years, has drawn us to the verge of war, and saddled the taxpayers with heavy expense; and if now it can legally be made to foot a part of the bill, there will be no objection from man or seal.

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There seems to be some misapprehension in regard to the question of damages under the findings of the Arbitration Tribunal. The only precise award of damages which the arbitrators could make, in accordance with the treaty, was for the abstention of British subjects from sealing during the pendency of the arbitration, or for the limiting of the catch by the American Government, in case its claim of exclusive jurisdiction were sustained. This award the arbitrators must now have made to Great Britain, "for the use of her subjects," though the amount fixed upon has not been announced. The treaty only stipulated that the amount "shall be such as, under all the circumstances, is just and equitable, and shall be promptly paid." On the question of the liability of our Government on account of the seized Canadian sealers, the arbitrators were empowered to make a finding only on "any questions of fact involved in such claims"; "the question of the liability of either Government upon the facts found to be the subject of further negotiation." In other words, the Canadians will have to go to work in the usual way to prove their claims, either before our Government direct or before a mixed claims commission agreed upon for the purpose by England and the United States.

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The action of the Republican State Convention in Iowa last week assures the re-

peal of the Prohibitory Law by the Legislature which is to be chosen in November. It is now about a dozen years since the Republicans in that State took up prohibition as an issue, and they have had enough of it. In the last two gubernatorial contests it lost them the Governorship, and in 1891 one branch of the Legislature as well. It was certain that further adherence to it would lose them the State offices again this year, and probably also the Legislature, which is to choose a United States Senator. So, although in the last contest for Governor they stood by the law and had "no apologies to offer for the Republican record" on this question, the late Convention declared that "prohibition is no test of Republicanism," relegated the subject to the Legislature, endorsed the principle of local option, and nominated an anti-prohibitionist for Governor. In any event, therefore, the election must result in the choice of a Legislature which will repeal the existing law, as the Democratic members will all be on that side. It is not so certain, however, that the Republicans will control the body. It was only by a narrow margin in a total vote of more than 1,200 that prohibition was rejected in the Convention, and a great many Republicans still believe so devoutly in prohibition that they will vote for candidates committed to its support rather than for what they consider "faithless" members of their own party.

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The figures contained in the fourth annual report of the Statistician of the Inter-State Commerce Commission show that no other region in the world of anything like an equal extent is so well supplied with railroads as is that portion of the United States which extends along the Atlantic Coast from the northern boundary of Massachusetts to the southern boundary of Maryland, and stretches westward to the Mississippi. Of course there are small and densely peopled countries like Belgium, with a land surface about one-fourth that of the State of New York, which have more miles of line in proportion to their total area, as there are thinly peopled commonwealths like the Australian colonies which exceed it in the ratio of railway mileage to inhabitants. But in extent of territory it is with the great nations of Europe, Russia excepted, that this region of the United States can be most fairly compared, covering, as it does, more than twice as much surface as either the United Kingdom or Italy, a fourth more than either France or Germany, and but a few thousand square miles less than Austria-Hungary with Bosnia and Herzegovina thrown in. If the comparison be thus made, it will be found that in proportion as well to area as to population, the eleven American States in the region mentioned lead the world in railway mileage. For every one hundred square miles of their land surface they have 17.97 miles of railway, while the United Kingdom has but 16 42, Germany 12.44, France 11.06, Italy 7.10, and Austria-Hungary 6.30. Relative to population, of course, the superiority is even greater, there being 17.09 miles of line for every 10,000 inhabitants, while in the United Kingdom there are but 5.17 miles, in France 5.91, in Germany 5.35, in Austria-Hungary 3 91, and in Italy 2.62 miles.

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The net impression derived from the Papal Ablegate's visit to this city is, that he came here for the express purpose of forcing Archbishop Corrigan to what amounts to a public recantation and profession of obedience in the future. This impression is distinctly confirmed by the authorized interview with Archbishop Satolli's private secretary, which as good as said that the object of the visit was to find out whether the Archbishop of New York was "sincere" or not in his loyalty to the Pope. We do not wonder that the friends of the Archbishop are indignant at the terms of this interview, and denounce it as inaccurate, but we observe that the private secretary and the Ablegate are at no pains to correct it. The fresh outbreak of spluttering in the *Sun* by anonymous champions of Archbishop Corrigan shows in what quarter the bolt has struck. We may expect this clanking of chains to go on for some time, but the fact remains that the Pope's representative, with the Pope's full sanction, has ridden over the reactionary extremists of the Catholic Church in this country, and is now exhibiting the chief of them tied to his chariot.

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The result of the French elections was a foregone conclusion, and it may be considered that the Republic is now established in France upon as substantial a basis as the political capacity of the French people affords. The royalist faction appears to have been nearly extinguished and the question as to the form of government definitively answered. Henceforth the problem to be solved is not whether there shall be a republic, but what kind of a republic there shall be. Upon this subject the approach of the general election naturally called forth many *brochures*, in which the political history of recent years was criticised from various points of view. We have not observed among these any serious attempts at laudation of the Chamber just dissolved, the most ventured in this direction being rather shamefaced apology, while the torrent of invective poured forth upon the members of the expiring body has been terrific. As to the earlier record of the Republic, however, the case is somewhat different. That record has been examined with especial ability and severity by M. Francis de Pressensé in an essay entitled 'La France, les partis et les élections,' which has been received with general admiration, but which has drawn forth some vigorous replies. The best of the moderate Republican journals, the *Temps*, has exerted all its abilities to diminish the force of M. de Pressensé's attack, and, it must be admitted, with some degree of success.

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Among the two thousand candidates who asked the suffrages of the French electorate on Sunday, but a very small number have gained distinction in any way except in politics, in the narrower sense of the term. This has been made a subject of remark in many quarters, but nowhere more forcibly than by M. Salomon Reinach in an article in the *République Française*. He shows how public life has a diminishing attraction for the intellectual élite of France. The few brilliant exceptions which may be pointed out only serve to make more conspicuous the low level of the great mass of office-holders and candidates for office. Most of them are entirely unknown outside of a limited local circle, and an exceedingly small number have ever gained a name in science or literature or art or education. M. Reinach concludes that "we are travelling towards a state of things such as exists in the United States—the formation of a narrow caste of politicians, side by side with the increasing withdrawal from public life of men who think and make others think." Precisely this result was predicted by Burke a hundred years ago, when he spoke of the "multitudes of the inferior sort" which would be drawn into public life as "the objects of ambition are multiplied and become democratic." The democratic movement, in fact, has brought with it a deterioration of personnel in the official class all over the world. It has brought it in England as well as in France—so much so as to point the remark lately made by John Morley, in answer to an objection urged against the character of the men likely to be found in the proposed Irish Parliament, that if legislation were to wait until a thoroughly nice Legislature could be got together, the wheels of government would be blocked in every democratic country on earth.

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A minor feature of the recent German elections has been the increase in the Danish vote in Schleswig. While as hitherto but one Danish member was returned, his majority was considerably greater, and the minority votes of the other Danish candidates were without exception increased. In spite of the determined efforts of thirty years, the Germans are no further advanced in their plan of Germanizing this conquered Danish territory than when they began. Danish is still spoken in the homes, Danish papers are still read, and Denmark is still regarded as the people's real fatherland. Nor are the Danes at home more reconciled to the loss of "Southern Jutland." In every possible way they seek to support the cause of their former countrymen and to express their warm sympathy for them.

*GOLD AND CREDIT.*

It is very obvious that most of those who may be called "practical bimetallists"—the owners of silver mines and the politicians controlled by them—are really in favor of monometallism. They demand the free coinage of silver, and they are unable to clothe the assertion that the gold standard could still be maintained with a rag of argument. But it is undeniable that a considerable number of honest people are convinced of the theoretical advantages of bimetallism. Like Mr. Arthur Balfour, they sincerely dread the adoption of gold monometallism. It seems to them to involve the diminution of the "reservoir" of precious metals, and to threaten a serious, and, to debtors, an oppressive decline in prices. So far as we have observed, however, these theoretical bimetallists do not pay sufficient attention to the fact that it is a "condition and not a theory that confronts us." They fix their minds upon a real or supposed fall of general prices that has taken place during the last twenty years, and upon an imagined or anticipated fall that is to take place in the future, and ignore the frightful depreciation of the present moment. That depreciation we attribute to the apprehension not of gold monometallism, but of silver monometallism. However this may be, it shows that there are causes in operation which the bimetallic theorists do not take into account.

These causes arise out of the credit system of doing business, a system which has been carried in this country to an extreme never before witnessed. Until recently it might almost be said that money in the strict sense had gone out of use in the United States. A man would carry on an extensive business for months without touching a gold coin. A silver dollar he would reject, and the only semblance of metallic money that he used was the token coinage, which after all passed upon its credit more than upon its intrinsic worth. There was some gold held by the banks in their reserves and a good deal was held in the reserve of the Government. The only object of holding it was to assure the holders of paper money that they could get gold for it if they wanted to do so. If the holders of this paper were entirely satisfied that the Government had the ability and the will to redeem it in gold, we do not hesitate to say that the banks might keep their reserves in legal-tender notes instead of gold, and the Government might get along safely with a reserve of a hundred millions of gold. It might be formulated as a law that the amount of gold required for the transaction of the business of this country varies inversely with the credit of the Government. If that credit is above suspicion, the amount of gold needed is infinitesimal; but if the credit of the Government is shaken, it ceases to be available as money to the same extent, and more gold is required.

To simplify the matter, we may throw out at once the factor of positive ability to pay. No one doubts that the United States is abundantly able to pay all its obligations without difficulty. But since the silver legislation has prevailed, it is undeniable that doubts have arisen as to the honesty of the purpose of our Government. The political platforms have in many cases not been reassuring. A great many Representatives and Senators have loudly proclaimed that existing debts ought to be made payable in silver, and have voted for free coinage in order to make their intention effective. Rightly or wrongly, those who had lent gold dollars or their equivalent regarded this intention as dishonest. They perhaps had no clear views about monetary theories, but as between gold and the paper promises of a government of suspected honesty they had a practical preference for gold. Hence the contraction of credit; hence the strenuous demand for currency to take the place of the credit that had disappeared; and hence the reappearance of gold as money.

What now would be the effect of a clear, emphatic, and sincere declaration by a substantial majority of Congress that every creditor of the United States should be paid in gold, and that no more silver would be bought or coined? According to the bimetallic theorists, this ought to produce a fall in prices. They think that there would be a greatly increased demand for gold, a struggle among nations for it; that its value would be so enhanced that prices would fall, and the "debtor class" would be ground between the upper and the nether millstone. The facts show that nothing of the kind would take place. There would be a rise and not a fall of prices. There would be a lessened and not an increased demand for gold. There would be no struggle of nations over the matter, for, in the first place, the struggle is not between nations but between individuals, and in the second place gold would be rather at a discount than at its present premium. The "debtor class" would find that its credit was improving, business men would be able to get their notes discounted, timid people would release their hoards, and, in short, by restoring credit to its function as money, the requirement for actual money would come to an end.

To sum up, our existing currency is composed of gold and credit. If there is less credit, there must needs be more gold. If there is more credit, there need not be so much gold. If the bimetallists are logical, they will recognize the fact that credit is a much more important factor in currency than silver, and that their endeavors to force silver upon a reluctant business community depress prices instead of raising them. If we are to have bimetallism, we shall have to give up a large part of our credit. It may be wrong and deplorable, but it is the fact, and sensible bimetallists ought not to ignore it. We think the correctly reasoned convictions of the "financial classes" are against them, but, granting that it is only their unreasonable prejudice, the practical question remains the same. Shall we regard these prejudices and continue to do business on a little gold and a great deal of credit, or shall we defy them, and try to do business on a great deal of silver and what gold and credit the financial classes are disposed to contribute? This is the question that the American people is now asking its representatives in Congress.

*THE REAL AMERICAN RULER.*

"In no country in the world," says Mr. Bryce in his 'American Commonwealth,' "is public opinion so powerful as in the United States. . . . Towering over Presidents and State Governors, over Congress and State Legislatures, over conventions and the vast machinery of party, public opinion stands out, in the United States, as the great source of power, the master of servants who tremble before it. . . . In America opinion is not made, but grows; . . . does not originate in a particular class, but grows up in the nation at large." We commend these utterances, by the most penetrating and friendly student who has ever analyzed American institutions and character, to all persons who have doubts about the action of the Senate on the proposed repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law. We commend them also to the interested advocates of silver who are seeking to create the impression that there is at present a majority against repeal in the Senate.

To any one who has followed closely the history of this country, there are visible in the situation at Washington the very conditions which have usually preceded a great triumph of public opinion and a disastrous defeat for selfish, personal, and private interests. It has happened almost invariably that we emerge from our most momentous crises by a very narrow margin of safety. It is well known that when President Grant vetoed the Inflation Bill of 1874, he was at first inclined to approve it, and had prepared a message to that effect, but that he tore it up and wrote a second one which rescued the country from the abyss of illimitable paper money. Public opinion saved us in that crisis, as it saved us again from the free-silver-coinage peril in 1890. When the Free-Coinage Bill passed the Senate in that year, there was a general expectation that it would pass the House as well, but it was turned back because of popular protest against it. That protest was a very feeble voice compared with the one which is heard now, for the people have been going through a course of compulsory education on the silver question during the past few months which has taught them more about it than they would have learned in a lifetime under ordinary conditions.

Again and again partisan zeal in Congress has brought the country to the verge

of pernicious and dangerous legislation, like the successive force bills and the Blair Educational Bill, only to be turned back at the last moment by the influence of aroused public opinion upon a few of the more conscientious and high-minded members. In the Legislature of New York a few years ago a bill was passed, with arrogant defiance of public opinion, authorizing the disfigurement and spoliation of Central Park. Its advocates had more votes than they needed, and they scoffed at the idea of yielding to "popular clamor." But, within a few days, these same advocates, grinding their teeth in rage, bowed before public opinion and repealed their own measure. They were not converted; they were merely frightened into submission to the only power of which they stand in awe.

The career of President Cleveland is crowded with instances of this power of public opinion to overcome all obstacles, and they are so familiar to everybody that it is not necessary to recall them. How often has it seemed to the political prophets that his public career had been brought to an end because the politicians and statesmen of his party were arrayed in almost solid mass against him. He triumphed over them in every instance because he had public opinion behind him, and they found themselves, when that opinion asserted itself, as powerless as the most insignificant citizens in the land. They could not defeat him in their political conventions, and they were unable to prevent his triumph at the polls.

We are confident that the present contest will result, like all others of the kind, in the triumph of public opinion. The influences which are at work in the Senate to prevent it are the same as have worked against Mr. Cleveland in previous conflicts. How familiar it sounds, for example, to read in the Washington despatches that "in the opinion of many it rests with Senator Gorman to determine the action of the Senate on the question of the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Act." We heard a good deal of talk of that kind at the opening of the National Democratic Convention last year, but the event showed that Mr. Gorman had very little power in the premises. It sounds equally familiar to read in the same despatches that Senator Hill would be glad to aid Mr. Gorman in defeating repeal in the Senate, hoping thereby to show the President that he cannot carry out any policy without the aid of that wing of his party which Hill, Gorman, and Brice represent. But this wing has endeavored to make precisely the same demonstration many times before, and, for various reasons, has not succeeded. What would be the position of the Democratic party in New York and every other Northern State were these anti-Cleveland Democratic Senators to defeat the repeal bill? Every man of them knows that it would be a question only of the size of the Republican majorities after that. They might like to see President Cleveland's policy fail, but they are not anxious to commit political suicide in order to cause its failure. The trouble is that Cleveland's policy is the people's policy, and the two cannot be separated. Cleveland would not be injured by the failure of the Senate to pass the repeal bill, but the Democratic party would be blown so far out of existence by that failure that it would have no voice in directing the government of this country for another quarter of a century, and would deserve to have none. This is why, after all the bluster and bribery that the silver advocates can bring to bear on the situation, the Senate will unite with the House in voting for repeal.

## *BUSINESS AT THE WEST.*

THE passing of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company into the hands of a receiver calls attention to the marked decline in railway earnings and in general business in the States west of the Missouri River. The so-called transcontinental lines report a larger falling-off in traffic than is shown by companies east of Chicago. The losses reported by the Union Pacific for June will be exceeded, it is said, in the July statement. Temporarily at least, the traffic in the States named has on all roads shown a falling away from last year's statistics. Merchants in that section are alive to this fact, for in several instances we are informed that pools in goods have been agreed upon. In these pools the shopkeepers of a town or small city agree not to order goods from the East till the total stock of the town is exhausted. In this way a trader who is out of nails or calicoes will apply to a neighboring storekeeper for those articles with which to supply his customers. The agreement resembles the clearing-house system under which the banks with a surplus reserve assist their weaker brethren for the time. The effect of such agreements is of course for the moment to reduce still further the amount of railway shipments; yet it brings the end in sight, after which, under improved conditions, a more than normal movement of merchandise will set in.

The peculiar situation regarding the movement of the crops also affects the territory in question. Even allowing for the unusual surplus of wheat carried over, we shall be short perhaps 150,000,000 bushels as compared with last year; yet the cash price of grain does not reflect the statistical position. Farmers who have informed themselves will try to arrange their sales so as not to sacrifice their wheat. In ordinary times no planning would be needed, for speculators would borrow from the banks, and, by bidding against each other, would raise the price of cash wheat at harvest to an equivalent of the expected price during the anticipated scarcity of the winter. But the fear of the silver standard has blocked the machinery of exchange. The latest plan for overcoming the difficulty is by the issue of certified checks. This is much better than no plan, for in some way, though at heavy sacrifice, the crops must be moved. Yet it is well to remark regarding the bank-check plan that only the capitalists who have money in bank will be able to avail themselves of it, whereas formerly other brokers, greatly outnumbering the capitalists, could, by borrowing from the banks, aid the farmer in getting the highest cash price for his grain. In short, with the most favorable makeshifts for moving the crops, the producers all over the country, by supporting, or not opposing, the Sherman Act, have given themselves over to the "bloated capitalist," and have deprived themselves of the assistance of those who may believe in higher prices for breadstuffs, but who cannot obtain the credit assistance which in other years was theirs for the asking.

This state of things will no doubt prevent an early movement of the crops from the field to Minneapolis or Chicago—the very shipments upon which the Western roads usually count. This delay is and will be a factor in the shrinkage in earnings which the trans-Chicago lines are now showing or may hereafter report. Well-informed persons declare that farmers are financially able to hold their wheat. After two years of fine crops at good prices the Western producer is in a much better condition than his neighbor the manufacturer. It is said that the money in Iowa savings banks is largely that of farmers; and the general farming situation is the same in other States. The grain-producer may be expected, therefore, to ship his product much more slowly than in previous years, with a corresponding effect upon railways of a smaller traffic now and a better one in grain in the future.

It is not a cause of wonder that the younger States should feel the business depression acutely. Their growth has been phenomenal, but their citizens have forgotten that their prosperity was dependent upon credit. Faith in the profitableness of their mines and fields was the ground of the Eastern or foreign investment of capital, without which such development would have been impossible. The prosperity of the West was owing entirely to the expansion of our system of credit financiering. No doubt Eastern goods were sold there on too long time, and in general the credit system may have been carried too far, but nevertheless the confidence of both lender and borrower was found to be generally justified. As a single instance the railway first mentioned, the Northern Pacific, may be taken. For the year ending June 30, 1887, its gross earnings were upwards of $12,000,000. For the year 1891 those earnings exceeded $25,000,000, a doubling of receipts within four years. Regardless of the basis of their prosperity, the Western States allowed the whole system of credits to be attacked until general distrust ensued. It is a rule in commercial affairs that new enterprises are the first to be affected in a panic;

so we need not be surprised that general business there felt the effects first and heaviest. The situation at the West points a clear moral: that for their own interests and to hasten a return to their former abounding prosperity, the newer States should take prompt steps to restore public confidence in the standard of value.

## THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION—IV.

### THE ENSEMBLE.

CHICAGO, July, 1893.

AN article in the *Revue Bleue* last winter contained an account of the buildings of the Chicago Fair as they then appeared. The writer was strongly impressed by the general effect of what is now called the Court of Honor and the design of the buildings surrounding it. His admiration, indeed, amounted to an enthusiasm. There was a trace of proper French surprise that a combination so artistic should have been made at that distance from Paris, but he remembered that much was still to be done. The architects had succeeded in grouping their masses harmoniously, and the buildings were in themselves imposing. He was sure, however, that much of the fine effect then obtained would be lost when each edifice should be disfigured by the coarse and tasteless decoration sure to be lavished upon it. One smiled at the flavor of cockneyism that is rarely absent from the Parisian judgment, but, just the same, one shared the critic's distrust as to those "finishing touches." Favorable testimony came from all sides and from competent witnesses, and yet our incredulity was never entirely dissipated. We owned to ourselves that an equal weight of testimony would have secured unclouded belief had the Fair been in Paris, but, as it was in Chicago, an attitude of reserve was no more than natural.

Our first view from within the grounds was when, from the terminal station of the Illinois Central Railway at the Fair, we passed through the Administration Building to the terrace from which is seen the whole Court of Honor. We remarked by the way that the Administration Building was much more imposing in reality than in the pictures of it we had seen. The colonnade under the dome especially was more stately and had more relief than they had led us to expect. Nor had we looked for anything so majestic in size. As to the interior decorations, seen in crossing under the dome, they were on a higher level both as to conception and execution than the Parisian critic had foreseen. But what would he have said on coming out into the Court of Honor, now that an abundant scheme of decoration supplements the dignity of the masses in general? What *could* he have said, except that he might have trusted those capable of conceiving such a whole to look well after its component parts? As far as we know, there exist no two opinions as to this stupendous spectacle. In detail, as in mass and grouping, it compels admiration from every one, and the scale upon which it is carried out puts it in the very front rank of similar displays. As a complete departure from the conventional exhibition architecture—the endless variations made upon the original Crystal Palace and that of the Champs-Élysées—it is not quite unprecedented. At Amsterdam a few years ago the great feature of the International Fair was the show of products from Java, and the architect of the main building thought fit to give a façade made up from Javanese motives. The result was a great success, though, as far as we know, it did not attract the attention it deserved. It was thoroughly exotic. Amidst the sober quaintness of Amsterdam, its snowy mass was like a palace in a dream, and yet it was quite appropriate to the exhibition it prefaced. It was more original than the setting at Chicago; we had almost said it was more appropriate, but we remembered that if Javanese architecture fits a Javanese show, so does Roman architecture, and its successor of the Renaissance, fit a display of the products and industries of the civilized world. In respect of the choice of an architectural setting for the Fair, it is a great good fortune that the Gothic style, proposed and favored by one, at least, of the architects concerned, was not fixed upon eventually. This we say not less as admirers of mediæval art than as friends of what is meet and suitable.

It might be said that Chicago is not even the second to break away from the conventional world's-fair style, since some of the buildings of the last great show in Paris were architectural feats of a high order. In originality of conception, in bold "modernity," Chicago can show nothing to compete with the combination of the Eiffel Tower and the dome of the Machinery Hall, unless it be an originality to turn back so completely to types consecrated by age. However that may be, Amsterdam could boast of but one palace, unsupported by any group in harmony with it; and, whatever be the relative value of the works of the French and the American artists, in themselves considered, nobody can deny that Chicago has, in the ensemble of the Court of Honor, accomplished something unique and splendid, probably beyond all feats of decorative architecture of our time.

There are two points of view from which we especially loved to gaze at this fine scenic display. From the terrace in front of the Administration Building the eye looks straight down the long basin of water between the Agricultural Hall and that of Manufactures and Liberal Arts to the peristyle with the gilded statue of the Republic in front and the blue of the lake seen between the columns. The sheet of water is vast, the main lines of the surrounding buildings are simple, the general effect is indescribably majestic, though, at the same time, made gay by the gondolas and launches that enliven the basin, and the perhaps too manifold flapping of flags on the roof edges. It is from here that the Manufactures Building is seen to advantage. It is the huge roof, with its really noble lines, which gives it character and goes far to redeem the commonplace, railway-station look it has when one sees it from near at hand. It is splendid in mass, but poor in detail, apart from the decorative paintings, some of which are beautiful, but which do not count in any general view of the hall.

The second point is on the north-side bridge looking across the basin toward the south canal, where the end of the Machinery Building confronts that of Agriculture, and the two are connected, in the background, by a colonnade of exceedingly elegant design. This view is much smaller than the first, and, instead of the breadth and simplicity of that, we have a charming richness, picturesqueness, and grace. The two main buildings are perhaps the most successful compositions of their class at the Fair. The "Palace of Mechanic Arts" is a delightfully rococo combination of belfries and domes with colonnades and porticoes, grouped by a master hand. The Agricultural Hall, which, in the form of its dome and various other features, invites comparison with the Art Building, is in some respects better than that, and inferior to it only in disposition and subordination of masses. It is especially superior in force, variety, and originality of design. This group is enriched by a bridge, by rostral columns, an obelisk and statues, forming altogether a composition as unrestrainedly splendid as the dream of a theatrical decorator—one of the things that seem "too good to be true." It is so bright and exuberant that it strikes one as foreign to the practical American genius, and, we fancy, elicits less general admiration than many less clever but more sober combinations. And yet its festal character is in nowise exaggerated; there are salient points enough to give animation, gayety even, to the scene, but not enough to be confusing.

And just here we would touch upon what, to us, is a defect in the great beauty of this court. Let any one look at the charming MacMonnies fountain from one side, and at a little distance, and he will see what we mean. In a line with one part or another of the fountain—itself rich in figures—are two Corinthian columns with an eagle atop of each, two rostral columns, four stags, all white and all seen against a white background. The effect is bewildering. The multiplicity of forms, all in the same color, makes it difficult to see any one of them in proper relief, and all together make an inextricable confusion. Neither of the peoples whose architecture has suggested all the features of this court would have made such a mistake. Gold and bronze and color would have been employed, not in quantities sufficient to take away the general whiteness of tone, but so that each member of the group would have stood out in needed relief. The delicate tint on the walls of the Agricultural Building adds much to the value of the colonnade in front of it; and, though we frequently heard regret expressed that Mr. French's statue of the Republic had not been left in its original whiteness, the objectors failed to consider that, at the proper distance for seeing it, the statue would then have been scarcely discernible.

Again, it seems ungrateful to quarrel with the abundance of a feast, but six rostral columns exactly alike, and each bearing at the top the same Neptune, give a machine-like character to the decorations, all the more noticeable as the standard of excellence in them is so high. So there are at least six of those stags and four buffaloes; and the fine farm horses and oxen which embellish the landings on the great basin, are repeated on those of the south canal, etc., etc. Of course the temporary nature of the entire spectacle is the excuse for these inartistic economies in profusion. It is, however, due to the administration to add that our surprise is less that such repetitions should have been indulged in than that they should be so few as to be easily lost sight of in the variety, the richness, and, above all, the high level of the work in general. Were the often-expressed wish to be realized, and these buildings made permanent in marble, it would not be necessary to add all the decorative surroundings at once, but then it would be imperative that each one should be unique.

This wish, that the beauty of the Court of Honor might be perpetuated, is the natural expression of the admiration it excites. It is also the protest of the imagination against the ugliness of our cities, their general sacrifice of the aspirations of the educated minority to the supposed wants of the majority; and it is delight in a generous offering to our inner desire for a lovelier setting to our lives. The Chicago people are naturally proud of the splendid work

they have called into existence, and the comparison they invite with the last Exhibition in Paris is excusable. In one way this comparison may be made more wholesome than pleasant, and that is in thinking, as is inevitable, of the surroundings of each. The Paris Exhibition was a jewel in an equally wonderful setting. It was not out of place in, but was worthy of, what is still the most beautiful city in the world. There was no transition from one to the other—one was only the complement of the other. At Chicago you go out of the Fair grounds into a hideous suburb, whence a train whirls you away to a grimy, workaday city. Whatever harmony there may be between Chicago and its superb creation is an inner and moral one. We willingly believe, however, that this harmony is real, and is an earnest of what the Chicago of the future is to be.

Quitting the Court of Honor, one leaves what is peculiar to the Chicago Exhibition—its glory, its *clou*—for a fair like another; a very big one, it is true, but still a fair such as we have seen only too often. The waterways are here also, and serve to enliven the general commonplace. The north end of the lagoon, surrounded with its "samples" of architecture, is a picturesque enough higgledy-piggledy. It is a pity, however, that the south end of the Wooded Island could not have been a formal arrangement of landscape gardening, in harmony with the architectural group about it, consisting of the Manufactures, Electricity, Mining, and Transportation Buildings. No doubt the accomplished artist who laid out the island saw clearly enough how much this part of the basin would have gained by such treatment. That he did not act upon his knowledge is a sufficient proof that the difficulties in the way were not to be overcome.

The Transportation Building is a revelation as to what the Fair has escaped by adopting Renaissance architecture and prevailing whiteness. Close at hand the building is an entertaining salad of styles. The so-called "Golden Doorway" is a successful enough fusion of Romanesque, Arabic, and East Indian motives. The arcades of the sides are Roman in plan with columns of original form. In the spandrils are very modern Byzantine angels, reminding one of Sarah Bernhardt as *Theodora*—altogether, a pleasant building to pass the time with; but seen at a distance, all these details fail of effect, and the epithet "shabby" applied to it by the London *Times* seems justified.

We are now in the region of conventional exhibition architecture, where there is much that is good with some that is bad. Next to the Transportation Building, or nearly so, is the horticultural display. The housing of this is naturally in the variety of greenhouse which has become the exhibition style. But it has been treated well in the spirit of much modern French work. The dome, from any point of view, is pleasing, and the whole merits more praise than it has got thus far, unlike the Art Building, which has got rather more than it merits. Not that this last is not deserving of praise, and of high praise, but scarcely of such as we have heard given it. At least, in its present state, its classicality is suggestive of the cold Munich sort; and parts, as, for instance, the attic and pediment over the main entrance, are distinctly poor. Its dome, too, of beautiful form, would be improved by more vigor in its details. The pediments about it look thin, the decoration about the drum too delicate for a place so far from the eye of the observer. The sister dome on the Agricultural Building is more fortunate in these respects. By the way, the circle of turkeycocks that does duty for the conventional Greek honeysuckle as a crest to the drum, is at once original, appropriate, and pleasing. A similarly happy inspiration made the architect of the Fisheries Building use fishes and aquatic plants and animals for the ornamented mouldings, the capitals and shafts of his columns, many of which are full of spirit and grace. By a mistake of the workmen, who copied the ornamentation on the columns only so far as it was shown in the drawings furnished them, the lower part of the shafts is quite plain. We cannot help thinking the blunder a happy one, as by it a certain expression of freshness, of a first impulse, that marks the work is increased.

Among the State buildings there are two sorts that are especially interesting: those which attempted nothing but a pleasing display of the most rustic forms of construction and decoration—these at least show something of the products of the States and the ideas of their people—and those which reproduce, by copy or suggestion, some historical monument. The others are merely more or less successful architectural compositions without any peculiar appropriateness. Of the foreign buildings, the German is the most important. It is a very characteristic example of the style which the Germans call their Renaissance, very effective in its way and picturesque—but as for their Renaissance, "Bless thee, Bottom! bless thee! thou art translated!" Had they called it *Wiedergeburt*, it would have been all right. Such as it was, however, it had a beauty and a character of its own; which is more than can be said for their structure in the Liberal Arts Building—as commonplace a copy of Italian motives as could well be produced. It naturally provokes comparison with the French pavilion near it, a florid composition, such as the occasion and place warrant, and vigorous, well adapted to its purpose, and thoroughly artistic.

In one respect the impression of beauty generally received from the Fair inspires uneasiness. It is not unreasonable to fear lest the Court of Honor mark the beginning of an outbreak of white classicality over the land, which will make the vagaries of Queen Anne and the colonial style appear the height of good sense and good taste. Roman architecture less than that of the Georgian era lends itself to performances in pine boards and white paint. But we may hope that the Fair will bear good fruit as well as bad, and that its final lesson will be one of reserve and refinement. If American builders once learn that simplicity and good proportion, with ornament remarkable rather for quality than for quantity, are worth more as factors of permanent success in architecture than all the picturesque jumbles of towers, loggias, oriels, dormers, etc., etc., that they now delight in, the Fair will have accomplished a work of lasting value.

S. K.

## THE POPE AND THE AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

ROME, July 27, 1893.

IT is not surprising that the position of the Vatican in relation to the schools in America should puzzle those who are not initiated in the first degrees of the Roman mysteries. To the last degrees no one is initiated except those who can be relied on never to take exception to what is decided there, and never, above all, to reveal it. There is no authoritative declaration of truth as received at the Vatican, except the encyclicals, bulls, rescripts, etc., etc.; and in spite of what is currently believed, the Vatican has no official organ. Information is furnished to certain papers which are held never to publish anything contrary to the views of the Vatican, but which are never admitted to be official further than direct communications are concerned. The matters on which there is no declaration of dogma, or Papal decision (which is not reckoned as dogma, but as no longer subject to dispute), are, like the laws of nature, subject to different interpretation, but, like those laws, more or less authoritatively interpreted; and as Nature has her law-readers, so the matters thus left outside of the decisions of the Church are read with authority which approaches the Papal, more or less.

On all the questions thus left in limbo, the Rev. Father Brandi, famous Jesuit controversialist, is recognized as the highest authority, and he is always put forward to reply to the attacks on the doctrine of the Church, and has the fullest access to the documents and persons giving light on the respective subjects. He is the authoritative interpreter, to whom all outside the circle of the highest illumination, such as Bishops, Archbishops, Monsignore of the various degrees below Cardinal, give respectful adhesion. He was put forward to reply to the articles in the *Contemporary Review*, and has now published, in the *Civita Cattolica*, organ of the order, his dictum on the school question in the United States, headed "A New Pontifical Confirmation of the Parochial Schools in America." It is followed by the text of the Pope's letter to Cardinal Gibbons "on the controversy about the public and parochial schools of the United States," which the Rev. Father says "has been received with grateful mind and applause by all who were and are, here [in Rome] or elsewhere, strenuous defenders of an education strictly Catholic for the Catholic youth in Catholic schools. Nor could it be otherwise, it being known to all that on such an education depends in great part the true and genuine well-being not only of individuals, but also of the family, the State, and the Church."

I will endeavor to give as clear an idea of the article which the Rev. Father has published as the original permits, and where there is a passage in the original which seems subject to any question, I will render it literally, and in the rest will give such a résumé as will not "betray" the author. For him I have all the respect one can have for a man who consistently and with his whole soul sustains the most uncompromising adherence to the rigid doctrine of the Church as it is defined by the Papal bulls and rescripts, defiant of all the temporizing and compromising weaknesses which maintain the nominal boundaries of the Catholic Roman Church at the cost of its discipline and compactness. Father Brandi has no patience with the Catholics who question—he recognizes nothing but the most implicit acceptance of the authority of the Church, and will have none of the modern liberalization of it. Therefore he says:

"Our readers are not ignorant how the bitter struggle for the existence of the Catholic school, and the principles on which it is founded, has been in the United States, especially during the last two years, sustained not only against the attacks of the secret societies, which there not less than in Europe, animated by a Satanic fury, do everything to pervert the education of the youth, but also and chiefly against certain laicizing Catholics, who, under the pretence of patriotism, reach-

ing a friendly hand to the enemies of the Church, seem to desire to subordinate in the school the religious good to the civil good, and fully approve, against the decrees of the Popes and the prescriptions of the Plenary Council of Baltimore, such a method of educating the youth as should be divided from the Catholic faith and from the authority of the Church."

That there exists in the United States such a party among the Catholics he considers a grave and painful fact, and he stigmatizes the *Western Watchman* as a sacrilegious assailant of the true doctrines of the Church, associating with it the *Colorado Catholic* of Denver, the *Catholic Union and Times* of Buffalo, the *Northwestern Chronicle* of St. Paul, the *Freeman's Journal* of New York, and the *Catholic Times* of Philadelphia. To put a stop to the propaganda of the pernicious principles of these pseudo-Catholics, the Father undertakes to comment on the letter of the Pope to which reference has been made; and the readers of the *Nation* may take my assurance, as of one in the most friendly and (as far as is possible to a non-Catholic) confidential relations with some of the most liberal and clear-headed prelates in residence here, that what Father Brandi says is what the Vatican means, and what must be accepted by all who desire to remain in the grace of the Church. The letter, he shows, must be accepted as the sole and indiscussable rule by which all Catholics must be guided on the question involved, being, not the teaching, either theoretical or practical, of a prelate or private teacher, but the decision of the head of the Church, intended to put an end to the dissensions and disputes which have existed on the subject of the schools. These are the authoritative words of the Pontiff:

"For the rest, in order that there may remain in the future no reason for doubt or clash of opinions in a matter of so great gravity, as We have already declared in our letter addressed on the 23d of May of the past year to the venerable brethren, the Archbishop and Bishops of the Ecclesiastical Province of New York, so again, as far as is necessary, We declare that the decrees established according to the rules given by the Holy See through the Councils of Baltimore, in regard to the parochial schools, as well as all that the Roman Pontiffs, either directly or through the Sacred Congregations, have prescribed on the same subject, are to be constantly observed."

Follows a résumé of the history of the Councils of Baltimore, and quotations from their decrees, insisting on the retention in the hands of the clergy of the education of the Catholic youth. "We exhort the Bishops," says the first Council, "and, in view of the grave evils which habitually proceed from a not well-instructed youth, we conjure them by God's bowels of mercy, to endeavor to found in their respective dioceses schools annexed to each church." This was confirmed by the second Council, which further urged that not only the religious, but the literary, education of the Catholic youth should be conducted by the clergy. The third Council, affirming what had been said by the prior ones, adds that "each parochial church should have, in the space of two years from the promulgation of the present decree, its own school where it does not already exist, and keep it up perpetually, unless for serious reasons the Bishop considers that a delay may be accorded." And further, it adds that a priest who neglects to obey this rule deserves to be sent away from his parish. To these decrees of the Councils, Brandi adds a digest of the allocutions and letters of Pius IX. and Leo XIII. confirming this rigid view of the question, concluding with an extract from the Encyclical *Sapientiæ christianæ*, and one from the letter of the past year to the Archbishop and Bishops of New York.

"Here the Holy Father declares that his decision, like that of the whole episcopacy, 'denies the possibility of approving the neutral schools—*i. e.*, those without religion—and asserts the necessity of confessional schools in which the youth shall be instructed in religion by those whom the Bishops shall have judged fit for that office.' After this last solemn declaration of the Holy Father in favor of the parochial schools and the decrees of the Councils of Baltimore, illustrated by the documents to which he refers and which we have desired to quote at length, we believe that, according to the expressed desire of the Pontiff himself, all controversy on this subject ought to cease. In another of our works published apropos of the decree of the Holy Congregation of the Propaganda, we concluded with the words of St. Augustine, 'Jam de hac causa duo Consilia missa sunt ad Sedem Apostolicam: inde etiam rescripta venerunt. Causa finita est.' We now add the remainder of the sentence, which we then omitted: 'Utinam aliquando finiatur error.'"

Father Brandi is right, and those who live in Rome and are daily witnesses of the struggle going on between the Church and its opponents are perfectly aware that there is no compromise possible and no "liberalizing" of the Roman Catholic Church, in the way that so many non-Catholics and lukewarm Catholics are desirous of seeing it liberalized. The very foundation of the organization is the principle of authority of the Holy See, and Father Brandi sees, as the Pope sees, that any weakening of this authority is simply the beginning of a schism. Private judgment no longer exists on any matter on which the Church has spoken, and it must be remembered that it is not merely the opinion of the person who holds the papacy in hand, but the deliberations of the highest authorities of the Church, as expressed in its conclaves and councils, of which he is the mouthpiece. We who maintain as the vital element of human progress the absolute liberty of human intelligence and the inherent wisdom of doubt, consider as a theological fiction the authority of the papacy and the dogmas of the Church, under whatever form; but, if the Church is to stand, it must stand by authority, and every member who doubts and claims liberty of judgment is an illogical Catholic and an enemy to the Church, and it is far better for it that he should be excised from it than that he should air his liberalism in it; that the Church should be diminished in numbers rather than weakened by want of cohesion and homogeneity. This is the feeling of the great body of the churchmen who live near the head of the Church, and it is the logical conclusion of Roman Catholic doctrine. X.

## NAPOLEON, AND NO END.

PARIS, August 3, 1893.

WHAT may be called the Napoleonic revival continues, and I can offer as a proof the great success obtained by two works of M. Henry Houssaye, '1814' and '1815.' M. Henry Houssaye is the son of Arsène Houssaye, well known in the literary circles of Paris, who was for a few years Administrator of the French Theatre at the end of the Second Empire. M. Henry Houssaye devoted himself in his youth to the study of Greek; he speaks modern Greek; he wrote a 'History of Alcibiades and of the Athenian Republic from the Death of Pericles to the Period of the Thirty Tyrants,' and several other works on the Hellenic world.

Finding, probably, that Hellenism has retained but few adepts in our day, he turned himself to modern times; he wrote a short account of the campaign of France in 1870, and afterwards betook himself to the study of the downfall of Napoleon. He worked in the modern fashion, trying to forget all that had been written on the subject, and searching for original documents in the rich archives of our Foreign Office and the unexplored archives of our War Department. He says in a note to his last volume that 200,000 letters and reports came under his eyes. According to the modern historical fashion, he never advances a fact without mentioning in a small-print note the document or documents relative to this fact. The method has been justly criticised, not in itself, for the historian cannot consult too many documents, but in its excesses, when the historian merely counts the documents without criticising and weighing them. An innumerable mass of small strokes do not make a picture; the historian need not take us into the recesses of his library and the recesses of his own mind. The great public is satisfied if it is interested, and the interest suffers somewhat by perpetual annotations and references.

It must be confessed, however, that M. Henry Houssaye has used his documents artfully, and has thrown as much as he could into notes which the general public may read or not; and he has not overburdened himself in his narrative. In fact, I confess having read his '1815' as rapidly as I could have read the most thrilling novel. Yet is it not fiction, this extraordinary and miraculous "vol de l'aigle" of Napoleon from the island of Elba to the Tuileries? There is nothing in the history of the world more romantic, nothing which has so much the character of an epopee. The return from Elba assumed the character of a legend almost immediately after having marked its date in history. It is eminently dramatic. It has painted itself in the popular imagination in a succession of tableaus such as remain for ever engraved on the mind.

First we have the departure from Elba, the small flotilla carrying "Cæsar and his fortune"; Napoleon on the deck of the *Inconstant*, watching the English and French cruisers, with his battalion of Elba, composed chiefly of old grenadiers.

"Towards four o'clock, the *Inconstant* had rounded Cape Corse, when a war-ship was signalled, coming right on her. The Emperor gave the order to clear for action. 'Let her approach,' said he, 'and if she attacks us, we will board her.' After a few moments Taillade [the captain] recognized the brig *Zéphyr*, which he had often met in this part of the Mediterranean, and which was commanded by one of his old comrades, Capt. Andrieux. The Emperor, who wished to avoid a fight, ordered the grenadiers to take off their high bear-skins and to lie on the deck. The two brigs passed each other. Accustomed to see in these waters the flag of Elba, Capt. Andrieux showed no hostile disposition. By the Emperor's order Taillade took the speaking-trumpet and hailed the commander of the *Zéphyr*. 'Where are you going?' asked Taillade, repeating the words of Napoleon. 'To Leghorn; and you?' 'To Genoa. Have you any commissions?' 'No. And how is the great man?' 'Very well.' And the two ships left each other."

Second tableau: The ships of the little flotilla had met in the deserted Golfe-Jouan. Napoleon had taken his column, composed of about a thousand men, directly to the mountains, thus avoiding the royalist region of Provence, and striking for Dauphiny. The details of his march are most interesting, but let us come at once to the critical point, to his first meeting with troops sent against him. This took place in a narrow passage, on the road to Grenoble, at Laffrey. Commander Delessart had been sent to dispute the passage of Laffrey with a bat-

talion of the line and a company of engineers. He had with him Capt. Randon, an aide-de-camp of Gen. Marchand, who commanded at Grenoble. "The Commander recognized Napoleon by his gray redingote and saw him dismount. The Emperor seemed very much agitated. He walked on the road, then stopped and looked at the battalion with his glass." There was a moment of uncertainty, of anxiety: would the soldiers sent against Napoleon fire on him, his soldiers of the Old Guard, his Polish lancers? The captain of artillery, Raoul, aide-de-camp of Napoleon, first rode alone towards the front of the battalion, and said: "The Emperor is going to march on you. If you fire, he will be the first struck. You will answer for it before France." Mute and motionless like statues, the soldiers seemed insensible. The Polish lancers rode on, and Delessart, seeing his men hesitating, ordered the retreat; he was almost immediately ashamed of retreating, and, the lancers having had the order not to charge and returned towards Napoleon, Delessart stopped and turned the head of his battalion again towards Napoleon.

"Then the Emperor ordered Col. Mallet to have all his men keep their guns under their left arm. Mallet having objected that it would be dangerous to come thus disarmed before a troop whose disposition seemed uncertain, the Emperor said: 'Mallet, do as I say.' And, alone, before his old chasseurs, bearing their guns low, he marched towards the Fifth of the line. 'There he is. Fire!' screamed Capt. Randon, beside himself."

The unfortunate soldiers were livid, their legs shook, their guns trembled in their hands. When he was within pistol-shot, Napoleon stopped.

"'Soldiers of the Fifth,' said he with a strong and calm voice, 'know me again.' Then, advancing two or three steps more and opening his redingote, 'If there is among you a man who wants to kill his Emperor, he can do it. I offer myself to him.' The trial was too great for soldiers. A long cry of 'Vive l'Empereur!' so long repressed, burst forth. The ranks were broken; the white cockades covered the road. The soldiers threw themselves towards their Emperor, surrounded him, knelt before him, and touched, like idolaters, his boots, his sword, his redingote."

Third tableau: Napoleon has gone on, he has entered Grenoble, he has entered Lyons; as he said on landing, the eagle has fled from spire to spire to Paris. The soldiers join him wherever he goes; the peasants follow his ever-increasing army and look with amazement on him. Marshal Ney, who had forced him almost brutally to abdicate at Fontainebleau, the year before, who had left Louis XVIII., saying that he would bring back Napoleon in an iron cage, has gone over again to the captain with whom he had fought so many battles. Let us see the end of the triumphal march. Napoleon is approaching Paris; Louis XVIII. has fled. All who composed the Imperial Court have gone, one by one, to the Tuileries—councillors of state, chamberlains, masters of ceremonies, all in their uniforms, generals, ladies in court dress, with all their diamonds, as on a great gala day. They meet each other, like ghosts, in the Salon des Maréchaux. Somebody perceives that on the carpets the fleurs-de-lis have been put over the imperial bees. The ladies go on their knees with scissors, and the bees are seen again. Time goes on; they are all waiting; the night approaches; the Emperor does not come; perhaps a fanatical royalist has fired at him.

"At last, towards nine o'clock, a distant noise is heard of horses and cries all along the quays. It comes nearer, it becomes formidable. A post-carriage enters rapidly, followed by a thousand horsemen of all arms and of all grades, riding in disorder, brandishing their swords and vociferating 'Vive l'Empereur!' . . . The door of the carriage is opened, Napoleon seized, torn from it, carried from arm to arm to the vestibule, where other arms drag him to the steps of the staircase. All these men are attacked by a furious delirium. . . . 'In God's name,' screams Caulaincourt to La Valette, 'put yourself in front of him!' La Valette braces himself against the avalanche and walks backwards, preceding the Emperor, saying all the time, 'Is it you, you, you?' Napoleon seems to hear nothing, to see nothing. He allows himself to be carried on, with a fixed smile on his lips, as if in a state of somnambulism."

M. Houssaye does not content himself with these pictures; he has an object—he intends to prove that the return from Elba was not a mere military triumph; that Napoleon was not only the idol of the army, that he was as much the idol of the people. But, on his own showing, there were distinctions to be made both in the various provinces of France and among the various classes of the people. Napoleon, after landing at Golfe-Jouan, never dared to cross the royalist parts of Provence, where he had been so ill-received and almost ill-treated when he made his journey from Fontainebleau to the Island of Elba; he traversed the Revolutionary province of Dauphiny, and afterwards that part of the eastern provinces of France which was most chauvinistic. It is true that all resistance in the Gironde, in Brittany, in the southern part of France which was hostile to his enterprise, came to an end when he was once again in the Tuileries; the Duc d'Angoulême, the Duchess, the leaders of the Vendean party, could make only spasmodic efforts against Napoleon. Nevertheless, the middle classes were everywhere alarmed at the consequences of the return of Napoleon. Though Napoleon, urged by his friends to recommence 1793, and to become the true successor of the men of the Terror, said, "I will not be the king of the canaille," he felt himself that he had with him only the army and what M. Houssaye calls the *populaire*—that is to say, the mob. He called Carnot into his Cabinet, he appealed to the interests of those who had bought the *biens nationaux*—the estates confiscated during the Revolution; but he counted really on the army, on his own genius, on the fortune of war. The second volume of '1815,' which has not yet appeared, will show us the end of the terrible drama.

# Correspondence.

## A SUBSTITUTE FOR THE SHERMAN ACT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The people of this country have for some time been supplying Senator Jones "and ten thousand gentlemen more" with food, clothing, shelter, and a few luxuries, in return for mining and smelting silver, transporting it to Washington, and coining, counting, and guarding it. The people now show some signs of a disposition to quit this business by repealing the Sherman Act; and their employees, naturally indignant, insist on a substitute. Nothing will answer the purpose but the following: "Be it enacted, That all the silver now in the Treasury be carried back to the West, reconverted into ore, and deposited again in the mines!" The malcontents would be employed; the value of silver would be enhanced; the dreadful calamity of using that precious gold as money would be averted, and Republicans and Democrats would be free to resume their discussion of the academical question: *What function of the duty on one thing is the price of another?* Incidentally, too, the depraved desire of the millions who want to own silver tea-sets would be thwarted. Do we not know, on the authority of an eminent writer on international law, that a cheap tea-caddy makes a cheap man? As for the silver certificates, they might, I presume, remain "based" on the silver, of which "there would be as much in the country as ever there was."

A. I.

New Bedford, Mass.

## PURCHASING POWER OF THE RUPEE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The London *Economist* of June 30, 1888, as quoted by Mr. Wells in 'Recent Economic Changes,' has something to the same point as your editorial, "Another Silver Humbug Exploded":

"The argument has been that, owing to the fall in silver, the gold which the seller of Indian wheat here gets for his produce is worth 25 per cent. more rupees than before, and that, as the rupee commands in India the same amount of wheat it formerly did, the fall in silver is practically equivalent to a bounty of 25 per cent. upon shipments hither. But if the purchasing power of the rupee, instead of remaining unchanged, has fallen 25 per cent., as the official record of prices would seem to show, then obviously the argument and the theories that have been based upon it fall to the ground."

I have been told by one who buys Indian products that the price of indigo goes up on the decline of silver, and it is a common argument that the United States people lose millions to silver-standard countries. If silver goes down and the silver price of indigo rises, I do not see why the gold price should go up, too. Can you tell me where this argument is best made and where best refuted?—Yours truly,

Arthur M. Hyde.

Rockville, Conn., August 17, 1893.

[If you mean the "common argument that the United States people lose millions to silver-standard countries," we have never seen any argument on that subject, but merely the private opinion of certain persons that such losses take place. We do not know where or by whom the announcement of this opinion has been "best made." The best refutation of it that we are acquainted with is that of Sir David M. Barbour, the financial adviser of the Indian Government. Sir David, although a strong bimetallist, advised the demonetization of silver by India on account of the losses that India sustained by reason of the silver standard. His paper on this subject was laid before Parliament and published recently in conjunction with the other documents relating to the action of India on silver.—Ed. Nation.]

## THE RELIGIOUS PARLIAMENT AT CHICAGO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The most important and far-reaching benefits to mankind from the Columbian Exposition are not those which are most palpable to the ordinary visitor, but those which are hereafter to result from the series of congresses held at the Art Institute in conjunction with

the Exposition. It is only the comparatively small number of the most intellectual class of visitors who appreciate their value while in actual progress, but they are destined to exert a widespread influence when laid open to the world by publication, and they cannot fail to develop further thought and stimulate further investigation. We have already had abundant evidence of this in the papers and discussions of leading minds of the world which have been secured by the wise forethought of the projectors of this feature of the Exhibition. The reports of them in the daily papers have sufficed only to show how rich a treat is in store for those who may hereafter be able to study them with thoughtful care; and doubtless there are many in every community who will derive more enjoyment from their perusal than was afforded by the gorgeous material display in the various buildings and on the grounds.

But of all the assemblies to be convened during the Fair, none can equal in interest, or in the opportunity it will afford for social progress, as a stepping-stone towards universal brotherhood, the Religious Parliament which is to be held at the Art Institute from September 11 to September 27. Its conception was a sublime one, and the manner in which the call has been responded to from every quarter of the globe affords sufficient evidence that the times are ripe for the effort.

The grand underlying spirit which prompted it may be expressed in the words: "Have we not all one Father? Hath not one God created us?" And in this spirit the leaders of spiritual thought of every nation and sect on earth have been asked to come together, and explain the doctrines which they hold to be most favorable to such spiritual development as will be acceptable to the common Father. No such assembly has ever been seen on earth as will then be gathered in Chicago. Leading representatives of every existing faith will be present in person or contribute papers, animated by the wish to ascertain wherein they agree, rather than to magnify differences; recognizing the weakness of human nature, and trying to help each other by drawing nearer together and seeking for good wherever it is to be found, in accordance with the words of Whittier:

> "So to the calmly gathered thought
> The innermost of truth is taught,
> The mystery, dimly understood,
> That love of God is love of good;
> That to be saved is only this—
> Salvation from our selfishness."

It is a significant and very suggestive fact that the two most decided and uncompromising opponents of the Religious Parliament are the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Sultan of Turkey! Neither of these magnates will admit a discussion which involves the necessity of recognizing any faith but their own, or that spiritual progress is possible on any but the conventional lines prescribed by the churches of which they are the heads. Comment is needless, and perhaps it is a just cause for congratulation that such a conspicuous example has been furnished to illustrate the effect of bigotry in defeating its own object. Fortunately, neither of them can control the leading minds of their followers, and noble representatives of both beliefs will take part in the discussions.

H. W. S. C.

Minneapolis, August 7, 1893.

## MR. ALCOTT AND HIS BIOGRAPHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Are you quite sure that, as you say, "it is a serious reproach to the *candor and accuracy* of the Memoir [Mr. Alcott's] that the name of Joseph Cook does not appear in the index"? What is there in that particular name which accuses Dr. Harris or myself as inaccurate or uncandid if we omitted it, either in the index or the Memoir? Might we not, by possibility, have forgotten it, or have failed to see that it had any more claim to be inserted than a hundred other names in the Boston Directory?

But you then proceed to tell your readers that, without this name and some events that you say are connected therewith, Mr. Sanborn's description of Mr. Alcott's Western journey in 1880–1881 "conveys a wholly false impression." And this, it further appears, is because Mr. Alcott's success in that journey (as you say) "was largely explained by the fact that he now had *the evangelical endorsement behind him*, given with all the more ardor because the Trinitarians claimed him. As the friend of Emerson, he had returned from a tour of Western lecturing with a single dollar in his pocket; as the friend and supposed convert of Joseph Cook, then at the height of his popularity, he brought back a thousand dollars." Now, you either mean to assert that such an explanation was in fact given (though neither myself nor Dr. Harris may have heard of it), or else that the fact, as you state it, was true, whether mentioned by anybody or not. In either case, we have here a question of fact.

May I then ask you to give me the evidence on which you base either of these assertions? Although I was intimate with Mr. Alcott at the time of this journey, and long afterwards —far more intimate, I am sure, with him and his circle than you can have been—and although I should have had no objection whatever to stating your alleged fact, had it been within my knowledge, I must say that I hear of it now for the first time, and do not believe it. Perhaps you can convince me; but mere assertion will not, for I have reason to know that the fact itself was very far from your explanation. Both Mr. Alcott and several of his hearers and reporters on that journey (he was reported in print many times, and I have seen these reports) informed me that the apparent cause of his success (apart from his own eloquence, such as it was) was the universal desire to see the father of the 'Little Women,' and to hear something concerning the circle to which the Alcott family belonged. It was never even suggested, at that time, that his brief and slight acquaintance with Mr. Cook had anything to do with a matter which was quite sufficiently explained by what I have mentioned. Nor do I suppose that either of Mr. Alcott's biographers thought of Mr. Cook as so connected with the substantial facts of the remarkable career they had to describe that he came into their minds at all, except as an illustration of that generous courtesy which it would be too much to expect from all critics—but not, I hope, from those of the *Nation*.

F. B. Sanborn.

Concord, Mass., August 11, 1893.

[The evidence on which our opinion was based, upon the point at issue, was that of personal observation as to the demeanor and expressed opinions of Mr. Alcott at some of the repeated *séances* held for him at the rooms of Joseph Cook in Boston during at least one winter; and the corresponding change of tone among the evangelical clergy of that region. Mr. Alcott himself was wont to exult over the increased readiness of clergymen, during his later Western trips, to receive him into their pulpits and houses; and it is idle to deny that this must have made a great difference in the expenses and profits of his lecture tours. It is to be noticed that the explanation now given of his increased success—the popularity of his daughter's writings—is one which, however probable, is not mentioned in the biography. To call his acquaintance with Mr. Cook "brief and slight" simply shows that his main biographer did not follow him up so eagerly, during that important digression of his later years, as at other more satisfactory periods; and it was precisely this omission that we regretted. The vagaries and inconsistencies of a prominent man are by no means the least instructive parts of his career. Dr. Harris sets, in our opinion, a good example to Mr. Sanborn when he admits, during the last twenty years of Mr. Alcott's life, "a growing compromise with things as they are"; and this certainly took, at Mr. Cook's rooms, a form very painful and disappointing to the few of Mr. Alcott's earlier friends who were present. —Ed. Nation.]

## MADISON'S JOURNAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your note on Madison's Journal of the Constitutional Convention in No. 1467 of the *Nation*, you do not distinguish between 'The Madison Papers' and Madison's 'Journal of the Constitutional Convention.' The latter is only part of the former, the Journal occupying 939 pages in the original edition, instead of 1,624, as you state. The index is not "cut to suit the editor's caprice," but adapted to this edition, as is clearly stated on the title-page. If the writer of your review will take the pains to make comparison, he will find that every reference in the original edition to matter in the Journal is retained.

The book is exactly what it claims to be, a reprint of the Journal of the Constitutional Convention, invaluable to every student of American history, and not accessible in any other single-volume edition.

Yours respectfully, E. H. Scott.

Chicago, August 19, 1893.

[We must apologize for our too hasty comparison, though we cannot think that the separation above described should be dignified by the name of "editing."—Ed. Nation.]

## EARLY USE OF THE TITLE "UNIVERSITY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, J. G. R., in the issue of August 17, asks for an "American instance of an earlier use of the title 'University' than that of 1779 in Pennsylvania." Harvard was first legally styled "University" in the clauses relating to the College in the Constitution of 1780—those clauses having been reported by a committee of the Convention in October, 1779. President Edward Everett, in a paper submitted with his Report

for the academic year 1847-1848, after remarking on this fact, goes on to say:

"But the name, with the supposed exclusive prerogative of a university, that of conferring honorary degrees, had been claimed for the College at a much earlier period. President Increase Mather, in his public address at commencement, in 1692, after his return from England, with other remarks pertinent to the point, says: 'The General Court of Massachusetts, the Governor, Council, and people of New England have named and established Harvard College as a University (academia), with authority to confer degrees, in the manner of the English Universities.' In the title-page to the 'Magnalia,' published in 1702, the fourth book is said to be 'An Account of the University of Cambridge in New England.'"

Various early diplomas are also cited by President Everett to sustain his point that the College had been frequently regarded and spoken of as a university during the colonial period.

Increase and Cotton Mather were both learned men, and ought to have had a conception of a university too large to be filled by the struggling college at Cambridge which they knew. Perhaps the growth of that College into a real university should enable us to entertain hopes concerning the various "universities" throughout some parts of the country to-day, whose diminutive faculties not only lay claim to the title, but vigorously exercise "the supposed exclusive prerogative" of institutions which bear it—the prerogative of conferring honorary degrees.

Very respectfully, WILLIAM G. BROWN.

GORE HALL, CAMBRIDGE, August 19, 1893.

## A HARVARD PARALLEL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of Edward Everett Hale's 'A New England Boyhood,' you quote from the book the following sentences descriptive of a Harvard Class Day in 1830-1838:

"Then, on the afternoon of Class Day, . . . all the College assembled, and every other male loafer who chose to come where there was a free treat. Pails of punch, made from every spirit known to Cambridge innkeepers, were there for everybody to drink. It was a horrid orgy from end to end. . . ."

Change in the above the words "Class Day" to Commencement Day, and you have a barely exaggerated description of the day which marks the beginning and end of the present Harvard college year. Immediately after the exercises in Sanders Theatre, there is a general adjournment to the class reunions, at each one of which there is a strong rum punch, a claret punch, with little or no provision for men desirous of less stimulating refreshments or for men of temperance principles. The graduating class, being the guest of every other, is quick to become disorderly, and the younger graduates, as well as many older, are sure to overstep all bounds. A '61 man—a regular attendant—assures me that last Commencement was the worst he has ever seen; an '88 man is equally positive that he can find at his class reunion only the men eager for a "free treat," the better element going to the clubs to seek friends. Nor are some of these clubs one whit better (last year a man was thrown from the first-story window of one of them by a drunken crew). The whole is to-day a "horrid orgy," inexcusable in 1838, still less so in 1893, and calls for immediate action on the part of the proper authorities and the better class of graduates. Viewed in any moral light, it is a gross wrong, a constant temptation, a source of corruption, and a disgrace to an enlightened University. And what a fearful example to set undergraduates and the boys on hand to take their entrance examinations.

Very truly yours, A.B., 1893.

NEW YORK, August 18, 1893.

# Notes.

DODD, MEAD & CO. announce 'Some Old Puritan Love Letters,' of John Winthrop and his wife Margaret, edited by the Rev. Joseph Twichell; a translation of Maxime de la Rocheterie's 'Life of Marie Antoinette'; 'Irish Idylls,' by Jane Barlow; and 'The American Girl at College,' a comparative account of institutions.

Henry Holt & Co. have in preparation 'The History of Mankind,' in four volumes, by John S. Hittell, and nearly ready the 'History of Modern Philosophy,' from the German of Richard Falckenberg, and a 'Minimum French Grammar and Reader,' by Prof. Edward S. Joynes.

Ginn & Co. will publish next month 'A Field-Book for Civil Engineers,' by Prof. Daniel Carhart.

'Jamaica at Chicago' is one of the numerous official publications intended to reinforce the exhibits of foreign States. It is an unpretentious narrative, partly descriptive, partly historical, and a little repetitious, illustrated with a variety of landscape views which one regrets to find disconnected from the text. The writer, Lieut.-Col. the Hon. C. J. Ward, Honorary Commissioner for Jamaica, manifests a humane feeling towards the black population, whose character and progressiveness he vindicates against their traducers. He saves his general picture of prosperity and tranquillity since complete emancipation in 1838 by a mere allusion to the "disturbances of 1865," with which the name of Gov. Eyre is indelibly associated. There is a special chapter on Columbus in Jamaica and a large map of the island. The Boston Fruit Co., we read on page 24, has by its business enterprise "saved the two most easterly parishes . . . from reverting, sugar being extinct, to the condition of primeval forest."

Under what is plainly a pseudonym, Zéphyrin Raganasse, the writer of 'Fabrique de Piono' (Paris: Savine), attacks vigorously and mercilessly the educational system of France, especially that portion of it which is comprised in the École Normale. That there are defects in all educational systems, whether French, English, or American, or even German, no one denies. That the French system is as utterly bad as Zéphyrin would have us believe, is hard to credit, especially in view of the many brilliant *normaliens* at present occupying distinguished positions in art, letters, science, and politics.

M. Hippolyte Parigot has given us, in his 'Le Théâtre d'Hier' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.), a series of instructive studies on the dramatists of the nineteenth century. He had already proved his ability to handle such a subject in the valuable analysis of Émile Augier's life and work which he wrote for the collection of "Classiques Populaires." In the present volume he reviews the work done by Augier, Dumas *fils*, Pailleron, Labiche, Meilhac and Halévy, Sardou, and Becque. A general idea of his conclusions may be formed from a perusal of the introduction to the book, in which introduction, by the way, a large place is given to Scribe, in whose behalf M. Parigot also takes up the cudgels. This revival of Scribe is becoming more marked every day, and it is plain that the strong reaction which swept him into the limbo of contempt has nearly spent itself. The main interest of M. Parigot's book, however, lies in the very careful study of each master's work and in the judgment, moderate, usually, in tone, which he has passed upon each author, as well as on the whole drama of the present time.

M. Léopold Mabilleau's 'Victor Hugo' is a valuable addition to the works written about the poet. It contains very little biography, just what is needed to make one grasp intelligently the analysis that follows. That analysis is of the genius of Hugo, of his gifts of vision, imagination, and expression. It is admirably conducted, profoundly interesting, and not to be missed by any one who desires to estimate the great French poet at his real worth. Not the least pleasant feature of the work is the absence of fulsome laudation on the one hand and of mean vilification on the other. The writer manifests an impartial spirit, and gives ample evidence of having simply sought to ascertain and tell the truth.

*L'Année Littéraire*, edited by Paul Ginisty (Paris: Charpentier), has reached its eighth year, and the volume now issued has a preface written by Ibsen. It is disappointing, however, for the great dramatist confines himself to a relation of how he wrote and published "Catilina," a remodelled edition of which was brought out recently.

A list of almanacs in the Boston Public Library is a feature of the July Bulletin of that institution. For the historically minded there are five facsimiles of Revolutionary broadsides issued in 1773 by the Boston Committee of Correspondence, of which Sam Adams was the moving spirit.

At one stroke the Cornell University Library has been endowed by Prof. Willard Fiske with a Dante collection which almost any library might envy, consisting of upwards of 1,800 volumes and pamphlets. A fair copy of the first edition of the 'Divine Comedy' (Foligno, 1472) is among them. It contains a great number of inedited annotations by Luca Pulci. Other quattrocento editions are the first Venetian (1477), that by the printer Scoto da Monza (1484), the Brescian issue of 1487, two more Venetian of 1491, and that of 1497. The first edition of the 'Convito' (Florence, 1490) is also in the collection, which includes nearly all the translations into modern languages and perfect sets of Dante periodicals. The pictorial illustrations are remarkably complete. The collection has been very rapidly got together.

The distribution of parts in the great scheme of the Chicago Fair is authoritatively set forth in Mr. Burnham's address before the World's Congress of Architects in that city. The address may be read in the *American Architect* of August 12.

The account of his journeys in French Indo-China by the Hon. G. N. Curzon, M.P., in the *Geographical Journal* for August, is very timely in view of the events of the past few weeks. In describing the geographical characteristics of this region, the writer refers to the rapid growth of the river deltas which constitute the bulk of the French possessions. Hanoi, the capital of Tonkin, now sixty miles from the sea, was upon it in the seventh century, and Hongyen, a maritime trading port only two hundred years ago, is now thirty-five miles in the interior. In these deltas, traffic is carried on wholly by river boats. The main route through the peninsula to Saigon is by the Mandarin's Road, on which one may travel by pony, palanquin, or chair. In Annam is a very ancient

system of Government postal stations or *trams*, an Annamite word, to which a body of carriers is attached. A slight reference is made to the disputed sovereignty of the Mekong valley, Mr. Curzon asserting that the "French influence can hardly, except in a few places, be said to extend beyond the main crest of the range" which runs close to the sea through Annam. Capt. J. W. Pringle contributes an account of the Government railway survey to Victoria Nyanza, with a map. Incidentally he mentions the depressed condition of the once-dreaded Masai, occasioned by the cattle plague, which has destroyed their herds and reduced them to a starving condition, and suggests that the time may have come to make practical use of their "discipline and soldier-like qualities." In an article on the ancient trade route across Ethiopia, Mr. J. T. Bent describes some interesting ruins in Abyssinia. He found the inhabitants of the "Regio Troglodytica" of classic times still making the mountain caves their granaries and refuges for themselves and their cattle when threatened by marauders.

A sunshine map of the British Isles, in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for August, is especially interesting as being the first attempt of the kind. It is constructed from observations taken at various stations during the past ten years, and exhibits the mean annual sunshine by graded colors. Apparently the south coast of England is the most favored part of the United Kingdom in this respect; Falmouth, near Land's End, having 1,700 out of 4,400 hours of "possible sunshine." Jersey exceeds this by about 100 hours, and is the only station "recording in any month, on the mean of the ten years, an average of even one-half of its possible duration of sunshine." The least amount, 1,200 hours, is to be found in the mountain regions and the northwest coast of Ireland. Perhaps the most striking feature in the distribution of sunshine, writes Mr. H. N. Dickson in the article accompanying the map, is that "the greatest percentage of sunshine is attained in districts where the annual range of temperature is least." There is also in the magazine an interesting account of Col. Yate's mission for the demarcation of a part of the Russo-Afghan frontier. He reports a very decided increase of prosperity in parts of the Amir's dominions, particularly in the country about Herat, which is "marvellously improved since 1886, much more populated and flourishing."

Prof. A. H. Sayce argues in the *Asiatic Quarterly Review* for July against the commonly accepted view that the Mt. Sinai of the Old Testament times was situated in the so-called Sinaitic peninsula. The origin of this belief, he holds, can be traced to the Christian anchorites of the second century. The Red Sea of the book of Exodus he identifies with the Gulf of Akaba, and is inclined to look for Sinai "on the borders of Midian and Edom, among the ranges of Mount Seir, and in the neighborhood of the ancient sanctuary of Kadesh-barnea, whose site at 'Ain Qadîs has been rediscovered in our own day."

We are requested to say that an index to Thayer's 'Cases on Evidence' has been printed, which will be sent free to all purchasers of the first edition of the book on application to the publisher, Charles W. Sever, Cambridge, Mass., through the dealer of whom the book was originally obtained.

—The fourth and last volume of Prof. Johnston's "Correspondence and Public Papers of John Jay" (Putnam's) once more suggests the inquiry why the compilation was begun. It cannot be said that the editor has been just to either Jay or his subscribers, for he has added nothing to what was known of Jay, and he has not sought to give his readers so much as an outline of the events in Jay's life that called out his state papers. It is remarkable, too, how many points in Jay's career were subjects of violent controversy, that could be made ex ceedingly interesting. This volume begins with his mission to England, where he negotiated the famous treaty always associated with his name, and closes with extracts from his will. As negotiator of a treaty which gave rise to a controversy that enlisted the ablest writers, that brought forward constitutional questions of grave import, that embarrassed the Administration and strained its relations to the Legislature, and that led to results which have clouded the diplomatic relations between England and America to this day, Jay was surely a subject fit for a historian, much more for a specialist. Why has not the editor given us even a glimpse of this treaty and its relations to the times? Why has he omitted Jay's letters to Monroe, Monroe's caustic and officious comments; Jay's letters to Hamilton, and Randolph's and Jay's correspondence? We are compelled to repeat that this edition of Jay is more remarkable for what it does not contain than for what it reprints. While it proves the respectability of the man, the confidence he inspired in others, and his even balance of thought, these qualities were already known. What was wanted was some light on certain points in his career of political and historical interest—his labors as a member of the Continental Congress; his attitude in the negotiations of 1783; his weakness with Gardoqui, and his surrender of all points in the Treaty of 1794. In passing we must note the omission of Mrs. Jay's letters as printed in *Boogher*, which are worth more than dozens of letters from nonentities, on formally uninteresting topics, that have found a place in Prof. Johnston's work. The proof-reading, again, is carelessly done. Why *John* Hartley (p. 153), when the letter must refer to David Hartley's 'Argument on the French Revolution'? We note Tanken*v*ille for Tanker*v*ille (p. 174), and a probable error in date of the Committee letter (p. 286). The gentleman referred to in the letter of Washington (p. 197) was William Pickman. Hamilton drafted the instructions to Jay (p. 10). Of special interest are Peter Jay's account of a political meeting (p. 238), and Schuyler's opinion of Jefferson (p. 273).

—To the already numerous writings on bimetallism by the famous German publicist and parliamentarian, Ludwig Bamberger, must now be added an interesting monograph entitled 'The Catchwords of the Silverites' ('Die Stichworte der Silberleute'; Berlin: Rosenbaum & Hart). Herr Bamberger looks at the problem, it is true, chiefly from the German standpoint, but his exposition of the sophistry of the bimetallists is none the less valuable to foreigners. In Germany the chief advocates of free silver consist of the large Prussian landowners, who persist in ascribing the agrarian depression to the "accursed gold standard." Herr Bamberger shows that monometallism cannot affect one industry to the exclusion of others, since the problem is one of general prices, and he then disproves in detail the alleged injury to German agriculture through Russian and Indian competition as a result of the monetary situation. Incidentally he shows up the essential selfishness and hypocrisy of the German silver agitators. With the other catchwords —the insufficiency of the gold supply, the fall in prices, and the sufferings of the debtor class—Herr Bamberger makes equally short work. In a striking passage in the discussion of the last point he shows how erroneous it is to suppose that the debtor is necessarily or even generally the poor man. A final part of the work is devoted to the project of international bimetallism. Here again Herr Bamberger shows how politically impossible and economically unwise such an arrangement would be. The Brussels Conference is handled without gloves; and our author couples his frequent not over-complimentary allusions to our own silver situation with the prediction: "Before the six months [after May 1, the time set for the reconvening of the Conference] are up, affairs in America will, no doubt, have taken such a shape that the Americans themselves will have to set seriously to work to solve the difficulty into which their own light-headed legislation has plunged them." Only too sadly has his prediction been fulfilled! An appendix contains a translation of a recent essay on 'Silver and Gold' by the French expert, M. A. de Foville, in which a mass of statistics are collected to prove that it would be suicidal for France to reintroduce free coinage of silver. In fact, in France, as in Germany, there is not the least likelihood of any triumph for "silver."

—The subject of glacial physics in its relations both to the phenomena of the Great Ice Age and to those of glaciers generally is attracting unusual attention among geologists at the present time, and bids fair to become with that class of investigators a bone of contention only less violent than was the Darwinian theory of descent among biologists some thirty years ago. It cannot be said that the two subjects are in any way of equal significance, but they agree in so far as they both represent topics which have been more generally discussed and universally treated than any other in their respective sciences. English and American geological literature is especially fertile in "glacial" contributions, and it has even been remarked by some of the opponents of the United States Geological Survey that its name might appropriately be changed to the United States Glacial Survey. It is somewhat surprising, in view of the attention thus paid to the subject by English-speaking geologists, that no comprehensive work covering the field of glaciology should yet have appeared in the English language, and it is probably equally true of American geologists as it is (as has been recently asserted by a past-president of the London Geological Society) of English geologists, that a large number of them are not even acquainted with the one critical and authoritative work that has been published—Heim's 'Gletscherkunde.' Like the most important general work on geology that has appeared in the last quarter of a century, Suess's 'Antlitz der Erde,' this one still awaits a translator and a publisher.

—We called attention in a recent issue of the *Nation* to a paper by Prof. Bonney in the *Geographical Journal* for June, 1893, entitled, "Do Glaciers Excavate?" in which it is contended, in opposition to the views held by the extreme glacialists, such as Ramsay, Tyndall, and Newberry, and even to those held by the average geologist, that the excavating power of the land ice-sheets, whether large or small, is all but *nil*. They erode, abrade, and polish, and to that limited extent modify the relief of

the land-surface; but they are incapable of removing large obstacles placed or left in their paths, and are entirely powerless as scooping engines. This view is enunciated after a personal study of the principal glacial valleys of the Alps, and it is strongly corroborated by the researches of Douglas Freshfield in the Caucasus and of Mr. W. M. Conway in the high Himalaya. If the data brought forward by these investigators be fully sustained, they virtually deal a death blow to the theory which attributes to glacial scour the excavation of large rock (lake) basins and the fashioning of rock-bound fjords—a theory, indeed, which has always appeared unreasonable to a large body of geologists. Sir Henry Howorth, the well-known writer on the mammoth and the flood, boldly announces in a recent publication that the Great Ice Age, however it may have been represented in the region further to the South, was entirely unknown in the far North—the Arctic regions generally—where the climate has been steadily growing colder. His work, 'The Glacial Nightmare and the Flood; a Second Appeal to Common Sense from the Extravagance of Some Recent Geology,' will certainly attract the attention of geologists, and seems likely to prove a firebrand in the counsels of the glacialists.

—A decidedly new departure in missionary reports is made in a readable pamphlet compiled by the Rev. J. H. De Forest of Sendai, Japan. One hundred and fourteen pages are devoted to the literary, self-supporting, independent, and coöperative work, and six pages only, of names and notes, to "The American Board's Mission." It is rather startling to find a missionary urging that the natives be left to do the main work of preaching, that the foreigner drop the money-reins and financial whip, and "pass over in bulk the money granted through joint consultation about the needs of the field." Yet this is what Mr. De Forest and most, or at least the best, of the American Board's missionaries are ready to do. He argues that they who insist that "so long as we furnish the money we shall control the work," lose in moral influence and power more than they gain. As matter of fact, the step away from the traditional method was taken ten years ago, when, on the formation of the Doshisha University, the money raised in the United States was passed over to the Japanese in bulk. This practice is still continued. A committee of three in consultation represents the American Board, without reserving the right of voting. The pamphlet is entitled 'Brief Survey of Christian Work in Japan, 1892, with special reference to the Kumi-ai Churches.' These fifty-two Kumi-ai (associated) churches are absolutely independent of all foreign control. The natives conduct the services wholly and a foreigner's preaching is the rare exception. During the year ending March 31, 1893, more conversions and baptisms were reported in these native independent churches than in all the other Protestant churches or organizations, though over thirty foreign societies now have representatives in Japan. The list of periodicals and books written by natives and widely circulated, in addition to numerous translations, shows, by the seriousness of the themes and the ability of the writers, how profoundly Christianity is leavening the nation, even while the statistics of extension show curtailment over those of previous years. The notes on Shinto, Buddhism, and Confucianism, philosophy, etc., are very valuable and set in attractive literary form. Some of the statistics summarized are: Roman Catholics, 44,812, in 244 congregations; Greek Catholics, 20,235, in 219 congregations; Protestants, 35,534, in 365 local churches. Baptisms for 1892 numbered 5,354; 952; and 3,731, in the three folds. Whether division or union be more illustrated by Protestants, let the figures decide: The 31 Protestant organizations are reduced to 12 alliances for work. Five of these alliances comprise 33,390 Christians, leaving only 1,644 to be apportioned among the remaining seven bodies, which represent twenty-four names. During this present summer, over four hundred students met in a summer school on the modified Chautauqua plan. Two of the leading men, J. T. Yokoi (son of the Yokoi who was assassinated in 1868 for advocating toleration of Christianity), and Ebina, are on their way to attend the Congress of Religions at Chicago.

## HOUSEKEEPING IN EUROPE.

*A House-Hunter in Europe.* By William Henry Bishop. New York: Harper & Bros. 1893. Pp. 370.

Mr. Bishop has given us a very agreeable book, and one which will commend itself as useful to the large class interested in knowing the conditions of housekeeping abroad—the sort of houses that may be had, their rent and the cost of living in them. A family of two, Mr. Bishop and his wife, "wanted to gratify to the full" the American "taste for antiquity and romantic tradition," as well as to "test personally the cheapness of foreign living, of which we hear so much." There were, at the outset, no children to bring up, no purposes of special study, no social aims to complicate the problem. They simply wanted to enjoy a couple of years in Europe, just as hundreds, perhaps thousands, of young households in America are always thinking of doing, and they continued their experiment for five years, instead of two, actually living in France and Italy, and exploring tentatively Spain, Algiers, and England. They do not seem to have felt drawn towards either Switzerland or Germany, but in the countries named they examined the capabilities of many places. In France, for instance, they kept house in Paris, in Villefranche, and in Nice, but they looked at habitations in Dinan, Versailles, Écouen, Blois, Orleans, Pau, Nevers, Avignon, and a dozen other towns charming in as many different ways, but all, at the time, for some reason or other, appearing desirable. There was, as we see, a certain width and, at the same time, a certain restriction of choice. A flavor of antiquity or of rusticity was what they wanted in their neighborhood, and a bit of garden for their own; as to the sort of house they were not unreasonably exacting, but the price of it must be moderate, and it should be unfurnished.

How many there are who would like to do the same thing, and who will be grateful to Mr. Bishop for saving them so much trouble in a wished-for future! Others would have been glad had so capable an explorer carried his researches yet further. Why did he not go to Senlis, for example, or Grenoble, or Montpellier, and why did he resist the inclination to stop off at Chartres? We wish, too, he had set at naught the foolish people who kept him from going to Palermo. The search would have been worth something to the intelligent house-hunter, even had the upshot been that Mr. Bishop found nothing in Sicily suited to his wants. The ignorance and prejudice of some of his friends had well-nigh kept him away from the Riviera, where, at last, he hit upon what he was looking for. We feel sure that Sicily contains a similar paradise; only, before engaging in a hunt for it, we should have been glad of the experience of so clever an explorer as our author. We all have been captivated by a sympathetic charm in certain towns, and we all have dreamed of the possibility of spending some years of our life in them, away from the trammels and burdens that elsewhere weigh us down. What food for hope, had Mr. Bishop only told us that in one such place there was awaiting us a tenantless house *entre cour et jardin!* As it is, he seems to have increased our chances of finding such a refuge by our own exertions. The writer of these lines has noted more than one page in the book as showing how the author was "warm," and passed without seeing it very near to the object of his search. The Villa des Amandiers was not by any means the only house on the Riviera that might have met Mr. Bishop's requirements of those days; but, as his choice was a matter of taste as well as of opportunity, we should not venture to say that any of the others had that inner fitness for his wants possessed by the house at Villefranche.

For people who have not lived abroad the main interest of this book will be in the light it throws on questions such as those of rent and cost of living. The question of convenience in house accommodation is, at first, not so prominent. Most are sure that, somewhere, the quaint old houses they read of in books are waiting to receive them. Experience may make them impatient of "rookeries"; it will, in any case, put the question of suitableness to your needs in its proper place. But, first and last, you will never cease to be interested as to prices; and, in this respect, Mr. Bishop's book is of great value. He says at the outset that "the promise [of cheap living] was justified, and notable economies were really possible," though we must qualify his belief that he succeeded in doing things so cheaply that it would be difficult to do them for less. We have seen Americans established in Europe, ladies and gentlemen, too, for whom Mr. Bishop's allowance would have meant luxury; nor did they live in squalor. It is only that our author's standard is that of a man who can afford to push his search for a home across Spain, France, and Italy, and even into Algeria. Had he been unable to do so much, he would have contented himself in more modest ways. Without at all knowing how much Mr. Bishop had to spend, we should say, as the result of our own experience, that such housekeeping and mode of life as he describes was adapted for families of two with an income of $2,000 a year—more or less. Exceptionally good management may accomplish it for less; a loose-handed system might require much more.

Rents are certainly cheap in Europe. The houses looked at varied in price between 250 and 2,500 francs a year, some of them being much larger than was needed. The amounts paid were about 900 francs in Paris, less than 400 in Verona, and 600 at Villefranche. The Verona experience was not quite a satisfactory one. The little house proved hot in summer and cold in winter, and was far from the centre of the town; those, however, who know the garden in which it stands and the view which it commands, will not wonder at the choice. Add to this that Verona was the place where, with an excellent market, prices were an exception to what our author calls the "usual price" for provisions. "There seems to be some law by which beef is about a shilling a pound, and eggs from a shilling to a shilling and a half a dozen everywhere." At Verona, however,

"eggs were but fifteen sous (cents) a dozen, milk was four sous a litre, and the best *filet* of beef three francs a kilo—two and one-fifth pounds—as against five francs in France." It might have been added that such a difference is that of Italy everywhere as against France, and that it is even more marked in the case of vegetables and fruits. The teeming abundance of Italy in these products makes them of an almost phenomenal cheapness.

Other things to be noted by the house-hunter are: (1) That houses are more plentiful, more commodious, and often no dearer in places where there is active demand for them, such as Pau or Nice, than in unfrequented cities where competition does not regulate the price. This rule applies to France. In Italy, Florence seemed dearer in respect of rents than Nice, and Rome expensive like Paris. (2) That it is easier to find furnished than unfurnished houses, at least in the less visited towns; and (3) that a cheap rent is apt to be in a quarter where other people live cheaply and are undesirable neighbors. These last two observations are, however, often contradicted by individual experience; in semi-rural places the cheapest rent is often found combined with the best situation—that, by the way, is our remark and not Mr. Bishop's.

In the course of his explorations, the author had his eyes open to many things besides the conditions of housekeeping, and he has thrown in plenty of pleasant pages upon society in Paris, upon Algeria, and various towns in Spain, upon Spanish literary men, and, in general, upon the ouside aspects of all sorts of places. We have noted many good sayings; and the judgments expressed are, as a rule, those of a man who knows the world and is superior to small prejudices. For instance, "There is a word to be said as to the rigid severity with which religious dissent was repressed in Spain, which—now that it all can't be helped—may reconcile the amateurs of art to it. The churches were not racked to pieces by religious wars, as in all the rest of Europe, and have kept their treasures mainly unimpaired." On the other hand, there are those who will think that he need not have taken the Félibres as seriously as they take themselves, and, on the principle of giving "the devil his due," we should say that he has not stated as strongly as he might have done the case for Monte Carlo. It is not pleasant to seem to defend so pestilent an institution, but since people can stake there only what they actually happen to have in their pockets, and cannot engage their other belongings—as they could at a club—cases where the tables bring more than a temporary inconvenience to players are extremely rare. For this and for other reasons, we believe that most of the stories of suicides are apocryphal.

The book is so agreeably written, and Mr. Bishop so well knows what he is talking about, that it would be an impertinence to praise his general correctness in details. He will pardon us, then, if we call attention to a very few slips of the pen, as, for instance, where (p. 353) he spells Emanuele with two *m's*, or where (p. 37) he writes "*arts d'agreement*"; similarly (p. 343), he speaks of St. Zeno and St. Anastasia as being examples of "Byzantine-Gothic," whatever that may be, and (p. 102) puts Verdi instead of Gounod as author of the music of "Mireille" and original of a bust in the house of Mistral. Again, the island of Corsica (p. 279), though it may be only in mirage, *is* frequently seen, not only at Nice, but for a great distance along the Riviera. To see it distinctly at evening portends rain. After all this, it is pleasant to call attention to the fact that the book is furnished with a good index.

"Taking the pros and cons generally, for living abroad, S——, who was no strong enthusiast for the scheme at first, was apt to argue as follows: Vastly cheaper rent; provisions and servants' wages not any dearer (probably, on the whole, less), a brighter, freer life in an agreeable climate (this not till after we had found the agreeable climate), and improving picturesque surroundings.

"'Put in,' she adds, 'that if rich people, with everything to make life enjoyable at home, like so much to come over, it ought to be all the more attractive to those in moderate circumstances.—No, don't put that in. It might bring over some with wholly different views from ours, who would get into all sorts of difficulties; they wouldn't want to give up the friends, local interests and duties to which they are attached; they might not like it *at all*.'

"So I don't put that in. Please consider it not put in."

## W. G. WARD AND THE CATHOLIC REVIVAL.

*William George Ward and the Catholic Revival.* By Wilfrid Ward, author of 'William George Ward and the Oxford Movement.' Macmillan & Co. 1893.

An interest so fascinating attaches to the Oxford Movement, and Mr. Wilfrid Ward's book about his father as related to that movement was such a valuable contribution to the literature of the subject, that the reader coming to this second part, in which the scene is wholly changed, will hardly expect to find himself so well pleased and entertained as in the former part. But he will be agreeably disappointed. If the scene is changed, some of the leading actors are the same, and the gain in novelty more than makes up for the loss of some familiar things. Moreover, here, as in the former book, the personality of William George Ward is always dominant. He continues to be peculiar and eccentric, and the exhibition of his intellectual powers is much more impressive as he attains "the years that bring the philosophic mind." To the intelligent Protestant the book should be a lesson of modesty and forbearance, for here, as in the case of Newman, we have one of the brightest intellects of the time entirely devoted to the Roman Catholic Church, and, to a degree beyond Newman, to the infallibility of the Pope. When, in the same book, we have such men as Mill and Martineau and Huxley allowing the commanding force of Ward's mind and the rigor of his logical procedure, and yet differing from him immeasurably in their conclusions, it is evident that the race is not always to the intellectually swift nor the battle to the logically strong.

Ward was born in 1812; he joined Newman's party in 1838, and straightway set about accelerating Newman's tardy pace towards Rome, instigating him to the publication of 'Tract 90,' and supporting it with two tracts of his own, and finally, in 1844, publishing his 'Ideal of a Christian Church,' in which he maintained that an Anglican could hold all the Roman doctrines in good faith, and for which he was deprived of his Oxford degrees in February, 1845, the Rev. A. P. Stanley furnishing the eloquent conclusion of his speech in Convocation. He made his submission to the Roman Church in the following September, a month earlier than Newman, whom his zeal continually outran. At this point Mr. Wilfrid Ward again takes up the parable. His book is written in an admirable spirit. He is an ardent Romanist, but he treats all sorts of heretics and schismatics with a consideration from which many Protestant theologians and biographers might learn something to the advantage of their own criticism and polemics. Indeed, though Ward and Newman both insisted that the Church still had the right to persecute, and refrained from persecution only on grounds of expediency, it is impossible to read such a book as this without feeling that an immense change has come over the religious mind of Christendom; that an immense gain has been made for toleration when men of such widely different tendencies and opinions can cherish for each other such sympathy and admiration as are here displayed. These seem the real things, and the formal ecclesiastical opinions very unreal in comparison.

Ward did not share the sanguine expectations of those converts who looked for an Anglican stampede into the Roman Church. That amusing mediævalist, Pugin, who was shocked at finding Ward's windows at Oxford without mullions, built him a house near St. Edmund's Roman Catholic College, which presumably had mullions in abundance. Ward was one of those Tractarians who disappointed Newman by marrying; but though he multiplied children after the manner of the poorer clergy, his life was almost conventual. His relation to his children was one sign among many of his lack of sweet humanity. He generally heard, he said, when they were born; after that he avoided them until they were old enough to be his intellectual companions. In general his sense of blood-relationship was a sense of difference and repulsion. He got along with relatives best by arranging not to be on speaking terms with them. Once, having so arranged with his brother Henry, they met at the theatre, and, forgetting the arrangement, had a happy time together, but the next morning they exchanged apologies and resumed their uncordial basis. The death of an uncle in 1849 changed Ward's condition from one of poverty to that of a large landed proprietor. What Tennyson called his "grotesque truthfulness" found here an interesting illustration. When his uncle was sick, Ward was troubled in conscience because he was impatient for his uncle's death. He consulted a priest about his feelings, and was told that it was quite enough that he should feel a certain regret at his uncle's death, though he might be pleased to inherit his property. Ward protested: "I feel no regret whatever at the prospect." "Well," said the priest, "you must have a certain wish, quite apart from other consequences, that he might be spared." "Not the slightest," was the rejoinder; "I never cared for him." "Your poor uncle has been suffering," urged the priest; "your spirits fall a little when you hear that he is worse." "On the contrary, they rise," said Ward; but he allowed that he would not do anything to hasten his uncle's death. He was equally honest when he went to get his life insured. Asked if his general health was good, he answered, "It is deplorably bad." Asked if he slept well, he said, "I have never had a good night in my life." By this candor he secured at thirty-eight the average terms of a man between sixty and seventy, and he reached the latter year.

Mr. Wilfrid Ward divides his father's Roman Catholic career into three parts—the first that of his professorship at St. Edmund's, from 1851 to 1859, during which years he was excogitating the doctrine of his 'Nature and Grace'; the second part, from 1860 to 1870, that of his defence (as editor of the *Dublin Review*) of papal infallibility against Döllinger and others; the third, 1870-1882, that of his polemics against the experience philosophy of

Mill and Bain. The first of these three periods was the happiest of his life. But he was not cordially received at St. Edmund's, to the disadvantage of being a convert adding that of being a married layman. It seemed a paradox that he should be a teacher of young priests. Yet no clerical ideal of the priestly function was more exigent than his. Assured that there was nothing for him to do, he soon made himself felt and needed. He found the Old Catholics of England in a state of "miserable intellectual degradation," not even able to express themselves correctly in the English language. Vaughan, the successor of Manning, was at first suspicious of him, but became one of his strong admirers before long. Living in a world of abstractions, Ward's knowledge of the material and practical side of life was next to nothing. There is a capital instance in his first meeting with Vaughan. Vaughan, it seems, knew a beech tree when he saw it. "Wonderful man!" exclaimed Ward. "You know all the *minutiæ* of botany." A correspondence with Mill was one of the most interesting incidents of the St. Edmund's period. It took its rise in Ward's review of Mill's 'Political Economy.' Each had a warm appreciation of the other's intellectual power and sincerity. Their mutual relations became much more important in the third period of Ward's intellectual activity, when he put forth all his strength against Mill's doctrine of the experiential basis of all intellectual and moral ideas. It was Mill's own feeling that his doctrine had never met with keener opposition. Some falling away from Mill was evident, and the break would doubtless have been much worse if Spencer had not brought up his reserves of inherited tendency. It is good to find Mill and Ward heartily associated against Gov. Eyre, and to find Ward applauding Mill's famous declaration, in his 'Examination of Sir William Hamilton,' that he would "call no being good who was not what he meant when he applied that epithet to his fellow-creatures; and that, if such a being could send him to hell for not so calling him, then to hell he would go."

Already in the St. Edmund's period Ward's eagerness for the exercise of papal authority was greatly in excess of Newman's. Ward would have had a papal bull with his *Times* for breakfast every morning, and he hailed the decree of Immaculate Conception five years in advance with glee, while Newman was indifferent and quizzical. In the interval between his resignation at St. Edmund's and his assumption of the *Dublin Review*, Ward's relations with several of his old Oxford friends, Catholics and Anglicans, were resumed. The pages given to Faber are some of the most interesting in the book. Ward did not like Faber's preaching, and he dearly loved the theatre. Faber's London chapel was turned into a theatre, and Ward, going there to a play, records two thoughts that came to him between the acts: "The first was, Last time I was in this building I heard Faber preach. The second was, How much more I am enjoying myself tonight than the last time I was here." Faber's mind was so much sicklied over with the pale cast of his ecclesiastical notions that it is most refreshing to find him meeting Ward's question, "Shall I go into retreat?" with, "A retreat! It would send you to hell. Go to the play as often as you can, but don't dream of a retreat." There is other evidence that the Oxford set carried themselves somewhat more naturally and humanly after their submission to Rome than when they were on the way to her embrace. So much is said of the elephantine bulk and weight of Ward that we crave to know how much he actually weighed. We are not informed, but infer something prodigious from the fact that, riding for his health, he arranged to have six horses an hour, using up one every ten minutes. But this was partly because he sat his horse as if he were himself a bag of sand.

The second period of Ward's career was less happy than the first because he was the intellectual leader of that "insolent faction," as Newman called it, which was clamorous for a formal declaration of the Pope's infallibility, and thus he was brought into painful conflict with Newman, for whom he had a very real reverence and affection. Mr. Wilfrid Ward's account of the controversy is meant to be extremely fair, and is so with the possible exception of the treatment of Döllinger—an exception to be expected from the radical difference of Döllinger's position from that of Ward, with which the son is in perfect sympathy. He is very careful to distinguish Newman's position from that of Döllinger and the extreme French Liberals, and Ward's from that of the extreme French Ultramontanes, who practically identified the Pope with the Holy Ghost. Their view was not incorporated in the Vatican Definition, nor was Ward's so completely as he could wish, and thus he had an opportunity to subject his personal opinion to the dictum of the Church, and did so with a better grace than his habitual dogmatism would lead us to expect. The matter as finally settled is not so plain that a wayfaring man, though a fool, may not err therein:

> "While the decree condemned the Gallican view that the consent of the Church is necessary to the validity of a definition, the Fathers enforced the share of the Church as represented by bishops, synods, and scientific theologians in its framing, and, by consequence, the practical necessity of their aid in its interpretation, and in determining what was infallibly and irreformably decreed and what was not."

The net result will probably be an infallibility which confines itself pretty closely to mere truism and platitude, or, as in the last pronouncement of the Pope upon American affairs, is so ambiguous as to leave both parties disputing the possession of the field. Ward was nothing if not logical, and his interest in the matter proceeded more from his passionate eagerness for a logical conclusion than from any other source.

The general reader will find no part of this biography more interesting than the chapter on the Metaphysical Society, about which much has been written, but nothing more instructive than these pages, which are all the better for being rich in quoted passages from Hutton, Huxley, Martineau, and others, who have given some account of the most remarkable symposium of modern times. Evidently Ward was one of the most valued members; by none valued more than by those opposed to him most heartily. Huxley was one of these—at the most opposite extreme, but more like Ward than any one else in his skill in logical fence and his quickness to detect the weakness of an opponent's argument. It was Greek meeting Greek when he and Ward crossed swords. One of their encounters at the outset was characteristic. Some one suggested that there should be no element of moral reprobation in the discussions. Whereupon Ward: "While acquiescing in this condition as a general rule, I think it cannot be expected that Christian thinkers shall give no sign of the horror with which they would view the spread of such extreme opinions as those advocated by Mr. Huxley." Then Huxley: "As Dr. Ward has spoken, I must in fairness say that it will be very difficult for me to conceal my feeling as to the intellectual degradation which would come of the general acceptance of such views as Dr. Ward holds." These cloud-bursts cleared the atmosphere, and it was generally perceived that this sort of thing would never do. With his customary frankness, Ward told Huxley in private that he considered him guilty of absolutely unpardonable error. "My dear Dr. Ward," answered Huxley, "if you don't mind, I don't." Huxley complains that the point of the anecdote has been found in his retort, and not in the evidence it affords of Ward's character—"a philosophical and theological Don Quixote, if it were not that our associations with the name of the Knight of La Mancha are mainly derived from his adventures, and not from the noble directness and simplicity of mind which led to those misfortunes."

In the closing chapter there is much entertaining matter concerning Ward's personal traits, habits of reading, and so on. Tennyson was his neighbor and friend, and, after his death, wrote a sonnet on him containing one of his most clumsy lines—"Most generous of all Ultramontanes, Ward." In his love and knowledge of trees, flowers, and birds he was at Ward's antipodes. Ward could not distinguish one tree or flower from another, and hated birds because they made a noise; the nightingales especially keeping him awake. The lesson that came home to him in his last illness—"to make more allowance for the inevitable differences between one mind and another"—is the great moral lesson of his life. His own mind was a singularly interesting one in its passionate hankering for authoritative guidance on the one hand, and its eagerness for free speculation on the other. To have had all the great questions which he discussed with such unsparing logic and such violent rhetoric suddenly settled by a papal edict, would have been for him a dreadful blow. Yet it is difficult to understand why their authoritative solution is not as desirable as that of any question on which the Popes have, so far, infallibly pronounced.

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*Books in Manuscript:* A Short Introduction to their Study and Use. With a chapter on Records. By Falconer Madan, M.A. London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners.

THIS newest volume in the series of "Books About Books" has been fortunately intrusted to Mr. Madan, Lecturer in Mediæval Palæography in the University of Oxford. He has succeeded in meeting the primary needs of the amateur and the student, while at the same time furnishing a lucid survey of the whole field for the general reader, in a style not more scholarly than simple and entertaining. A singular amount of information, brought down to date, is packed away in less than 200 pages of open characters. In the chapter on materials for writing and the form of books, Mr. Madan tells of the recent discovery of a face and back, or a right and wrong side, to papyrus; of the disuse of this material in Egypt after the tenth and in Europe after the eleventh century; of the microscopic proof within a few years that the yellowish paper found especially in Greek MSS. till the fifteenth century was of linen rag like the rest, and not cotton, as the books have heretofore taught. He traces the etymology of paper, parchment, and vellum, assigns the first manufacture of paper outside of China to the approximate date 750 A. D., and notes that water-marks are a

purely Western invention, by the aid of which we may determine the forms of books as folio, quarto, etc. The next section is on the history of writing and (in cursory fashion) of the alphabet, with its summing up:

"We see, then, that readers of the present day [outside of Germany, which, "both in writing and painting, has always stood apart, and lags behind the other nations of western Europe in its development"] owe their eyesight and their comfort to (1) the revival of pure forms of an old Roman kind by Charles the Great; (2) the seemingly accidental fact that the later Carolingian writing of the twelfth century was imitated by the Italian scribes of the fifteenth; (3) the happy natural selection by which printers chose this revived kind of letter. Had any one of these links failed, our type would have failed to attain its undoubted excellence."

In the section on scribes and their work, Mr. Madan finds the evidence in favor of wholesale dictation very scanty, and concludes that individual copying was almost the universal practice. He then deals with illuminations and the extraordinary achievements and influence of the Irish school. As landmarks we may cite the statements that a scene within a letter is not met with before the eleventh century, and a consistent true perspective not before the fifteenth. Further:

"A theory has recently been started (but as its author has not fully worked it out, a reference only is here permissible) that the English, Irish, and French writers and illuminators of this mediæval period used different standards of measurement, so that their work can be tested mechanically by observing to what scale the sizes of written page or painting belong, and that the English scribes used Roman standards, the Irish Greek, and the French their own."

The blunders of scribes are next taken up, with an examination of the sources of error in transcription and the psychological rules of correction. Here we read that, "instead of the corruptions and variations increasing in number in proportion to the distance of MSS. from the author's time," they actually diminish as scribes grow more intelligent, or through the "mixture" of MSS., which results in eliminating the personal equation. The MSS. of Virgil and the Four Gospels are particularly examined, and the number of the former extant (some two to three hundred), sufficiently striking in itself, becomes doubly so when it appears that that of the Gospels alone surpasses it—of course very greatly surpasses it. The succeeding chapter is on famous libraries, beginning with the British Museum, which claims to have "the largest collection of the literature of every foreign country which exists outside that country." Here we must not overlook a passage which throws a flood of light on the recent discussion in these columns concerning books arranged with their backs to the wall:

"In general, the volumes were disposed much as now—that is to say, upright, and in large cases affixed to a wall, often with doors. The larger volumes at least were in many cases chained, so that they could only be used within about six feet of their proper place; and since the chain was always riveted on the fore-edge of one of the sides of a book, the back of the volume had to be thrust first into the shelf, leaving the front edge of the leaves exposed to view. Many old volumes bear a mark in ink on this front edge, and when this is the case, we may be sure that it was once chained in a library; and usually a little further investigation will disclose the mark of a rivet on one of the sides."

We need not specify the famous manuscripts described after the famous libraries, nor the literary forgeries enumerated. These chapters are typically comprehensive and among the most readable in the book. Necessarily dryer and more special are those on the treatment and the cataloguing of MSS. and on public and private records. An appendix gives a list of public libraries containing more than 4,000 MSS. (and it is to be remarked that these acquisitions are by no means stationary: "Libraries which possessed 3,500 MSS. in 1882 may be estimated to contain 4,000 now"), together with a list of printed catalogues of MSS. in European languages in the greater English libraries.

The eight full-page plates have been very carefully chosen and are very minutely analyzed in a table. One misses, in the chapter on writing, any facsimiles in the text, where they ought to be rather copious in order to make an intricate subject intelligible; but Mr. Madan has purposely yielded the floor, in this particular, to Mr. Edward Maunde Thompson of the British Museum, who has just issued his 'Handbook of Greek and Latin Palæography.'

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*Current Americanisms.* By T. Baron Russell. London: Saxon & Co. 1893.

Of expressions peculiar to the United States, some which once obtained have become obsolete; of others the vogue is circumscribed, locally; and, again, of others, the occurrence is frequent in everyday conversation, but is comparatively infrequent in print. Respecting all such, how can we look for exact information except to one of ourselves? To any one else, obviously, the treatment of Americanisms in a manner at all trustworthy is little short of impossible. And even an American, unless at least conversancy with English literature of the two last centuries and also proficiency in the English dialects are predicable of him, is not equipped, otherwise than partially, to discourse on the subject anything like satisfactorily. That no American who has hitherto essayed to handle it in detail has given token that he possessed in due measure the qualifications just noted could, if it were necessary, be demonstrated copiously. Among scores of words and phrases, unquestionably neither indigenous nor in any way distinguishing us, in using which we are bid to believe that, on some ground or other, we Americanize, Mr. Bartlett, for instance, includes *attitudinize*, *counter-jumper*, *coverlid*, *educational*, *excursionist*, *immigrant*, *immigration*, an *independent* fortune, *once and again*, *over and above*, *prayerful*, *right* hard, *socialistic*, *summarize*, *sundown*, *vegetarianism*, *wastage*, together with *aggravate*, 'vex,' a *bright* lad, *elect* to go, *hard up*, 'short of funds,' *immediately*, 'as soon as,' *let things slide*, *pull up*, 'stop,' *not to be sneezed at*, *staging*, 'scaffolding,' *stop* at an inn, 'stay,' etc., and *upset* price. To exhibit one sample more of Mr. Bartlett's headlong criticism, there is his significantly illustrative assertion that "No Englishman would say 'the boat *has* gone,' '*has* come.'"

Nor, to pass to Professor Schele de Vere, are his errors less numerous or less flagrant than those of Mr. Bartlett, from whom not a few of them seem to be credulously adopted. Whole hosts of his comments are typified in his remark that *at once* "is used in the United States, North and South, instead of the English *immediately*"; and in his considering *back* for *ago* as American. Of Old England, linguistically, he knows, indeed, save at second hand, but little more than he knows, as to its people, of New England, where, he tells us, "perfect social equality has prevailed from the oldest times."

Mr. Farmer's pretentious and misleading compilation we reported on soon after its appearance. In the main, it commands but slight confidence; and of the work now under notice, though its scheme is by no means equally comprehensive, we are compelled to speak in terms still more unfavorable. Personally, as is manifest, a stranger to the United States, its author announces discoveries about matters of language here which would certainly chance to nobody but one circumstanced like himself. For example, he has found out that "'male-sheep,' 'male-hogs,' 'gentlemen-turkeys,' and 'gentlemen-game-chickens' belong to the natural history of refined Boston only." With something of the speech of Great Britain still to acquire, he characterizes as "negroisms," or "negro, originally," the verbs *conflagrate* and *consociate*, with *robustious* and *ruination*, though the second of these words dates from the sixteenth century, and the first and fourth from the seventeenth century, and though *robustious* was sanctioned by the Chronicler Hall, Shakespeare, Drayton, the water-poet Taylor, Milton, Thomas Fuller, Dryden, and Swift. Being, also, still to master sundry items among the initial mysteries of etymological science, he stigmatizes *approbate*, *consternate*, and *infract*, *betterment* and *obtusity*, not one of which, as he should know, had its birth in America, as "false derivatives"; the verbs in the list being, in his view, from *approbation*, etc., by what is now called back-formation. *Hypothecate* was long ago employed by Blackstone, Sir William Jones, Burke, and H. T. Colebrooke; and yet he produces it as an Americanism, and marks it as "German." His article on *authoress* runs: "Pickering regards this word (and any patriotic Briton must wish to agree with him) as an Americanism. Perhaps *manageress*, *tailoress*, and similar abominations are so, likewise—a consolation devoutly to be wished"; as if Mr. Pickering, who wrote in 1816, were an authority for "current Americanisms"; as if *manageress* and *tailoress*, with which rank *mayoress*, *prioress*, and *tutoress*, could be rationally objected to; and, especially, as if *authoress*, or its equivalent, had not been perfectly classical for upwards of three hundred years. Recourse to dictionaries of recent date does not appear to have occurred to Mr. T. Baron Russell as a source of assistance. To no person, however, of a moderate amount of reading, and of serviceable memory, would such recourse be required, in order to preclude the gross ignorance which is betrayed in seeing Americanisms in *abolitionist*, *addressee*, to *advise with*, to *affection*, *alienage*, *allottee*, the *alone* God, to *ambition*, *appetizer*, to *argufy*, *available*, and so on through the alphabet.

To dwell further on a book that teems with trumpery is needless. Besides its shortcomings glanced at above, it fails, for the most part, to discriminate between worn-out expressions and such as are now in use, as also between those which are common to us generally and those which are sectional, while it largely mistakes, as belonging to our popular speech, others which were simply creations for the nonce and have never obtained a foothold. Since we have, at last, a Dialect Society, there is reason to hope that we may look for a thorough and scholarly investigation of Americanisms, and, in course, for a dictionary of them deserving of reliance.

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*Princeton Sketches:* The Story of Nassau Hall. By George R. Wallace, Class of '91. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893. 8vo, illustrated. Pp. 200.

Nassau Hall once meant Princeton. The

one building was the material college. Under its roof the students lodged, studied, took their meals, worshipped, recited, and declaimed. It sheltered their literary societies as well. It still may be taken as the type of the institution. Solid, persistent, well founded, it is the centre about which a whole brood of halls cluster. Its old cupola has become almost a spire, leading further aloft with more grace if not with greater breadth; and as its long brick "entries" (typifying, perhaps, the hard but straightforward way to a degree) have been cut up by partitions into corridors that begin at a spiral stairway and run against a dead wall, so the old courses of arts and letters, approved of gods and revered by men, have been chopped up into electives that begin and end not dissimilarly.

A new Princeton has grown about the old, but the old nucleus is the core and the heart. It is not too much to say that the beautiful campus and the rugged background in some respects reflect themselves in the character of her graduates. Her older men have boasted that Princeton was a national college; her junior sons in somewhat different phrase repeat the claim. We believe it is true that the Princetonian is proud of his college, and that he often justifies the college in being proud of him. They hold, we think with truth, that it is a democratic institution, where in all college matters men stand on their own merits; and it is certainly a delightful feature that the class exclusiveness which marks another latitude is, barring a little discipline of Freshmen, not to be found there.

So far as this particular book is concerned, it is not unkindness to say that its most instructive feature is the illustrations. The village of palaces set forth is still inadequate to shelter the thousand scholars. This is the brick-and-mortar side of the extraordinary development of the last twenty-five years, the fruition of seed sown in President Maclean's later days. The text, so far as it goes, is fairly accurate, but the author in his next edition may care to change some statements. The literary societies after the conflagration of 1802 found their new rooms in the Library, now the offices, built in 1803, not in Nassau Hall again. There is no good reason to suppose that the cannon which is so essential a feature in the outdoor ceremonies of the College, played any part in the battle of Princeton. It was a siege piece, and as such could not have been used by either army in that engagement. It is much more probable that at some unimportant period a broken carriage determined its detention—for example, when the French marched north to return home. The dwelling in which Mercer died, in rear of the critical field of battle, should continue to be known as the Clarke house, in memory of those kindly and patriotic Friends who graced it through several generations, notwithstanding that its ownership is now changed. The enemy in that battle were not Hessians, but a brigade of British regulars under Mawhood. June, 1844, marks the date of the new Commencement; the resolution to make the change may have been in 1843. The writer, brought up in the atmosphere of modern sports, looks upon the play "with balls and sticks" objected to by the Faculty in 1787 as "the first appearance of base-ball at Princeton." That was a sheer guess, and a bad one. "Shinny" was thus aimed at, and it was not suppressed until sixty years afterwards, when the authorities planted the "back campus" with trees, beautifying the quadrangle and preventing the game. There is internal evidence that our author is an American Whig, who inadvertently betrays one of his Hall secrets. These are little matters, but the babes and sucklings in local history should have their milk pure.

Whether calling itself such will make Princeton a university, may be doubted. It called itself a boating college, and "the university boat-house" is among the illustrations. There should be an affirmative born of two negatives, but this may be the exception to that venerable rule. To discuss seriously the influence of enormous classes, of costly dormitories, of multiplied electives, of the weakness that strains after "'varsity" effects, would be placing too heavy a stress upon this slender span that would bridge the space between the graduate of to-day and the polished Jonathan Belcher.

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*An Elementary Treatise on Pure Geometry*, with numerous examples. By John Wellesley Russell, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

*An Elementary Treatise on Modern Pure Geometry.* By R. Lachlan, M.A. Macmillan. 1893.

*Geometry in the Grammar School:* An Essay. Together with illustrative class exercises, and an outline of the work for the last three years of the Grammar School. By Paul H. Hanus, Assistant Professor of the History and Art of Teaching, Harvard University. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1893.

THE two text-books cited above, one from Oxford, the other from Cambridge, are on a subject lately introduced into the university examination papers. Neither is of great merit. The Oxford book shows somewhat more mathematical and geometrical ability, and contains upwards of 1,500 examples, mostly of real interest. The elementary explanations of the Cambridge book are somewhat superior, and it deals with some interesting topics altogether omitted from the other treatise. It is, doubtless, the more convenient text-book for the teacher, though the less profitable for the earnest student. The great arbitrariness of the arrangement of both books is well shown by comparing them together in this respect. The theorems are pitchforked together upon no principle, and as for the examples, it is really curious to remark under what diverse heads one and the same proposition may be treated. The leading propositions of each book are mere illustrative examples for its rival.

The reason why analytical methods are more easily handled than the synthetical geometry is chiefly that the former arrange the whole subject in a perfectly definite and unmistakable manner. No wonder a pupil is puzzled to apply a theory consisting of some thirty fragments not connected by any intrinsic bonds. As long as this state of things exists, notwithstanding the infinitely greater elegance of the pure geometry, its great practical use will be to serve as a guide in the reformation of analysis. The older treatises upon modern geometry did not exhibit this loose articulation, for the reason that they dealt chiefly with projective properties, and introduced what little metrics they gave as corollaries to the projective theorems. This could no longer be thought of, yet it suggests the proper way of arranging the subject. No text-book of either synthetical or analytical geometry omits that grand proposition of Cayley, that every metrical fact is a projective fact about a certain fixed quadric, or in plane geometry about the section of this quadric by the plane; nevertheless, writers of text-books put them together as if they did not really believe this. If it be true, surely an eternal fitness requires that the projective geometry of rectilinear diagrams and conics should precede all metrical matter, and that the Euclidean geometry should be taught as a particular case of the non-Euclidean.

Prof. Hanus's want of acquaintance with geometry, beyond what everybody knows, is very apparent. He applies general principles of pedagogy to give a few maxims too vague to be of much positive value, and upon that basis proceeds to pronounce *ex cathedra* upon perhaps the most difficult problem of intellectual education—the question of what, when, and how to teach in the first instruction in geometry. The illustrative exercises exemplify some methods in teaching applicable to many subjects and widely used in our schools. The course laid out could not well be much worse than it is, and is calculated to impart to the scholar ideas of geometry as confused as those of Prof. Hanus himself.

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*William Kitchen Parker*, F.R.S., sometime Hunterian Professor of Anatomy and Physiology in the Royal College of Surgeons of England: A Biographical Sketch by his Son, T. Jeffery Parker. Macmillan & Co. 1893. 8vo, pp. 145.

RESEARCHES on the foraminifera and on the vertebrate skeleton have made a limited group of scholars familiar with Prof. Parker's name. A multitude of future students will owe him their gratitude and respect. His splendid series of monographs have prepared a welcome for the opportunity given by his son of knowing the man more intimately, of learning how it was he placed himself among the great men of science. The story is that of a dissatisfied farmer boy who became a druggist's clerk, a village physician, and ultimately a Fellow of the Royal Society. It is a record that might be cited in support of Dalton's conclusions "that no man can achieve a very high reputation without being gifted with very high abilities," and "that few who possess these very high abilities can fail in achieving eminence"; yet, from what we learn of his farmer ancestry, it is not an instance to support the theory of hereditary ability in general. Religious fervor, lasting from his fifteenth year till the end, and scientific enthusiasm, were most prominent characteristics of a truly amiable man. Our sympathy goes out to him in his struggles, his ill-health, his hours of depression or exaltation; and such particulars as how unsystematic he was or how talkative, detract nothing from our esteem. Some one, we are told, was reminded by the Professor's style of a dog going home, firm in his purpose and sure to get there, now on this side of the road, now on the other, now scratching at a rat-hole, and now dashing across the field for a friendly or hostile sniff at another dog. There is also a lively anecdote of a visitor who, at mention of a skull, was carried off to the study, and, unable to get in a dozen words, was overwhelmed by explanations, illustrations, and sketches for the entire evening, then accompanied to the door for a ten or fifteen-minute conclusion, and finally allowed to depart, while the Professor sank into a chair, ejaculating, "That's a most intelligent young man, but I thought he'd never go; I'm dead tired."

The author has done his work well, without overestimate of the great importance of his father's works. A letter from Sir William Bowman contains this summary of Prof. Parker's temperament: "He was a bright,

happy, loving man, full of reverence, intensely feeling the pure pleasure of the contemplation and investigation of Nature, who greatly advanced knowledge because apparently he could not help doing it, the joy was so pervading."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Angell, G. T. Autobiographical Sketches and Personal Recollections. American Humane Society.
Besant, Walter. The Rebel Queen. Harpers. $1.50.
Bonner, John. A Child's History of France. Harpers. $2.
Boyle, Virginia F. The Other Side: An Historic Poem. Memphis, Tenn.: A. R. Taylor. $1.
Bradley, F. H. Appearance and Reality. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.75.
Bunner, H. C. "Made in France": French Tales retold with a United States Twist. Keppler & Schwarzmann.
Burke, J. M. "Buffalo Bill": from Prairie to Palace. Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Cahun, Léon. La Tueuse. 1241. [Romans Historiques.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Campbell, W. W. The Dread Voyage: Poems. Toronto: William Briggs. $1.
Chase, F. H. The Old Syriac Element in the Text of Codex Bezae. Macmillan. $2.50.
Coppee, François. True Riches. Appletons.
First Three Republican National Conventions. Minneapolis: C. W. Johnson. $2.
Gardener, Helen H. Facts and Fictions of Life. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Gautier, Judith. Le Dragon Impérial. [Romans Historiques.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Grey, Maxwell. An Innocent Impostor. Appletons. $1.
Horton, E. A. Noble Lives and Noble Deeds. Boston: Unitarian Sunday School Society.
Howe, Maud. Honor St. Paul: Price-McGill Co.
Jacolliot, J. L. The Froler Case. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
James, Henry. The Private Life, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.
Johnson's Gardener's Dictionary. Part II. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 40 cents.
Johnston, W. J. An Elementary Treatise on Analytical Geometry. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Leroy-Beaulieu, Anatole. Israël chez les Nations. 9th edition. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
Leverson, M. R. Thoughts on Institutions of the Higher Education. S. & D. A. Huebsch.
Mach, Prof. Ernst. The Science of Mechanics. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $2.50.
Maycock, W. P. Electric Lighting and Power Distribution. Part III. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Merrill, Prof. E. T. Catullus. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Roberts, J. W. Looking Within. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.
Rothwell, R. P. Universal Bimetallism. Scientific Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Sanborn, Kate. A Truthful Woman in Southern California. Appletons. 75 cents.
Savage, R. H. The Passing Show. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
The Open Secret. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 75 cents.
The Principles of Fitting for Apprentices and Students. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Thorpe, Prof. T. E. A Dictionary of Applied Chemistry. Vol. III. Longmans, Green & Co. $20.
Weld, Prof. L. G. The Theory of Determinants. Macmillan.


# HENRY HOLT & CO., New York,

*Have Published During the Past School Year:*

**Barker's Physics** (Advanced Course, American Science Series). By GEORGE F. BARKER, Professor in the University of Pennsylvania. x+902 pp., 8vo. Teachers' price $3.50; postage 28 cents additional.
A comprehensive text book for higher college classes, rigorous in method, and thoroughly modern in its treatment of the subject as distinctively the science of energy. The London *Chemical News* pronounces it "the best truly modern manual of physics in our language."

**Baldwin's Elements of Psychology.** By JAMES MARK BALDWIN, Professor in Princeton College. xvi+372 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price $1.50; postage 11 cents additional.
Presents the essentials of the science, including the latest results of experimental psychology, in a single compact volume. While based on the author's larger "Handbook of Psychology," whole sections have sometimes been rewritten and even whole chapters recast. The exposition has been simplified throughout and more illustrative facts and explanations added.

**Falckenberg's History of Modern Philosophy.** Translated by A. C. ARMSTRONG, Jr., Professor of Philosophy in Wesleyan University. xvi+655 pp. 8vo. Teachers' price $3.50; postage 25 cents additional.
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**Beresford-Webb's German Historical Reader.** Edited with an introduction, connecting passages, and notes, by CHARLES R. BERESFORD-WEBB. 240 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price 90 cents; postage 8 cents additional.
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This book, new to the list of its present publishers, has been found to be a successful modification of the natural method, insuring great thoroughness.

**Jagemann's Materials for German Prose Composition.** With notes and vocabulary. By H. C. G. VON JAGEMANN, Assistant Professor of German in Harvard University. vi+288 pp, 12mo. Teachers' price 90 cents; postage 8 cents additional.
Easy connected prose, chiefly narrative and historical. The notes consist chiefly of references to the author's "Elements of German Syntax," which is intended to accompany this book. The vocabulary is especially complete, and discriminates between synonyms.

**Riehl's Burg Neideck.** With introduction and notes by ARTHUR H. PALMER, Professor of the German Language and Literature in Yale University. x+66 pp. 12mo, boards. Teachers' price 30 cents; postage 3 cents additional.
One of Riehl's brightest and most pleasing historical genre-pictures, using the period of the Seven Years' War as a background.

**Daudet's Contes de Daudet.** With introduction and notes by A. GUYOT CAMERON, Assistant Professor of French in the Sheffield Scientific School, Yale University. xx+299 pp. 16mo. Teachers' price 80 cents; postage 7 cents additional.
Eighteen tales, including *La Belle Nivernaise*, representing the different types under which Daudet's short stories may be grouped. Dialectal and other difficulties are carefully explained in the notes. The introduction is unusually full and adequate.

**Daudet's La Belle Nivernaise.** With Notes by A. GUYOT CAMERON. 79 pp. 12mo, boards. Teachers' price 25 cents: postage 3 cents additional.
Taken bodily from the foregoing volume, with the same notes and references.

**Joynes's Minimum French Grammar and Reader.** By EDWARD S. JOYNES, Professor in South Carolina College. vi+269 pp. Teacher's price, 75 cents; postage 6 cents additional.
Combines in a single brief volume the essentials of grammar, with ample exercises, and graded selections for easy reading, with notes and vocabularies. The object is to reduce preliminary grammatical study to the minimum consistent with due method and completeness.

**Goodell's Greek Lessons.** Part I. The Greek in English. Part II. The Greek of Xenophon. By THOMAS D. GOODELL, Professor in Yale University. x+376 pp. 16mo. Teachers' price $1.25; postage 8 cents additional.
This volume, an enlargement of the author's "Greek in English" (which is still published separately), forms a continuous course preparatory to the Anabasis. As far as possible, the exercises of Part II. consist of connected speech, and are based on the Anabasis.

**McLaughlin's Literary Criticism for Students.** With an Introduction and Notes by EDWARD T. MCLAUGHLIN, late Professor in Yale University. xx+236 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price $1.00; postage 10 cents additional.
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From **Prof. W. W. Hooper,** U. S. Grant Univ., Chattanooga (Tenn.). Jan. 9, 1892
The copy of Sheldon's Revision was duly received and examined. I formed a class in it last fall and am well pleased with the work.

From **Prof. J. C. Adair,** Tarkio College (Mo.). Dec. 29, 1891
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From **Prof. J. T. Coleman,** S. C. Military Academy. Oct. 31, 1891
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I have received the copy and am well pleased with it. We will order the new edition before we take up the work again.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 31, 1893.

## The Week.

THE discussion of the silver question in the House closed in a most creditable manner on Saturday, the speeches by Reed, Cockran, and Wilson being especially able and forcible. The fortnight's debate had greatly strengthened the cause of repeal of the Purchase Act, and the free-coinage men lost ground every day. The passage of the Repeal Bill by the House on Monday had been assured for some time, and the only curiosity was as to the size of the majority on that side. Bland himself admits that "the bill will pass the Senate without much delay." Indeed, he goes so far as to say that he "would not be astonished to see it slip through without fric tion almost any day." He explains that "the same pressure is being brought to bear upon the Senate that has proved so effective in the House, and the result is likely to be the same." Mr. Bland is quite right. The "pressure" in question is that of the public opinion of the United States, and it must prove as irresistible with the Senate as with the House.

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Mr. Bourke Cockran's speech of Saturday in the House was very effective in his analysis of the "debtor and creditor" argument in the free-coinage controversy. No single point raised by the friends of silver has in the past obtained greater hold on the minds of ignorant and credulous constituents. In listening, during the long years of "cheap money" agitation, to the fulminations of Congressional and platform orators against the wrong of forcing debtors to pay in the money in which their debts were originally contracted, one might suppose that the country was crowded with weak borrowers, every one of them ground down under the exactions of the capitalists. Wall Street in particular has been selected as the type of such exaction, and it is safe to say that the uninstructed citizens of the West have believed for years that Wall Street is one vast hive of creditors, to whom the nation as a whole owes money out of which the hardest terms are wrung. What is the truth? Mr. Cockran demonstrated clearly that whoever does constitute the debtor class, the laboring man does not. By the nature of his occupation, he is a constant creditor. If the money in which he pays be debased, there surely can result no gain to him. Nor is this all. The savings bank is an institution designed to make the laboring man, to the extent of his money savings, an actual lender. Last week there was a sudden contraction in the Wall Street loans; caused by what? Simply by the withdrawal, present or prospective, of small deposit funds from savings banks, such process making necessary the calling in of the same money in bulk from Wall Street debtors. Nothing could be more clear than this. But the question may be carried further. Who are the heaviest debtors of the country and especially the debtors whose obligations fixed on long time, would be peculiarly affected by a debasement of the standard of value? Has any free-coinage orator ever fairly answered this? Here are the figures. The railway corporations, which in the popular mind are often lumped in haphazard with the "money sharks" of Wall Street, are debtors in the stupendous sum of $6,168,378,481, all of which amount is due and payable at stipulated dates. The great manufacturing corporations would add, by their gross indebtedness, probably 25 per cent. to this huge total. A few essential facts of this character, given proper publicity, would disperse in a moment the mists that so long have overhung the popular intelligence.

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Among the speeches made in the House on the silver question, we are glad to signalize one that was in favor of the single gold standard as being the best and the fairest monetary system attainable, and the one most conducive to the prosperity of nations. The author of this speech was Mr. Tom L. Johnson of Ohio. Mr. Johnson is perhaps the one member of the House who most nearly represents the Labor party. His first nomination to Congress came from the labor unions of Cleveland, and although he is now classified as a Democrat in the party divisions of the day, his political pedigree is derived from the workingmen's organizations. Mr. Johnson has a refreshing habit of frankness. Accordingly, when Mr. Snodgrass of Tennessee, with wonder and astonishment, asked Mr. Johnson whether he really meant that the country should be "*reduced* to a single gold standard," Mr. Johnson replied that the country was now on that standard and had been so ever since 1834, except during the war and the greenback era, and that he (Johnson) was opposed to a change. "You offer no reason for it," he continued. "You tell us that prices will go up. What of it? We are not here to deal with prices. We are here to maintain a unit (or, if it were an original proposition, to select one) which will operate honestly as between these two conflicting classes." Mr. Johnson's speech was logical and excellent from beginning to end, and was the only one that we have observed which pronounced in favor of the single gold standard as against all competing devices. Mr. Johnson is still a young man. Within a few years he will find the country on his side with substantial unanimity.

The past three years have wrought a change, amounting to a revolution, in the attitude of the Democratic party on the silver question. Its extent may best be measured by comparing the vote of Monday on the 16 to 1 ratio with the votes on the same ratio in 1890 and 1892. On June 5, 1890, 102 Democrats went on record in favor of Bland's free-coinage amendment, and only 13 against it. On March 24, 1892, when the vote on the same bill was a tie in the House, 81 Democrats voted against it, 9 of this number having voted for free coinage two years before. On July 13, 1892, when Bland asked for an order to take up the Free-Coinage Bill which had passed the Senate, there were 94 Democrats against it, showing 8 more individual conversions to the cause of sound money since the 24th of March previous. On Monday for the first time an actual majority of Democrats was against free coinage, 114 voting against Bland to 100 for him; 20 further cases of individual changes having occurred since July 13, 1892. To sum up the whole, three years of discussion and the firm stand of the party's President have raised the Democratic vote against free coinage from 13 to 114, and have brought about a reversal of position in 37 Democratic Congressmen who have voted on the question in the last three Congresses.

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The six youngest States of the Union, in the Northwest—the two Dakotas, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, and Washington—and Nevada, which has a smaller population (only 45,761) than any one of these six, were solid on the silver side in Monday's vote, except that North Dakota's one Representative was for repeal, and one of the two from Washington. Their attitude counts for little in the House, since the seven States have only nine Representatives in all out of a total of 356 in the body; but it is a very different thing in the Senate. In that body these seven thinly settled States have almost one-sixth of all the seats filled by the forty-four States in the Union, instead of only about one-fortieth, as in the House; or would have, but for the three vacancies caused by the failure of Legislatures to elect in Montana, Wyoming, and Washington, and the refusal of the Senate to admit the appointees of the Governors. As it is, there will be eighty-five Senators qualified to vote upon the question of repeal, and, besides those from the six newest States, and Nevada, and Colorado, there will hardly be twenty-five on the silver side.

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Senator Hoar gave the silverites a resounding blow on Tuesday week by presenting to the Senate a letter, written by Ernest Seyd to Hon. Samuel Hooper in 1872, ar-

guing strongly *against* that section of the Coinage Act then pending which dropped the silver dollar from the list of coins. In other words, this letter was an argument very much in the strain and tenor of a speech by Mr. Bland or Senator Stewart, except that it contained fewer errors. Mr. Seyd's letter was called out by Mr. Hooper, who had caused a copy of the Coinage Bill to be sent to him as an expert for his criticism. Mr. Seyd had published a work entitled 'Bullion and the Foreign Exchanges,' which contained a vast deal of information of a technical sort, and which led Mr. Hooper and the Committee on Coinage of that day to take him into consultation as to these matters of detail. Mr. Seyd replied, under date of London, February 17, 1872, in a letter of thirty foolscap pages, going over the bill in all its minutiæ. When he came to section 15 (the one which dropped the silver dollar from the list of coins), he argued strongly against it on the grounds usually taken by the bimetallists. Of course the object of Mr. Hoar in bringing out and publishing this letter is to nail the falsehood that has been so many times repeated in Congress, and on the stump, and in public platforms, that Mr. Seyd came to this country in 1872 with a corruption fund raised in London to bribe Congressmen to vote for the demonetization of silver. This lie was repeated at Chicago the other day in one of the preambles of the silverite platform, in these words:

"Whereas, The debates in Congress show that the parentage of the measure was in part ascribed by friends of the bill to one Ernest Seyd, a London banker, who, it is claimed, was sent over to Washington by the moneyed classes of the Old World to secure its passage by secret and corrupt means," etc.

It has been repeatedly shown by the other writings of Seyd that he was a bimetallist, but it has never till now been shown exactly what view he took of our Coinage Act of 1873. The letter now published ought to satisfy even Bland and Stewart that they have been sacrificing one of their own allies and friends all these years, besides putting an undeserved stigma on the reputation of an honest man. But we doubt whether either of them will ever do justice to the memory of Ernest Seyd.

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The decision of the Senate in the Lee Mantle case puts an end to a constitutional question in which precedents could be cited on both sides, and about which able lawyers differed. The result is to establish a precedent, which will probably not be called in question hereafter, that the failure of a Legislature to elect does not create a "vacancy" in the sense intended by the Constitution when it gives the Governor power to appoint a Senator to fill a vacancy. This must now be taken to be good law, and it also must be admitted to be good sense. It is a Legislature's business to elect a Senator, and it is well to fix on it the responsibility for leaving its State unrepresented in the Senate. The decision will have a distinct tendency to discourage partisan squabbles and personal intrigues in Senatorial elections, persisted in for the purpose of throwing the appointment into the hands of the Governor, and so, in many cases, giving victory to a candidate who could not have won in the usual way. It speaks well for the integrity of the Southern free-silver Senators who voted against Mantle, that they did not allow their desire to swell the free-silver vote in the Senate to override their convictions on the law of the case. How knotty a constitutional point was involved may be inferred from the fact that the two eminent constitutional lawyers who represent New York in the Senate took opposite sides. Senator Peffer's easy waiving of his constitutional convictions was taken as a tribute to free silver, but was it not really a tribute to Hill? The latter voted to admit the three free-silver Senators, and how could Peffer do less? The alliance of the two is thus shown to be firmly cemented, and the fact that Peffer follows Hill's lead as often as Hill follows Peffer's.

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The resolution introduced by Senator Peffer of Kansas and supported by Senator Hill of New York asks the Secretary of the Treasury to inform the Senate "whether, and in what respect, the national banks, or any of them, in the cities of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, are being now conducted in violation of law; whether said banks are paying depositors' checks promptly in lawful money, and whether said banks, or any of them, are demanding rates of interest higher than those provided by law for the loan of money or in discounting notes and bills." The apparent object of the resolution is to shut up all the national banks in the country, to put them into the hands of receivers, and to have their assets distributed to their depositors and other creditors in the course of five or ten years. This policy would require the forced payment under legal proceedings of all the bills receivable of the bank. A receiver would have no power to grant extensions, or to do anything but wind up the business, although the Comptroller of the Currency might exercise his discretion to allow a bank to reopen if it could show a fair promise of meeting its obligations on demand. Section 5191 of the Revised Statutes provides that the banks shall keep a certain amount of reserve as against deposits, and provides that whenever the reserve falls below the percentage fixed by the law, the Comptroller *may* notify the bank to make it good within thirty days, and that if the bank fails to do so, then the Comptroller *may*, with the concurrence of the Secretary of the Treasury, appoint a receiver to wind up the business of the bank. This is the only way in which the authorities at Washington can take original jurisdiction of a bank's failure to pay its deposits on demand, and even here it is left to the discretion first of the Comptroller, and afterwards of the Secretary, to take extreme measures or not. Hence if the Peffer resolution should be adopted by the Senate, it would be of no direct effect. But it might have a very serious indirect effect. It might alarm the country and lead to a race of diligence among depositors. In other words, it might lead to runs on the banks generally.

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Gov. Boies of Iowa seems to have secured much the same sort of hold upon the people of Iowa as Gov. Russell upon those of Massachusetts, and his renomination by acclamation in last week's Convention, despite his desire to retire at the end of his second term, was made in response to a manifest popular demand. The platform of the Convention shows a distinct gain in the party on the financial question. In the last Gubernatorial campaign the Iowa Democrats "demanded the free coinage of silver, and that it be made a full legal tender for all debts, public and private." Now they "demand the immediate repeal of the silver-purchase clause of the Sherman Act," and leave the question of further coinage of silver to the future. Gov. Boies is undoubtedly the strongest candidate whom the Democrats could nominate, and it is possible that he may again carry the State. Much depends upon whether the contest turns chiefly upon State or upon national issues, and much also upon the development of the revolt already started in the Republican party against the policy adopted by the recent State Convention of surrendering prohibition.

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Some of the Republican organs, the New York *Tribune* among them, are trying to raise the sectional issue over the constitution of the House committees, because a majority of the chairmanships go to members from the South. The reason is not simply because a majority of the Democratic members come from the South, but also because so large a proportion of the Southern Representatives are old members, who thus have superior claims over men with only brief terms of service. The same sort of complaint used to be heard from Western Republicans against the great influence of New England in the committees of the Senate, which was due to her custom of reëlecting Senators term after term, until mere length of service entitled them to priority. The real question is not whether Illinois or West Virginia gets the Chairmanship of the Ways and Means, or Indiana or Texas that of Appropriations, but whether Wilson is a better choice than Springer for the one, and Sayres better than Holman for the other. As even the *Tribune* does not dispute either of these propositions, it is obvious that no partisan advantage can be secured by this weak attempt to raise the sectional issue.

We find in the *Manufacturers' Record*, a protectionist weekly of Baltimore, an amusing exposure of one batch of the high-tariff "statistics" with which Mr. Robert P. Porter, late Superintendent of the Census, is stuffing the daily issues of the *Press* of this city. He is in the habit of placing at the head of his editorial columns what he calls "Tariff Pictures," and it is upon one of these that the *Manufacturers' Record* pounces. The text of the picture was as follows: "The first six months of 1892 saw twenty-one new textile factories started in the Southern States. The corresponding period of 1893, with free trade in prospect, saw only nine." The *Record* asks "where the *Press* obtained these figures," which is a totally superfluous question. Porter made them, as he is in the habit of doing when he needs a new "picture." That he did not go to any authoritative source for them is shown by the *Record*, which says that instead of twenty-one new textile companies having been started in the South in the first half of 1892, the true number was thirty-one, and that instead of only nine in the first half of 1893 the true number was forty-eight. It gives the name and location of each of the forty-eight, and says of Porter's figures that they are "entirely absurd," and that the "textile industries of the South are not suffering from free-trade prospects or any other cause." It ventures to hope that "the *Press* will be kind enough to correct its unfortunate mistake and at the same time reveal the source of its misinformation." The idea! How could the "Tariff Picture" business be kept up on such a ridiculous system as that?

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On May 12, 1893, the cruiser *Atlanta* sailed from New York for Nicaragua, under command of Capt. Higginson. On May 16 the Secretary of the Navy issued an order detaching Capt. Higginson from his ship, on the ground that he had been dilatory in putting to sea, and that he had reported the *Atlanta* to be in need of repairs, although it was known at Washington that she was in good condition and fit to "go round the world." The charge of delay in coaling and provisioning the ship was at once disproved by the testimony of the Brooklyn Navy-yard officials, who said the work had been done with all possible speed. The *Atlanta* has since returned to this country and been examined by a board of inspection. They report her to have long been in a "deplorable and disgraceful condition," and state that the "accumulations of rust and other material that threatened her usefulness" had been concealed from the Secretary of the Navy, former boards of inspection having done their work in a "purely perfunctory" manner.

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The outgivings of the News Bureau of the Navy Department, in view of these revelations, are highly instructive. Secretary Herbert is thoroughly indignant at the way he has been misled. The publication of the report on the *Atlanta* was directed by him "as a partial censure of officers derelict in their duties," and there are strong hints of a court martial for some of them. But there is not a syllable about the outrage inflicted on Capt. Higginson for asserting in May what the Secretary has had proved to him in August to have been the exact truth. There is not a word in confession of the fact that the information the Department relied upon when it disciplined Capt. Higginson so severely was, in fact, entirely untrustworthy, nor is there any suggestion of an apology and amends to the wronged officer. To make such apology and amends would be the way one gentleman would treat another, but that is not the way the Navy Department treats the men whom it puts in command of American men-of-war. They have to be condemned unheard, are denied a public inquiry after condemnation, and have to depend for service and salary and reputation upon the whim of their superior officer as absolutely as if they were under the Turkish Government. We trust, however, that Secretary Herbert will not stop with chastising the men who deceived him, but will yet exonerate, as openly as he disgraced, on the strength of inaccurate information, an officer whose only fault was telling the truth about the condition of his ship.

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Mr. Blount has returned from Honolulu and laid his report on Hawaiian affairs before the State Department, having nothing to say to the newspapers. Meanwhile, Japan has supplanted England as a bugbear to frighten the American people into annexing Hawaii. Some time ago a clerical writer in the *Independent* informed us that if the United States did not annex Hawaii, Japan would do so, and since then there have been various rumors and rumblings about the intentions and machinations of the Japanese in the Islands. All of these have collapsed on investigation, and there is no evidence that Japan is less indifferent to the political fate of Hawaii than is Great Britain. Yet there is no doubt that she has one substantial grievance against the Hawaiian Government, if she chose to urge it. In 1871 she concluded a treaty with Hawaii, under which her citizens were guaranteed "the same privileges as may have been, or may hereafter be, granted to the citizens or subjects of any other nation." Yet by the amended Hawaiian Constitution of 1887 the right of suffrage was bestowed on "male residents of Hawaiian, American, or European birth," but not of Japanese birth, although Japanese had previously exercised the franchise and were certainly as much entitled to it, under their treaty, as were Europeans. It is needless to point out what would have happened had such a discrimination been made against Americans.

The Pope took occasion, shortly before the French general election, to reaffirm his wish that the Catholics of France should accept the republic. In a letter to the Cardinal Archbishop of Bordeaux, published ten days before the election took place, he greatly disapproved of the audacious conduct of certain men, who, calling themselves Catholics and boasting of their attachment to the religion of their fathers, were violently attacking the leaders of the Church in France, and even the Supreme Pontiff, all for the sake of party success and in opposition to the peace of the country. This was aimed pretty straight at the Royalists, who had to suffer another blow from the church authorities in the shape of a pastoral letter sent to all the churches in Paris by Cardinal Richard on August 13, ordering prayers for the country, on occasion of the approaching elections, and saying: "The sons of the Church will listen to the voice of the Sovereign Pontiff directing them to accept without reservation, and with the perfect loyalty which becomes a Christian, our existing institutions." The Royalists well know whom to thank for the heavy losses they suffered on August 20.

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Like the United States, Italy is afflicted with a dearth of currency, although in her case it is to be feared that the Government is upon the verge of insolvency, while in ours the trouble is not due to inability to meet our obligations. A well-known house in Milan has gone so far as to issue money upon its own account, stamping its name upon coins of base metal with the value at which they are redeemable. These coins have been paid to the employees of the house, and the tradesmen of the city have generally accepted them. The small silver coin of Italy, it seems, has been exported to a great extent to France, just as our dimes and quarters withdrew to Canada when the stress of the civil war induced our Government to give up specie payments. At Milan, also, the expedient of making checks drawn upon the banks do service as money in paying wages, with which we are becoming familiar, seems to have been tried with success. Another device suggested is that of cutting notes for ten francs and five francs into quarters, but this is a counsel of despair. Equally futile is the attempt to keep the precious metals in the country by punishing the men who make a trade of exporting coins to France and Switzerland. The increase of the bronze coinage and the issue of one-franc paper notes will be to a certain extent effective. Having no intrinsic value, they will not be exported, but they will, on the other hand, expel from circulation what silver coin is still left. The financial outlook is extremely bad, and very radical changes must be made in the policy of the Government before it can improve.

### *EXIT SILVER.*

THE overwhelming majority by which the Silver-Purchase Law was repealed in the House, a majority of more than two to one, is indicative of the movement of public opinion during the present year, and especially during the past two months. If there ever was any doubt about the ultimate passage of the bill in the Senate, the impressive majority in the House would remove it. But in fact there never was a doubt about the passage of the bill after the President had called Congress together in extraordinary session and sent in his admirable message on the public finances. The victory is in one sense a victory for Mr. Cleveland, but in a larger sense it is a victory of the people over a plausible and widespread delusion. To gain this victory has cost them, in their joint and corporate capacity, about four hundred million dollars. The delusion has cost many individuals their entire fortunes through the recent panic. It has brought poverty and desolation temporarily upon the silver-mining States. It is doubtful if the law has been of benefit to any human being, since it is doubtful whether the artificial demand of our Government for silver bullion has not been overbalanced by the lessened demand of other governments and peoples, who have seen from the beginning that this artificial demand must some day come to an end with disastrous results. Fortunately, the country can afford to lose four or five hundred million dollars. It lost ten times that sum (North and South together) during the war, and yet recovered in a surprisingly short space of time.

There will probably be some who will say, with Mr. Bland, that they intend to keep up the fight. It makes little difference what they do. They were stronger on Monday than they will ever be again. They have had their Waterloo, and they are now going to their St Helena. There was a certain plausibility in the buying and coining of silver on Government account. It had the appearance of adding to the supply of money, and that is always attractive to the multitude, who are not accustomed to close reasoning and are not skilled in detecting half-truths. But all that delusion has passed away. The great majority of the common people can see now that the speedy and regular exchange of property—of goods for goods, of service for service—depends upon confidence in the standard of value, and that when this confidence is undermined the whole fabric of industry is shaken. This lesson has been learned sufficiently for the present generation. We have really been on the gold standard all the time. We have been there *de jure* as well as *de facto*, but there has been a dispute as to whether we should remain there. That dispute has been settled in favor of the gold standard, and nobody will be able in our time to reopen the question.

The effects of this vote on the business of the country will be healing and restorative. Those who are actually down will not immediately get on their feet. There has been too much dislocation of machinery to put all in working order again at once. But we anticipate a much speedier revival and return to normal conditions than has ever been observed after a panic as severe and widespread as this has been. There was some cause for panic conditions aside from lack of confidence in the standard of value, but it was not sufficient, in our judgment, to produce a panic in which the banks would be obliged to club their resources in the form of loan certificates, still less to cause a premium on currency over bankable funds. We now look for the early disappearance of this premium, which will be evidence of the cessation of hoarding.

We must not shut our eyes, however, to the fact that the revenues of the Government have fallen off heavily, while its expenditures remain the same as before. This is the explanation of the sinking of the Treasury gold reserve at a time when we are not exporting gold, but on the contrary importing it largely. It means that the Treasury has no available balance except the gold reserve, and that the difference between daily income and outgo is necessarily taken from this reserve. But, with the Silver-Purchase Act out of the way, this will not be a cause for alarm. The Government will have to borrow until a balance is established in the budget, but its credit will now be good. All the bonds that it issues will necessarily be gold bonds, whether so specified or not.

### *THE OPPOSITION IN ENGLAND.*

IT is inevitable under any form of popular government that there should be incessant pandering to the electors. What we call party government is merely government by a combination of men who yield some of their convictions for the sake of enforcing others. Under this necessity only men of great wisdom and sturdy honesty can successfully maintain their independence. To use a physical metaphor, they may be said to be of such mass as to cause others to gravitate towards them, while smaller men yield to the attraction of others. The common run of politicians are incapable of conceiving any enlightened and comprehensive policy and working steadily towards its attainment. They are concerned above all things to find out what the people want, and to appear to anticipate their wishes. If any considerable number of the American people were to declare that the Government ought to stop the earth from turning towards the east and set it spinning towards the west, there is little doubt that the platforms of both parties would very soon contain planks expressing profound respect and friendliness for westward rotation, and declaring the party intention to be to pass wise laws looking in that direction as soon as practicable.

This anxiety to gratify popular desires, with which we are so familiar in this country, has been painfully manifest, as we have from time to time shown, in the career of the present French Republic. It has been the glory of English politics to have had comparatively little of such humiliating leadership, and its annals are full of splendid examples of statesmanlike definitions of policy and statesmanlike independence of conduct. But England is changing from aristocracy to democracy, and with the advantages attending this change there must come some losses. The candidate of the future, if he cannot rely upon the prestige of his rank, and is not himself of commanding character, will be tempted to commend himself to his constituents by subserviency to popular demands.

The tendency in this direction is, we think, deplorably manifested in the present attitude of the Opposition in England. Having failed to succeed upon the issue of home rule for Ireland, they are now failing in determining the general policy of the new Conservative party. This failure does not seem to be due to any special incompatibility between the opinions of the Liberal-Unionists and those of the Tories. It is true that the old Tories are protectionists, but protection is as impracticable in England as a return to the Stuart dynasty, and whatever regard for it is from time to time professed is purely sentimental. The Liberal Unionists came from the moderate, not from the radical, wing of the Liberal party, and they have fared peaceably enough with their new associates. There are many differences of opinion in such a conglomeration, but so far these differences have not seemed to be so vital as to threaten the permanency of the present Liberal-Conservative alliance. Nothing in the nature of the parties to this alliance should prevent their agreeing upon a wise and truly conservative policy.

Unfortunately they have shown little capacity to appreciate the necessities of the situation. They have tried to delay the passage of the Home-Rule Bill by much speaking, and when their course made the application of closure necessary they have complained of being choked off. It is true that closure is not in accordance with the precedents of Parliamentary government, but neither is it in accordance with these precedents to talk indefinitely so as to block legislation. This is not discussion, but obstruction, and the party resorting to it is primarily responsible for the lowering of Parliamentary standards. Outside of Parliament there are other manifestations of inability to conceive and expound a statesmanlike policy. The nature of these manifestations is indicated by the programme of an association formed by the so-called Conservative party called "The London League," the purpose of which is to draw

voters from the Liberal party by offering them whatever they are supposed to desire. To attract the radical element, the very use of the word "moderate" in London politics is to be discouraged, and all the demands of the Socialists are to be sympathetically considered.

The extent to which this "conservative" league is prepared to go in bidding for the votes of a class that is in a way to cause a good deal of mischief to England, is apparent from the details of the programme. More municipal officers are to be appointed, great schemes of public works for the employment of "surplus labor" are to be undertaken, and, of course, whatever wages are fixed by the trade-unions are to be paid. To meet the expense, special taxes are to be imposed upon the estates of deceased Londoners and upon the incomes of the living. Tolls are to be levied, and an octroi is to be collected upon the provisions brought to the metropolis. The whole matter of leasing houses is to be regulated by municipal authority, and in general London is to be governed very much on the lines which the Municipal Council of Paris would like to follow in that city. It is unnecessary to comment upon the imbecility and wickedness of these proposals. If the Conservative party is to win with such a platform as this, its return to power will be a sad day for England's greatness.

We cannot but regard Mr. Balfour's recent speech in favor of silver as in effect a bid for the votes of the believers in cheap money. It is true that he disclaimed all official responsibility for his sentiments and professed to be merely expressing his individual convictions. But, as was pointed out by the London *Times*, it is impossible for a man in Mr. Balfour's position to separate himself from his representative character. The question of bimetallism may become a legislative question, and it would be absurd to maintain that the choice of voters would not be affected by their knowledge of the private opinions of candidates. There was no occasion whatever for Mr. Balfour's silver speech, as he himself declared, except the display of academic oratory, and, although the motive may not have been distinctly present to his mind, it is hard to believe that he was unaware that the expression of his sentiments would attract a certain element to the support of the Conservative party. It is not a statesmanlike way of outlining a public policy. We do not think that Mr. Balfour is a demagogue; but if a demagogue wished to learn what the people wanted before committing himself to the support of positive measures, we conceive that he would do about as Mr. Balfour has done.

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*THE CONGRESS OF SOCIALISTS.*

THE international gathering of Socialists which recently held its sessions at Zurich, although not an event of extreme importance, is yet deserving of a passing notice. The increase of the Socialistic vote in Germany and of the Socialistic outcry elsewhere necessarily draws increased attention to the theories and measures of this element, and governments dependent upon popular support are not disposed to keep themselves in ignorance of what is alleged to be desirable by any considerable number of the people. So far as the governments of Europe are concerned, however, they need not disquiet themselves over the recent Congress. No new demands were formulated, and, owing to modifications that took place in the membership, the tone of the resolutions finally adopted was unexpectedly subdued.

These modifications were caused by certain acute differences of opinion developed in discussing the platform to be adopted. The more radical delegates were unwilling to commit themselves to a declaration in favor of "political activity," as they hold existing political institutions in abhorrence, and they protested against the suppression of their views. In spite of their appeals to the motto, "Proletarians of all countries, unite!" which adorned the walls of the building where the Congress met, these radicals were finally ejected, but with no more serious consequences than a few bloody noses and torn coats. They organized a kind of side-show, of inferior dimensions but of superior unanimity, and adopted a full anarchistic programme, denouncing the Congress which they had quitted as no better than the worst of bourgeois tyrannies. The more moderate delegates, however, were of the opinion expressed by one of their number, that liberty of speech was a good thing, but should be kept within proper limits, and proceeded to the discussion of international solidarity and universal peace in a cloud of tobacco-smoke contributed by both male and female members.

Although sixteen nations were nominally represented in the Congress, one-fourth of the 412 delegates were from Switzerland, 92 from Germany, 65 from England, and 34 from Austria; and these delegates, with those from Italy, practically controlled the proceedings. The French, Belgian, and Dutch delegates, who in general acted together, were steadily voted down, not without unpleasant references to the "triple alliance" and to "brutal Germans and English savages." In fact, so far from promoting international solidarity, the Congress seems to have aroused strong national feeling. The Germans stood for what may be called parliamentary socialism, the French for the revolutionary type. The tendency of the speeches of the German delegates was to favor the attainment of the socialistic aim by making use of existing political institutions, to secure Socialism by getting a majority of the people to be Socialists. The tendency of the opposing faction was to scorn such a policy of compromise as this, and to bring on the conflict with "capitalism" at once by resistance to its oppression. As to the ultimate end, there seems to have been substantial agreement: the government of the middle classes is to be overthrown, and international peace to be obtained through the rule of the proletariat.

It was in regard to the attitude to be taken towards military service that the most significant differences of opinion were developed. As to war in itself, while it was admitted that it might be necessary to do some fighting in order to obtain the Socialistic ideal, yet no mercy was shown to it, one set of resolutions offered explicitly declaring that war was to be henceforth abolished. But the proposition of the French delegates and those of the Low Countries, that all workmen should respond to any declaration of war by refusing to do military duty and by a general strike, failed of adoption. It was urged with great force in its favor that such a measure would paralyze any army that attempted mobilization. The telegraphs and the railways would become useless, and if the Government tried to suppress the mutiny by force, the prisons could not contain those who would have to be arrested. But a delegate from Russian Poland emphatically warned the Congress that "the hideous vampire of Russia," in the event of the armies of other nations being demoralized, would swoop down upon Europe, and instead of being under the reign of socialism and progress the proletariat would find itself under a Cossack despotism. This practical consideration did not admit of any satisfactory reply on the part of the revolutionary element, and their opponents urged that the true way to paralyze militarism was to fill the barracks and the parliaments with the socialistic spirit. Eventually it was resolved that the "International-Revolutionary-Socialist-Democracy" should in every country and with all the forces in its power rise up against the chauvinistic appetites of the dominant classes; that it should draw closer the bonds of solidarity between the workmen of every land; that it should work without cessation to conquer capitalism, which had divided humanity into two hostile camps and ranged peoples against each other. With the suppression of the classes, war would disappear. The overthrow of capitalism would mean universal peace. Finally, as a practical measure, it was recommended that Socialistic Deputies should refuse to vote for military expenditures and should demand disarmament.

Concerning the universal eight-hour day and the character of the observance of the first day of May, there was a like difference of opinion among the delegates. Those who demanded the eight-hour day (without any reduction of wages) and the abolition of piece-work were outvoted, and were obliged to content themselves with a mild recommendation that the governments of the world should be appealed to to hold an international conference upon the subject. It was decided also that the 1st

of May should not be celebrated either by a universal strike or by a universal cessation of labor, the English delegates contending that in their country workmen who abandoned their work did not always get it back again, and the Germans adding that with them the Government had made oppressive laws which inflicted penalties upon workmen for breaking their contracts. A judicious compromise ordained the demonstration upon the 1st of May, with cessation of work wherever it was possible. With this resolution the work of the Congress was in effect completed, and it adjourned for three years, to meet then in London. Upon the whole, its proceedings, although hampered by the diversity of tongues and the necessity of oral translations, were orderly, largely owing to the enforcement of time limits upon speakers. This very orderliness, however, foreshadows disunion, for the resolutions of the Congress are too tame to satisfy ardent radicals. Such a programme would transform the Socialists into a "bourgeois" party, and the revolutionary element cannot be expected to content itself long with what is but conservatism in disguise.

## *THE LIBRARIANS AT CHICAGO.*

THE Chicago meeting of the American Library Association had two sides, one summing up the past, the other promising much for the future. According to the wise plan of the President, Mr. Dewey, the subjects were so assigned and the papers so written as to form when collected together a hand-book of library economy, treating every important branch of the subject, and exhibiting a résumé of the results that have thus far been reached by the discussions of librarians at previous meetings and in their organ, the *Library Journal*. Great stress was laid upon this requirement, that the points of agreement and the questions still remaining debatable should be exhibited. The advice of the President was generally followed and the outcome will be a book, to be published by the Bureau of Education, that may well stand side by side with the instructive report issued by the same Bureau in connection with the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876. Moreover, the Association had voted to make as complete a comparative exhibition as possible of library methods and appliances, and to show a model library, chosen, arranged, catalogued, and put on the shelves according to the best accepted ideas of the time. This, as our readers are aware, has been done. There is always a throng in the library corner of the Government Building, consisting in some measure of trustees and others interested in libraries, examining and questioning and making notes. No doubt the exhibit will bear fruit in the adoption of better methods throughout the country, and in a greater interest taken in the subject by the intelligent public; perhaps also it will lead to the founding of more libraries. There is something very attractive in the aspect of the "A. L. A. Library." The books are new, they are neatly arranged, when examined they are found to be all worth having, and one can hardly conceive that any inhabitant of a library-lacking town should go away without a longing to see those six book-stacks duplicated in his own village. In this country such longings are apt to receive satisfaction sooner or later.

So much for the past. As to the future, it was not intended that any of the papers should bring forward new plans; but it is hard to repress the inventiveness of Americans. Mr. Iles's suggestion, and indeed promise, of a weekly index to periodicals, kept up by means of the linotype, opens a most attractive prospect not to librarians alone. There have been weekly indexes before, but they had the defects of their qualities. The frequency of their issue did indeed keep them reasonably near date, but also made the looking up of anything more than a month old wearisome beyond endurance. An index which each week includes all the previous indexes of the quarter will be a blessing to searchers.

Another promise for the future is to be found in the Rudolph Indexer. It may be remembered that when the Association returned from California, it brought home rumors of a great discovery which was as yet a secret, but was expected to reduce the cost of cataloguing by half or three-quarters, and to do away with the need of brains in it altogether. When the secret came out a year later, it appeared that cataloguers would have as much need of attention and judgment and knowledge as ever, and that the invention was rather a way of presenting the catalogue to the public than a new method of making it. Even this, however, appears, from the specimens shown in the A.L.A. Comparative Exhibit, to be of importance enough to justify the Californian excitement. When the card catalogue ousted the book catalogue thirty or forty years ago, it justified its claims to the exclusive possession of the field by the fact that it could be kept up to date by daily or even hourly additions in a way that was impossible to its predecessor. Yet there have always been those who preferred the printed or written page to the written or printed card because it gave them the satisfaction of seeing many titles at the same time, and did not compel them to pick over the cards one by one to find a desired title. They would even consider the cost of printing and the trouble of looking through the inevitable supplements slight in comparison with the handling of those provoking bits of cardboard. To them the Rudolph system is a boon, for it has the great merit of the book—simultaneous view of many titles—with what was previously the exclusive merit of the card catalogue, viz., absolute contemporaneity. It is exhibited in three forms (suited to different ends)—drawers, books, and a machine. The first shows two long pages at once, the second four, and the third five pages. In quickness of adjustment and of use it is far ahead of the Leyden, the Sacconi, and other card-book attempts to do away with the defects of the card catalogue; and it shows at once ten times as many titles as they can do. Like them, however, and like the card catalogue itself, it has one great inferiority to the printed catalogue: it must be used in the library and not taken home. But for every other purpose it deserves to be called, as it was by one of the librarians, "the coming catalogue."

The Indexer Company, however, are not content with this, it appears, but wish to satisfy the claim made for the contrivance at first, that it would relieve the brains of the cataloguer. They now think of establishing a central cataloguing and classifying bureau, by which titles of new books can be furnished to libraries as soon as the books are published, possibly with descriptive or characterizing notes, and certainly with the classification according to the three systems most in vogue, the "dictionary," "decimal," and "expansive." With most commendable liberality, they propose to print the titles not merely on slips for the "Indexer," but also on cards which can be used in its rival, the card catalogue, by those libraries who prefer their present way of putting titles before the public or shrink from the cost of a change. The scheme also includes the preparation of a large stock of titles of the most common books, so that a library just starting would find its catalogue ready-made by selection from this stock. These older titles, we should suppose, would be printed only on the slips, on the supposition that no new library would now commence with a card catalogue. Large libraries no doubt will always keep their force of cataloguers, for their work must be more elaborate than this is intended to be; but when the Rudolph system is in full operation, there seems to be no reason why, in libraries of thirty thousand volumes or less, there should be any cataloguers at all; or, if they should still be found necessary, their work would be much simplified and aided by the bureau.

The Association have long been talking of the need of coöperative, or, more properly speaking, central cataloguing. It is a commonplace to insist on the wastefulness of a thousand persons in a thousand libraries all cataloguing and classifying the same book instead of having it done by one person once for all. Various schemes have been suggested, but no one has had the nerve and the money to carry them out. Once a feeble attempt was made, but it came to nothing. It needs great perseverance fully to establish such a work. It is not enough to convince the public that the scheme is good. The libraries, whose inertia is very great, must be made to believe that it will succeed, must in fact see it in successful operation, before they will feel justified in taking hold and helping it to succeed. But if the movement can survive the period of delay and discouragement, there can be no doubt that it will render very great services to all the smaller libraries, which sometimes cannot afford and sometimes cannot obtain competent assistance; and it will not be useless even to the larger ones. To new libraries, unhampered by traditions and by already having catalogues constructed and books arranged on the old methods, it would be invaluable. It would furnish lists of books to buy from, and, even before the books were in the library, the cards would be ready for the catalogue. Ordinarily a new library waits weeks and even months while a busy corps of writers is cataloguing and arranging the stock of books with which it starts. No need for that if this bureau were at hand. We hope that the scheme will not fall through, and that its promoters will be able to face the certain discouragements that await them.

## THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.—V.

### FINE ARTS: THE FRENCH PICTURES AND THE LOAN COLLECTION.

CHICAGO, July, 1893.

THE collection of French pictures is not as good a one as might have been brought to Chicago if men like Cazin, Puvis de Chavannes, and Dagnan-Bouveret, who are not represented at all, had some of their good works here, and if others, such as Gervex and Aimé Morot, who have pictures, had instead sent better ones that have been left at home. If the French, too, had included in their exhibition works by men who have died recently, as the British, the Americans, and others have done, we might have had pictures by Delau-

nay, Baudry, and Meissonier, but it was more logical to leave them out. It looks very much as if Old Salon men had had the most influence in Paris when the collection was got together, and the change in the fine-arts commissionership (made when Mr. Antonin Proust resigned on account of his connection with the Panama scandal) disarranged plans at a late day, and probably had a good deal to do with the incompleteness of the French *envoi*. Its incompleteness is apparent, and the division of the Paris artists into two camps four years ago is largely the cause of it. Such as it is, however, it is by far the best exhibition made by any of the foreign nations. The seriousness of purpose and the general excellence of the work from the technical point of view, especially the thorough knowledge of construction shown in both the figure and landscape pictures, make it superior to the American exhibition in these respects. As has been said before, the artists of the United States show more diversity of aim and individuality of expression than any others.

The French maintain their supremacy as painters of portraits. The realistic, uncompromising way in which Bonnat depicts Renan may not please a great many people, but there can be no two opinions about the power of the work. His "Portrait of Cardinal Lavigerie," an imposing full-length figure clad in red and black robes and placed seated squarely in the middle of the canvas, is also realistic, and so well done that criticism finds nothing to seize upon unless one quarrels with Bonnat's methods in their entirety. I see no reason why any one should, but the fashion of the day seems to be for so-called sympathetic painting and against everything that is vigorous and hardy. There is plenty of science in Bonnat's work, but it will be well to look elsewhere for the tenderer qualities. They will scarcely be found in the three portraits by Carolus-Duran, which are most cleverly painted and rather effective in their color schemes, nor in Debat-Ponsan's excellent study of a lady in black, "In My Greenhouse," though it is wonderfully well observed and not unsympathetically painted; but "Parisian at a Ball at the Élysée" by Duez, a full-length figure of a lady in white standing in a garden lit with Chinese lanterns, is refined in the good sense of the word and charming in aspect. There is sympathetic painting, also, in Roll's portrait of two young girls—much more of it than one might expect to find in the work of so sturdy a realist as he. Another portrait by Roll, "Trotting," a large canvas showing a boy on his pony speeding through the woods, is one of the best things in all the French galleries. Courtois's "Portrait of Madame Gauthereau" is said to have had a notable success in Paris, by one of those strange turns which popular opinion is subject to, for a portrait of the same lady by Sargent, painted before this, and to which this one by Courtois bears an extraordinary resemblance in arrangement and pose of the figure, provoked the most hostile criticism when it was shown at the Salon. Mr. Courtois's portrait is very delicately drawn, but painted in a cold, careful way, quite lacking in the *entrain* that distinguished Mr. Sargent's work. An excellent portrait of an etcher before his table by Mathey, one of a lady in a gown of figured stuff by Doucet, and Yvon's official "Portrait of Carnot, President of the French Republic" are a few other notable portraits in the French galleries. One more that is sure to attract great attention from its subject, and is deserving of great praise for its artistic treatment and its masterly interpretation of character, is "Portrait of His Holiness Pope Leo XIII.," by Chartran. One need only look at another portrait of the Pope, by Lenbach, in the German section, in which the head and hands of the sitter are shown in a similar conception of the subject, to see how good Chartran's is.

French painters are generally very good draughtsmen. In the schools they are thoroughly taught, and all through their artistic career the importance of drawing is upheld by themselves and their critics. What they do with their skill in drawing, once it is acquired, is another matter; but very few pictures by men even of comparatively modest position are ever seen to which the reproach of bad drawing or ill understood construction may be applied. Mr. Collin is quite as skilful a draughtsman as Mr. Bouguereau, but his work never looks insincere; he possesses great facility, but manages in spite of it to retain a sufficient amount of naïveté to invest his pictures with some of that sort of charm that is inherent in all painting in which truth has been sought for, not glibly noted as an old story. The large picture, "On the Sea Coast," which represents a group of nude young women dancing a round on the sands, while it is painted with the greatest cleverness, bears an aspect of sincerity which shows that the painter's skill has not run away with him. This picture, which is painted in a very light key and is full of delicate color, evokes an instructive comparison with Mr. Harrison's "Bathers" in the American section. The two artists have undertaken similar tasks, and it is interesting to see what each of them has made out of his subject.

Painting religious subjects (generally scenes in the life of Christ) with a modern setting and figures clad in the clothes men wear in our day, was begun some few years ago by the German painter Fritz von Uhde, and in the French galleries there are three such pictures. "The Host," by Jacques Émile Blanche, is commonplace enough, and the figure of Christ at the table, in a gown of blue and white stuff, surrounded by a family group, seems incongruous. The picture is well painted, but the artist has somehow fallen short of success; indeed, while the type of "The Host" is not an unpleasing one, there is something in the work that makes a repelling impression. Lhermitte's "The Friend of the Lowly" gives no such impression, but his picture is not interesting. Not much has been made out of the types of character in the peasant man and woman and the child who are in the group, and the figure of Christ is ordinary and expressionless. It is a very good composition, but the tone of the canvas is brown and dull. "The Descent from the Cross," by Jean Béraud, with the scene laid on the heights of Montmartre, Paris lying wrapped in hazy mistiness below and a group of people at the foot of the cross, among whom are workingmen and some women, is about as lifeless in color as Lhermitte's picture, but, unlike it, is distinctly impressive. Monotone, or something nearly approaching it, seems to be thought requisite by the artists in painting these religious pictures, for, besides the two works here by Béraud and Lhermitte, Von Uhde's "Last Supper," exhibited at Paris in 1889, and much talked about, is sombre and dingy.

Great variety of subject is found in the pictures in the French section, from Bouguereau's "Our Lady of the Angels" and Maignan's "William the Conqueror" to Raffaelli's somewhat eccentric characterizations. The last-named painter is in vogue at present, and his peculiar style is exemplified in three pictures. "The Grandfather" is a very good bit of painting, but "The Peasants of Plougasnou, Brittany," is positively ugly with its harsh, scratchy technique; and "In the Plain, Horses on the Road," is black, wriggling in *facture*, and disjointed in effect. A much better picture than either of these is "The Absinthe Drinkers" in the Loan Collection. Good genre pictures are Friant's "Shadows Lifted," Bramtot's "The First Communion," Richemont's "Sacrifice," Binet's "The Lovers," and Lhermitte's "Repose." Jules Breton's "The Pardon of Kergoat" shows traces of failing powers, and Besnard's "Two Ponies Harassed by Flies" by no means well represents one of the ablest and most original of modern painters. Jean Paul Laurens's "The Seven Troubadours" and "Christopher Columbus," solidly painted, well composed, and sober and reserved in color; Tissot's four low-toned canvases depicting the story of the Prodigal Son; a good military picture, "Combat in a Village," by Émile Boutigny; "The Ribbon Maker," by Ernest Bordes; and a vast canvas, "Flowery Spring," by P. Franc Lamy, with nude figures in a garden—an ambitious conception, hardly justified in its execution and rather cold in color—are other notable works. Fourié's "Spring," with nymphs chasing a satyr through a wood, is big and bad—the one conspicuously bad picture, indeed, in the French galleries in which painting of the nude is the *raison d'être*. Two delightful small pictures are "Venice" and "In Sicily," by Aman-Jean, the first a head of a woman drawn with great subtlety and charm, and refined in color.

The presence of good pictures among the landscapes by men who were unknown only a short time ago is remarkable in the French section. It is a fact worth noting also in the work by figure-painters, and shows that the exhibition includes more of what has been produced in the last two or three years in Paris than "standard works," such as Great Britain, for example, sends in great numbers, although many of them were seen at Paris in 1889, and some even in 1878. The French collection is more up to date, and, in so far as it is representative at all, is more truly representative of the actual status of the fine arts in France at the present moment than those sent by some of the other nations are of theirs. Guillemet, Pelouse, Zuber, Dameron, Montenard, and Vuillefroy are among the well-known names of landscape or cattle-painters whose works are here; Harpignies, Cazin, Français, Bernier, Rapin, and Busson some of those that are absent. Two of Jan-Monchablon's remarkably faithful transcriptions of wide stretches of country, full of minute detail but broad in effect; poetical evening motives by Lagarde; a strong sunset by Diéterle; delicately observed street scenes by Billotte and Pujol; a fine early morning effect, though a trifle too icy for autumn frost, by Balouzet; an excellent sunset over marshlands by Damoye; evening and morning effects by Pointelin; and cattle-pieces by Barillot and Marais, are some of the best pictures by newer men. While the landscapes in the French galleries reveal no preëminent talent, there is a manifest improvement in the tendencies shown by the younger painters over what appeared at Paris in 1889 in restricting the size of their canvases to reasonable dimensions, and in the effort to obtain color quality as well as form and truth of values. The French need some of the color feeling that the Americans already possess, and the Americans are lacking in the strong sense of form which characterizes all the French work. When these qualities are attained, we may expect to see masters on either side of the water.

The Loan Collection of Foreign Masterpieces owned in the United States does not deserve its title. There are great names in the catalogue and fine pictures in the gallery, but in most cases the artists are not represented by masterpieces. There are some, however, to which the term applies in the fullest sense of the word. The great majority of the pictures are by French painters, and the works from other schools may be quickly enumerated: "A Reading from Homer," by Alma Tadema, landscapes by Bonington, Constable, and George Morland, three animal pictures by John M. Swan, and "Portrait of Joachim," by G. F. Watts, from the English school; "The Beach at Portici," by Fortuny, from Spain; "Springtime and Love," by Michetti, from Italy; "The Bookstall," by Baron Leys, and "You Are Welcome," by Jan van Beers, from Belgium; "A Country Festival" and "The Potato Harvest," by Knaus, and "A Sewing Bee in Holland," by Von Uhde, from Germany; "Canal in Holland," by Jacques Maris, "The Flock," by Mauve, and "A Frugal Meal," by Israels, from the Dutch school; and "Interior of a Brewery," by Zorn, from Sweden. About all that needs to be noted concerning these works is that "A Country Festival" is one of Knaus's best pictures, that "Shepherd and Flock—Dedham Church in the Distance" is a small but very good Constable, that the Israels shows that this painter is or has been capable of painting a good picture sometimes, and that "A Sewing Bee in Holland" is one of Uhde's most pleasing and excellent canvases. "You Are Welcome" is a picture by Van Beers that should not have been included in the collection, and a large picture by Harry Thompson, an English artist who has long lived in France and has no affiliation with the British school, "The Shepherdess," scarcely deserves the considerable space it occupies. There are two great masterpieces in the collection: Millet's "Peasant Leaning on His Hoe," and Manet's "Dead Toreador." Corot's "Orpheus" is one of his most celebrated works, but it is not one of his very best, like the "Biblis," which was recently brought to the United States but could not, unfortunately, be secured for this exhibition; and, with the "Orpheus" and eleven other works, none of them very good, except a small landscape (No. 2889), there is quantity rather than quality in the group that represents him. In the case of Millet almost no other picture than the "Peasant Leaning on his Hoe," save "The Gleaners," which is now in the Louvre, would serve so well to show what a great artist he was; and "The Pig Killers," the "Shepherdess," and five other pictures here are all worthy. Manet's "Dead Toreador" is unique. It is unlike anything else he ever painted—better, possibly, than any other picture, unless "The Boy with the Sword," in the Metropolitan Museum, the "Olympe," in the Luxembourg, or "The Little Fifer" may be compared to it, and none of these possesses such distinction of color, such depth of tone and nobility of aspect as the "Toreador." "The Cooper's Shop" is a fine Daubigny, and "The Banks of the Oise" a small landscape that was one of the best of his works in the Barye Exhibition in New York in 1889, is here. There are several landscapes by Monet that are fairly good if not of his best, and good examples of Troyon, Jules Breton, Cazin, Degas, Renoir, and Puvis de Chavannes. Two small pictures by Dagnan-Bouveret, and "Revery" and "The Thames," by Bastien-Lepage, though unimportant, are of excellent quality. Rousseau, Decamps, Diaz, Delacroix, and Fromentin are indifferently represented, and the single Courbet in the collection, "Dogs and Hare," is an inferior work. But, in spite of its shortcomings, the Loan Collection makes an interesting exhibition, and credit is due to those who organized it. It is no easy matter to borrow valuable pictures for world's fairs.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

## DEMOCRACY IN MINIATURE.

SWITZERLAND, July, 1893.

THOSE who visit Switzerland not merely for health and change of scene, but to study its political and social systems, will find in the smaller and more primitive cantons an interesting field for their inquiries. Most writers on Switzerland treat of it as one country, subject to the same laws throughout, with the same political and social organization and customs. Travellers thoroughly familiar with the general features of the country overlook the fact that the Swiss Confederacy is an agglomeration of sovereign democratic republics, consisting of nineteen entire and six half-cantons, whose individual independence and sovereignty have been curtailed only to the extent of such sovereign rights and exclusive competence as they have themselves transferred to the hands of the Confederation "to insure the independence of the country, and to increase the common prosperity."

The Canton of Glarus in northeast Switzerland, with an area of less than 200,000 acres and a population of 34,000 souls, is one of the best organized of the smaller Swiss States. In it pedestrians and mountaineers will find, within a small district, as many beautiful walks and difficult ascents as can be found in any similar area in Switzerland. Although none of the mountain peaks exceeds 12,000 feet in height, the greater part of the country is extremely rugged, the valleys are walled with precipitous cliffs, and a large part of the Canton consists of high pastures, rocks, snow, and glaciers. The lowland consists of two narrow valleys in the form of the letter Y, whose streams deliver themselves into the Wallensee and thence into the Lake of Zurich; the mountains overhanging these valleys both appear to be and are in a state of unstable equilibrium. The word "landslip" hardly conveys an idea of the catastrophes that have occurred over and over again: the mountains themselves have fallen down, and so recently as 1881 114 persons were killed by the fall of a mountain mass overhanging the village of Ehn. The beds of the two main valleys are filled with a string of busy villages, the chief buildings in which are cotton-spinning, weaving, and printing-factories, in which about 8,500 persons find employment. The factory hands, as in other parts of Switzerland, are usually small freeholders enjoying a right to fuel and pasture on the communal lands, and this mixture of agricultural and industrial pursuits tends not only to material prosperity, but to personal independence and intelligence.

The supreme legislative authority is the Landesgemeinde, or entire body of electors. Every male citizen over eighteen years enjoys the franchise, and may propose laws or decrees at the meetings of the Landesgemeinde, which are held in the open air at the town of Glarus. The total number of electors is 8,200, a somewhat cumbrous parliament if all members attended. Though any elector may bring forward proposals for laws, and discuss bills submitted for approval, in practice laws and decrees are usually prepared by the Cantonal Council of 117 members, representing the different communes or villages. An Executive Council of nine attends to the current business of government. All officials hold office for three years only. They are appointed and may be reëlected by the Landesgemeinde, by whom nearly all appointments are made, or must be confirmed. There are five courts of justice—(1) the Supreme Court of Appeal; (2) a civil-bill court; (3) a court dealing with local affairs, boundaries of property, etc., which often holds its sittings in the open air on the spot involved in the cause; (4) a matrimonial court; (5) a criminal court.

Taxation, levied on the capital value of real and personal property, is graduated, a certain amount being exempted, and the percentage of the tax increasing with the value of the estate. Household furniture and trade implements to the value of $600 are exempt from taxation. Estates under $5,000 value are taxed on only 60 per cent. of the value. Estates between $20,000 and $800,000 value are divided into twenty classes, on which the percentage of tax increases from 4 up to 10 per cent.; the same principle is applied to legacy and succession duties. The taxed value of real estate in the Canton is about $26,000,000; the ordinary revenue amounts to $170,000, or about $5 per head of population, and half of this is derived from taxation of real estate. According to the latest returns about $75,000 a year is spent on education, chiefly on primary schools, in which there were, in 1892, 5,690 scholars under 88 teachers. The cost of each pupil in the primary schools was $10.5, and the expense to taxpayers $1.5 per inhabitant. Almost everything in Switzerland seems to be insured against calamity and loss, but the amount paid per head for insurance in Glarus, $2.5, is considerably in excess of the average for all Switzerland. Fire insurance is compulsory, and is really a tax levied by the Canton on all buildings and goods liable to destruction by fire. In addition there are arrangements and ample facilities for insurance of life both of men and cattle, against storm, hail, accidents, cattle plague, and loss of goods in carriage.

Four-fifths of the Glarnerfolk are Protestants, the remaining fifth is Catholic, but religious toleration exists to the fullest extent. This has been the practice and tradition of the Canton since 1550, when, after years of bitter animosities and quarrels, the influence of Valentin Tschudi, one of the leading ecclesiastics, prevailed to secure peace and toleration. History relates that during the latter part of his life he ministered to both sects, serving mass to the Catholics and preaching to the Protestants. History is confirmed by the existence to-day of the handsome and spacious church at Glarus, founded by him, though since rebuilt, which is used by both Catholics and Protestants. The altar, the lights, the crucifix, the pictures of Virgin and Saints give this "Simultankirche" the appearance of a Catholic church, yet the majority of those who use it are Protestants. As a non-Catholic, used to the intolerant and narrow-minded bigotry of my fellow-countrymen in England and Ireland, I felt more surprised that Protestants should conduct their services in the presence of Catholic emblems than that Catholics should use a building partly appropriated to Protestant worship. Up to last year, Irish national schools in purely Catholic districts were deprived of the grants given to all other schools if teachers belonging to the Catholic religious orders kept any of their religious emblems displayed on the walls.

The cantonal boundary between Glarus and the adjoining Canton of Uri is a hurdle fence in the middle of a wide mountain valley, and

a touching story is told as to how it came to be fixed there instead of at some natural boundary. There had been many disputes as to the occupation of this valley, which lies on the Glarus side of the range; to end the controversy it was agreed that at cockcrow one man should start from Altdorf in Uri and another from Glarus, and that where the runners met the boundary should be fixed. The Glarus cock was overfed, and crowed late, so the runner from Altdorf got a long start (the distance is about 20 miles over a range 8,000 feet high). He had passed the valley in dispute and had arrived at the last steep descent when he met the rival runner. The Glarus man, overwhelmed with shame at his Canton's loss, begged the other to give him back as much ground as he could cover carrying him on his shoulders; the Altdorfer, having won far more ground than he expected, agreed. The Glarus man, with his rival on his back, climbed the steep ascent, traversed half the valley, and then fell dead where the fence now stands, having won a barren pasture for his Canton at the cost of his life.

When the French in 1798 occupied Switzerland, the Cantons of Glarus, Uri, and Schwyz, with a population of less than 100,000, attempted to maintain their independence and refused to join the Helvetic Confederation. Their resistance was quickly overcome, but not until they had put every man in Glarus between fifteen and fifty-five under arms, and their army had been defeated at Wollerau. It seems almost impossible that this remote and rugged country should have been the battlefield of great armies, but in the following year the Russian General Suvaroff marched through the Canton with an army of 25,000 men, closely pursued by the French. He escaped into the Rhine Valley over the difficult Panixer Pass, but lost a large part of his army from exposure and hardship on the mountains. After the brief subjection of Switzerland to French influence, Glarus regained its position as a sovereign State. The Glarus cock now crows earlier than that of Uri, and in all that constitutes modern civilization it is far ahead of the adjoining forest Cantons. M. O. B.

## THE CONSTITUTIONAL STRUGGLE IN NORWAY.

CHRISTIANIA, August 1, 1893.

NORWAY as a modern State dates only from 1814. As a province of Denmark she had lost her individuality and played no rôle in European politics. Her summary cession to Sweden by the Treaty of Kiel (January 4, 1814), however, fanned into life again the merely dormant spirit of nationality, and the resolve that was then taken by the Norwegians not to acknowledge the Treaty of Kiel and the transfer of the Norwegian crown, but to consider themselves by its surrender by the Danish King rehabilitated in their original right as a nation, was self-reliant and determined. The succeeding historical events of 1814 are well known. A national convention met at Eidsvold that same year, framed a Constitution, and elected Prince Christian Frederik, the Danish Viceroy of Norway, King. Sweden, on her part, however, did not propose so easily to relinquish her claims, and Bernadotte, the Swedish Crown Prince, speedily asserted them by force of arms. The result was that Christian abdicated his Crown to the Storthing, which had been assembled, by agreement with Sweden, under the so-called Treaty of Moss (August 14), when Bernadotte, as the King's representative, promised that "Norway should retain the Eidsvold Constitution in everything that did not conflict with the union with Sweden," and that "Norway herself should participate with her free consent in negotiations with Sweden concerning the further conditions of the Union." The Storthing, thereupon, after a prolonged conference with the Swedish Commissioners, agreed to a somewhat modified form of the Eidsvold Constitution, and on the 4th of November elected Charles XIII. of Sweden King of Norway.

The Constitution is a compact between the Storthing and the King, as is expressly affirmed at the end of the instrument itself. The conditions of the union are as follows: According to the first article, "The kingdom of Norway shall be a free, independent, indivisible, and inalienable State, united with Sweden under one king." Each kingdom, however, has its own laws. The supplementary Act of Union (*Rigs Akt*) of 1815 uses the phrase, "Under one king, but with different administrative laws." In the Government of Norway, accordingly, the executive authority belongs to the King. It is his right, furthermore, "to declare war and conclude peace, to enter into and dissolve treaties, to despatch and receive ambassadors." He has the appointment, besides, of all officials, civil, ecclesiastical, and military, but in such appointments must take the opinion of his Norwegian Council. The responsibility of the King rests with a Council, appointed by him, composed of two Ministers of State and at least seven other members. One Cabinet Minister and two Privy Councillors are with the King in Sweden, the others, the actual Norwegian Government, are in Christiania. Affairs of State concerning Norway must be submitted in Sweden to a joint Cabinet, made up of the Swedish Council and the members of the Norwegian Council appointed to be with the King. The legislative authority is the prerogative of the Storthing, composed of the elected representatives of the people. To the Storthing belongs the right, according to the Constitution, of legislation and taxation, contracting loans, controlling the finances, making appropriations, fixing the civil list and appanage of the King, inspecting State papers as well as conventions and treaties with foreign Powers, and revising the pension list and the budget.

It will be readily seen from the foregoing that the union with Sweden is a personal union. Sweden and Norway, to be sure, are united under one king, but each has its own government independent of the other; and the mutual attitude of the two States, so far at least as internal affairs are concerned, is that of two coordinated nations with complete freedom of action, each governed by its own laws and controlled by its own interests. There are, nevertheless, under the Union certain joint conditions that are not to be lost sight of. As at present constituted, the actual details are as follows: Both kingdoms have a common Minister for Foreign Affairs who is a Swede, amenable only to the Swedish States Council (Rigsdag). There are besides a common diplomatic and consular service, the diplomatic amenable only to Sweden. Norway, at the present time, pays toward the support of this service five-seventeenths of the whole. The consuls (since 1836) are created in the joint Cabinet, consisting of the Swedish Cabinet and the Norwegian members with the King in Stockholm, as already described. Toward the support of this service Norway contributes three-sevenths of the whole. As an offset to the joint Cabinet in Sweden, be it mentioned, if a joint Cabinet is held in Christiania, its personnel is the whole Norwegian Cabinet with three members of the Swedish Cabinet. Peace and war, furthermore, are in common. The King is commander in-chief of the army and navy, but he is at well-nigh all points amenable to the Storthing. An attack upon either kingdom is to be regarded as an attack upon both. For common purposes of defence outside of Norway but a little over 15,000 men—troops, according to the terms of the Constitution, belonging to the "line"—are available; in point of fact the number would be much less. The Norwegian war marine is at the disposal of the common service. Lastly, the two kingdoms have a common State religion, the Lutheran, of which the King is the head.

That an equality of the two kingdoms was intended at the outset is apparent from the utterance of the King, Charles XIII., before the Swedish States Council in the discussion pending the promulgation of the Act of Union, where he says that it is the intention to establish between them "a complete equality as regards the nation's common rights," and is unmistakably acknowledged by the act itself. But Sweden has never been willing to concede perfect equality to Norway within the Union, either in theory or in practice, and in all but a few cases has persistently maintained existing conditions until fairly forced to relinquish them. Down to 1886, when an available record ends, there had been from the beginning no less than 279 resolutions before the Storthing, some of them, of course, emanating from the King, to amend the Constitution; only fourteen, however, of the number were carried through.

One struggle arose early in the history of the Union and has been bitterly fought, respecting the King's right of veto. According to the Constitution, the King has a suspensive veto, only, upon projects of law; if a bill is passed unchanged by three successive Storthings, it becomes law without the royal sanction. The old orders of nobility were abolished in this way by the Storthing in 1821. The matter of a change of suspensive veto into absolute veto was made a direct issue first in 1824, when it was rejected by the Storthing, and again in 1836, when it was laid upon the table without action. In regard to changes of the Constitution, in which matter there is no express provision, the King has claimed an absolute veto. This the Storthing has strenuously denied. The question has come up several times—first, between 1824 and 1833, in connection with the proposed abolition of the Governor-General's office, and again, from 1872 to 1884, in the bitter fight that was waged between the King and the Storthing in regard to the attendance of members of the Cabinet upon its proceedings. The matter, however, has never been decided, although the Storthing, in the last phase of the subject, still asserted its right to change the Constitution without the sanction of the Crown.

A second constitutional struggle grew out of the attempt on the part of the Storthing to abolish the office of Governor-General, who, according to provision, could be either a Norwegian or a Swede. The matter came up as early as 1818. After 1829 no Swede held the office. In 1859, the Storthing voted to abolish the office, but the King vetoed the measure and obstinately held to his point. The resolution was again adopted by the Storthing in 1873, the year after the accession of the present King, and was finally sanctioned.

Of all the contests between King and Legislature, perhaps the most acrimonious, certainly the most persistent, was that in regard to the compulsory participation of the members of

the Cabinet in the proceedings of the Storthing. The Constitution had not expressly determined the matter, but had evidently not intended it. The new resolution simply cleared the way for making the Ministry controllable by the Legislature, and was by far the most radical change in the Constitution that had yet been attempted on the part of the Norwegians. The proposition was adopted by the Storthings of 1872, 1874, and 1877, but was successively vetoed by the King. In 1880 it was again adopted. The matter, in the meantime, had evoked the most bitter hostility between the Radicals and the Conservatives in the Storthing, and by extension throughout the country, which seemed on the brink of civil war. The feeling against the Crown rose so high that threats were openly made by the Radical party of absolute separation from Sweden. At the new election, in 1882, the Radicals obtained a large majority, and upon the assemblage of the Storthing, the following year, the prosecution was ordered of the Conservative Cabinet, which had insisted, against the Radicals, that the resolution, not having obtained the royal sanction, was not law. In the trial before the Rigsret which followed, Selmer, the Minister, with seven other members of the Cabinet, were adjudged to have forfeited their eligibility and were accordingly expelled from office; three others were dismissed with a fine. The matter was not settled until the succeeding year, when a compromise was finally agreed upon, adopted by the Storthing and sanctioned by the King, who had ultimately conceded almost every point.

The latest phase of this never-ending conflict is in regard to the joint relation of Sweden and Norway in international affairs, and again threats are heard of separation, and excitement throughout the country has run almost as high as during the period just described. This time, too, a definite constitutional provision, so far, at least, as the Minister for Foreign Affairs and the diplomatic service are concerned, has been openly attacked, but not, as before, with a covert intention. In foreign affairs the first question that came up for adjustment was in relation to the flag. The matter was called up as early as 1831. In 1836 the complaint was made by the ever-watchful Storthing that Norwegian vessels were obliged to hoist the Swedish ensign in foreign ports, where such vessels were also entered as Swedish. The matter was finally disposed of in 1838, when it was decided that Norway should use her own merchant flag everywhere. A Norwegian "Union flag" in the national colors, but with the Union mark in the right upper corner, was made the war flag in 1844. The radicals at the present time are, however, dissatisfied with this disposition of the matter, and in the Storthing just ended the removal of the Union sign was made the subject of action. Connected with the matter of the flag was the stipulated discontinuance of the use in combination, on Swedish coins and seals, of the Norwegian escutcheon, and the decision that in all documents specifically Norwegian, Norway should precede Sweden in titular phrases. The jealous use on the coinage and elsewhere on the part of Norway of "Norwegian and Swedish," as opposed to the forced punctiliousness in Sweden alone of "Swedish and Norwegian," has its amusing side. Oscar II., in this way, is in Norwegian phraseology "King of Norway and Sweden," in Swedish "King of Sweden and Norway."

The question of the flag in its main features was easily disposed of, but the common consular and diplomatic service with the single (Swedish) Minister for Foreign Affairs remains still the great thorn in the side of Norway. In regard to the diplomatic service several courses have been proposed: the conservative and logical one of allowing the eligibility of a Norwegian as well as a Swede to the Ministry and of constituting a council of three Norwegian and three Swedish members which shall have jurisdiction in affairs concerning both kingdoms, or the extremist one of cutting loose from Sweden in diplomatic affairs altogether, and making two ministers and two diplomatic corps. The consular service as at present constituted dates from 1858. According to its provisions, cases concerning both kingdoms fall under the jurisdiction of the Minister for Foreign Affairs. Norway, accordingly, though she pays for the support of the service, as has already been stated, a due proportion, has no control over its conduct, although the consuls-general, the consuls, and the salaried vice-consuls are appointed in the joint council. It is, perhaps, no wonder that Norway, with the third largest merchant marine in the world (three times larger than that of Sweden), should be restive under an arrangement which does not give her the equality in the Confederation to which she is by fact entitled. What she might demand, and what would be conceded, under certain circumstances, by Sweden, is a more carefully coordinated system, in whose administration she should have due representation. I cannot find, in looking over the diplomatic history of the Union, with the exception of a single possible case, that there is anything to be found fault with in the management of foreign affairs, or that any such fault has been found. One great objection, I suspect, in the whole present arrangement is that red rag to the Norwegian radical, the use in diplomatic correspondence of "the Kingdoms of Sweden and Norway," and the presence even in the Norwegian State-Calendar of "Swedish and Norwegian" applied to diplomats and consuls. Be this as it may, the Storthing just ended, which witnessed on the 22d of April, on this very question, the resignation of the Steen Radical ministry, and the rehabilitation on the 2d of May of a Conservative ministry under Stang, after cutting down the appanage of the King and Crown Prince to show its good will, has "cast the die," as a Swedish journal puts it, and decided by a bare majority of 56 to 55 that the common consular service shall cease on the 1st of January, 1895. This vote does not, of course, represent the whole Liberal strength in the Storthing. Of the total number of 114 members, three were absent; six members of the Left voted with the Right.

In the country at large, the actual voters of the two political parties (the few "moderates" being reckoned in with the Right), were at the last election, in 1891, very evenly divided. The country districts, with a total population of one and a half millions of people, polled at that time for the electors of their quota of 76 members of the Storthing as follows: Right 35,800, Left 40,300 votes. The town districts, with a population of but half a million, polled for their 38 members: Right 14,282, Left 11,504. The total is, accordingly, for the Right 50,082, for the Left 51,804 actual voters. It will be seen from the foregoing, furthermore, that the country has not only a preponderance of members, two to one, over the towns, but that it is Liberal and the towns Conservative—in other words, that the peasant vote is at the present time dominant in Norwegian politics. The country in Norway is the great source of radicalism and of separation as well. The towns, with their wider commercial interests and broader political education, see more clearly the advantages of the Union and the dangers that would arise from its dissolution.

There is but little immediate danger of such a violent outcome. Norway, with a standing army of perhaps a thousand men and a militia incapable of speedy mobilization, without a single first-class man-of-war or a single modern fortification, is not going to rush blindly into a conflict that could have for her but one ultimate result, the loss of her autonomy altogether. There is no strong party in the State that desires a dissolution of the Union, and no strong voice that advocates it. Björnson, who, pending the election of 1882, in his speech at Stiklestad, openly advised disruption, has avowedly taken a far more moderate position, and, from his present place of residence in Denmark, watches the conflict without any active participation in it whatsoever. Ullmann, once schoolmaster and now president of the Storthing (ex-pedagogue and present demagogue), whose voice at least is loudest, has, since the end of the session on the 22d of last month, gone off to America—it is said, to make propaganda among the Norsemen in the West for the further prosecution of the Radical programme. In the meantime, Norway's interests are still where they are safest, under the Union where she has had eighty years of peaceful development. That the country has been prosperous under the Confederation no one can deny. Her shipping interests have increased almost beyond precedent, industrial conditions have improved, the educational system has been vastly extended, and the burdens of State, thanks to a most careful administration, are incredibly small. That this is entirely the result of the Union is not alleged, but in good part it unquestionably is. By virtue of this very progress and increased importance, Norway should, undoubtedly, in many respects occupy a more equal place with Sweden within the Union than is now accorded her. The logical direction of Norwegian politics is neither towards subordination, which nobody in Norway suggests, nor towards separation, which is proposed only by a hot-headed few. For protection and defence, if nothing more, there must be, as there is, a Scandinavian Union, a single State in which, without the loss of self-respect, each member can still maintain, if it chooses, its own national identity and live its own individual life. W. H. C.

# Correspondence.

## WOMEN GRADUATES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of last week, just received here, you mention as an interesting educational "straw" the large number of women who received fellowships at the close of the first year of Chicago University, and named over the colleges and universities of which these women were graduates. By some oversight, the mention of the University of California as the Alma Mater of two of these fellows was omitted, though one of them was mentioned as a Ph.M. of Chicago University. Miss Alice Pratt, who takes a special travelling fellowship in literature and a Ph.M. degree this year from Chicago University, and Miss Sarah Hardy, who is about to enter Chicago University with a fellowship in the department of history and economics, both re-

ceived the Ph.B. degree from California, with exceptionally high rank.

This correction, of course, increases still further the high proportion of women from coeducational institutions among the winners, to which you call attention.

Yours sincerely, J. B. REINSTEIN,
President Alumni Association U. C.

SAN FRANCISCO, August 17, 1893.

## HARVARDIANA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a notice of Dr. Hale's 'A New England Boyhood' in a late *Nation* I notice one or two slight inaccuracies which I venture to point out.

The classmate of Mr. Hale was the grandson, not the son, of the founder of the house in Bowdoin Square, an Englishman from Derby. It was converted, somewhere in the forties, into the Revere House by the addition of two stories and by building over the garden on one side and the stables on the other. Your historian has skipped a generation, Kirk Boott second deserving a place in his annals, having been one of the founders of Lowell, in association with John Lowell and Patrick T. Jackson. His father obtained for him a commission in Wellington's army, and he served in the Peninsula until the breaking out of the war of 1812, when he returned to Boston. The town of Lowell was set off from Chelmsford about 1822.

The comparison between Prof. Webster's lectures and Emerson's, and the popularity assumed for the former, have a humorous sound to the survivors of those days. Webster's lectures on chemistry were thought of so little importance that few students took them seriously. Emerson was not connected with the college as a lecturer, but read his essays in Boston, where some of the students went to hear him; but few crossed Cambridge bridge for this purpose with the enthusiasm that J. R. Lowell felt, according to his reminiscences. The most popular lectures of the time at Harvard were those of Prof. Farrar on Natural Philosophy.

While on Harvard topics I may be allowed to ask the author of an interesting article in the last *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, called "Undergraduate Life Sixty Years Ago," if there is not an omission in his account of the exercises at President Quincy's inauguration in 1829. He makes no mention of an English oration by Mr. William Newell, afterwards pastor for some years of the First Church in Cambridge. I was present, and remember not only the fact, but also a passage which produced a certain effect on the audience and has clung to my memory ever since. Turning to the new President, the orator apostrophized him in the words of *Hamlet:* "Be thou pure as snow, thou shalt not escape calumny." This was with reference to Mr. Quincy's predecessor, the "well-beloved Kirkland," who, it was thought, had been unfairly treated. I am open to correction, or, rather, I should be. But, as old men are more apt to forget than to remember, I can't help thinking my positive evidence better than any amount of negative testimony.

One thing more. Is not the editor of a Harvard magazine hurting the reputation of the University by allowing such divisions of words into syllables as *physiol-ogy, sys-tem, promising, pres-ent, reg-ister, rep-resent?*

H. U., '31.

[Usage in the division of words is, we think, far too unsettled and confused to warrant any censure of the University for the system adopted in the *Magazine*, even were that an official publication and printed at a University press.—ED. NATION.]

## THE MOST PICTURESQUE PLACE IN THE WORLD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly allow us space to express the pleasure and regret caused us by the letters, published in the *Nation* and elsewhere, referring to our article in the July *Century*?—pleasure, because we are generous enough to be glad that, after all, "The Most Picturesque Place in the World" is known to a few besides ourselves; regret, that the American, despite his reputation for humor, must take even us in our lightest moments so seriously, and that, in his eagerness to rush into print, he does not weigh his words more carefully. Our "Most Picturesque Place" may be Le Puy, but Le Puy is not in the Auvergne, while, for the fame of that town of many charms, it would be better could "its colossal bronze statue of the Virgin" be forgotten.—We are, yours truly,

J. and E. R. PENNELL.

LAON, August 18, 1893.

## "SLANG."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For *slang*, substantive or attributive, in all the shades of sense, one excepted, which have attached to it, the subjoined quotations will, with reference to my immediate purpose, be deemed sufficient:

"Foote. Have you not seen the bills?
"Harry Scamper. What, about the lectures? Ay; but that's all *slang*, I suppose. No, no." Foote, *The Orators* (1762), Act I.

"The personages have, mostly, the manners and language of elegant middle life, removed alike from the rant of tragedy or the *slang* of farce." William Taylor, of Norwich, in the *Monthly Review*, vol. xx., p. 543 (1796).

"'To cut an acquaintance' is not quite unexceptionable; because it is not perfectly common or intelligible, and has hardly yet escaped out of the limits of *slang* phraseology." William Hazlitt, *Table-talk, On Familiar Style* (1822).

"I met, not long since, with a speech by a leading member of the Scotch General Assembly, declaring his 'conviction that the truths of Christianity could not be received by men in so rude a state as the East Indians, and that it was necessary to give them first a relish for the habits and comforts of civilized life, before they could embrace the truths of the Gospel.' The same *slang* (for it is nothing more) I have seen repeated in divers pamphlets, and even heard it in conversations at Calcutta." Bishop Heber, *Letter* (March, 1824), in *Narrative of a Journey*, etc. (ed. 1828), vol. iii., p. 350.

These quotations are from among those I have got together; and the kindness of Dr. Murray enables me to speak of others, all of them dating earlier than 1840, in which, precisely as at present, *slang* is used by Miss Maria Edgeworth (1813), Dr. Henry Mackenzie (1822), Miss Mary R. Mitford (1824), Sir Robert Peel (1828), and Henry Hallam (1838–39).

Grose, in his *Classical Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue*, which appeared in 1785, knows the substantive *slang* only as signifying "a fetter." Under the verb *slang* he has: "To defraud a person of any part of his due is called *slanging* him; also, to cheat by false weights or measures, or other unfair means."

In a work, often cited, bearing the date of 1758, where, so far as has been pointed out, we first meet with *slang*, namely, in "the Slang patter," the expression denotes the special dialect of thieves. But no evidence has been produced that it was ever so restricted in popular acceptation. As the thief has his *slang*, so the turfite, the bruiser, the costermonger, the college-don, and even the Archbishop of Canterbury, may have his. Broadly, diction by which one is disagreeably reminded of a particular occupation, class, or sect, is *slang*. Being dictated, if not by a desire of mystification, by vulgarity of taste or by a contracted cast of mind, *slang* is one with both the *flash* and, for the most part, the multivocal *cant* of former days.

Very misleading, therefore, is the annexed definition, that of the Rev. Dr. Henry Christmas, given in his supplement to a well-known work by Samuel Pegge:

"*Slang* is a language of itself; it consists of bad English, as a basis, mixed with Romanee or gipsy words, and others of arbitrary invention; it is not figurative, save in very few instances, and conveys no ideas at all to the mind of him who has not a thieves' lexicon to refer to. . . . *Slang*, in a word, is a dialect used by persons engaged in criminal pursuits; and its object is concealment." *Anecdotes of the English Language* (ed. 1844), p. 292.

Prof. Brander Matthews, in the latest number of *Harper's New Monthly Magazine*, writes as follows:

"*Slang* was, at first, the *cant* of thieves; and this seems to have been its only meaning until well into the present century. In *Redgauntlet*, for example, published in 1824, Scott speaks of 'the thieves' Latin called *slang*.' Some time during the middle of the century, *slang* lost this narrow limitation, and came to signify a word or a phrase used with a meaning not recognized in polite letters, either because it had just been invented or because it had passed out of memory."

Little of this challenges acceptance. Literature should have instructed Sir Walter Scott that there was many another *slang* than "thieves' Latin." Was Washington Irving, in 1807 or 1808, thinking of the jargon of thieves when he ventured *slangwhanger*, whence the *slangwhangery* of writers in the *Saturday Review* and elsewhere? As to what is asserted to have taken place at that curiously chronological period, "some time *during* the middle of the century," it has been refuted above. For the rest, when and where has the epithet *slang* been applied either to a neoterism or to an archaism, simply as such?

"The amateur philologist" Prof. Matthews refers to as a sort of sciolist not in esteem with him. He might have added that dry facts elicted by plodding research are greatly preferable, as ground for speculation, to the conjectures and intuitions, whether masked or explicit, of linguistic autocracy. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, July 30, 1893.

P. S. The verb *predicate*, lately shown to have been misused by Mr. Lowell, is matched, I find, by his misuse, in 1861, of *predicable:*

"The non-slaveholding States . . . pay far more than the proportion, *predicable* on mere preponderence in numbers, of the expenses of a government supported mainly by a tariff on importations." *Political Essays* (1888), p. 60.

Regarding *predicate*, for *predict*, I also inquired: "Has it yet crossed the Atlantic?" The question can now be answered:

"The presence of qualities from which success could then have been *predicated*." Mr. John Bigelow, *William Cullen Bryant* (1890), p. 71.

## DEFECTS OF PATENT BALLOT-BOXES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Australian ballot system is so far sustained in theory; but with experience in

the few States where patent ballot boxes have been used, there have come into prominence certain defects which relate only to the practical working of the theory. The liability to get out of working order which has beset the boxes in question has been due in a measure to a departure from the mechanical principle of simplicity. The registering apparatus has, in some cases, failed to count accurately because of needless complexity. Too many parts, that is, have been introduced where fewer were practicable. In these boxes, too, the liability to the gumming of oil, the corrosion of metal, the warping, shrinking, or swelling of wood, have had their play in those disturbances of the register which have perplexed and provoked the counting officials, sometimes to the excess of downright condemnation of boxes and system together.

The box, as known thus far, is a piece of machinery too delicate for handling under the conditions of city or town management. It is in hands that do not understand mechanism. When not in use, it is, until needed again, laid away in some room or closet, and when called for is brought out by the janitor, and, without adequate examination, is set up and expected to go. Meanwhile, however, the gumming, corrosion, warping, shrinking, and swelling have had play, and it will not go. Breakage, too, has been the frequent consequence of the rough handling. Against these accidents ingenuity should be exercised in the devising of a box that may be thrown up on any heap of rubbish about the hall and yet be ready for use next time. If no American mechanic can devise such a machine for the retention of the Australian system, it is suggested that darkest Africa might furnish an inventor.

Another provoking difficulty at the polls is the premature filling of the box with ballots. A filled-up box after the casting of only 300 ballots at a polling precinct where 1,000 votes are to be cast, is something too much for the serenity of the officials. The law provides for the opening of the box and the removing of the ballots, during the voting, in large towns, but there is no such provision made for the voting precincts of the cities. In the cities, then, the provocation is great, while in towns the frequent opening of the box to crowd down the ballots is undesired by the honest official, and affords his opportunity to tamper to the dishonest one. One cause may be that the box is not large enough; but, too, it may be large enough to hold 1,000 ballots and yet be filled with 300. The fault lies with the rollers that are used in all the known boxes for drawing in the ballot. The rollers seize the ballot by its end and deposit the ballot without laying it flat. The layers, instead of being uniform, lie in the box in all irregular ways. An improvement on this method ought to be within reach.

These imperfections in the boxes have suggested a resort to devices for voting without ballots, but so far the latter have been of a kind against which no strictures can be too severe; for by them the voter, however well instructed, cannot have the testimony of his eyesight, or other sense, to inform him beyond question that he has voted. Among these voting-machines are included devices with push-buttons to operate a concealed register, and also machines by which the voter marks with a lead pencil or other instrument, through a slot or a series of slots. After all that can be said in favor of these machines, returned and spoiled ballots show the one insurmountable objection remaining, that if a voter makes a mistake, he cannot set it right; he is deprived of his franchise.

No device can probably take the place of a ballot-box, acting perfectly, and a stamp in the hand of the voter to take the place of the lead pencil. The latter is objectionable because the counting official uses one also. If he is disposed to be fraudulent, he can, with the pencil, tamper with the vote, whereas the stamp could be put in the voter's hand and be forbidden to the counter. W. W. Tufts.

Arlington, Mass., August 15, 1893.

# Notes.

Macmillan & Co., for whom 1893 is a jubilee year, as their first imprints bear date 1843, and who are about to remove their establishment in this city from Fourth to Fifth Avenue, show a long list of works by American authors among their forthcoming autumn publications. We cite 'A Theory of Development and Heredity,' by Prof. Henry B. Orr of Tulane University; 'The Distribution of Wealth,' by Prof. John R. Commons of the University of Indiana; 'Genetic Philosophy,' by David J. Hill, President of the University of Rochester; 'Notes on Electromagnets and the Construction of Dynamos,' by Prof. Dugald C. Jackson of the University of Wisconsin; a 'History of Mathematics,' by Prof. Florian Cajori of Colorado College; 'The Resistance of Ships and Screw Propulsion,' by D. W. Taylor of the United State Navy-yard at Mare Island; a novel, 'Marion Darche,' by F. Marion Crawford; an illustrated edition of William Winter's 'Shakspere's England'; and 'Bay Leaves,' a collection, by Prof. Goldwin Smith, of translations from the Latin poets.

Henry Holt & Co. announce for early publication a 'Brief German Reader,' by Prof. W. D. Whitney; 'German Literature in its Chief Epochs,' by Prof. Kuno Francke; 'Deutsche Gedichte,' a collection of the very best German ballads and lyrics, edited by Dr. Camillo von Klenze of the University of Chicago; 'Histoire de la Littérature Française, by Prof. Alcée Fortier; 'Seventeenth Century French Letters,' edited by Prof. Edward L. Walter of the University of Michigan; 'Episodes from Victor Hugo's Novels,' with some of his shorter poems, edited by Prof. F. M. Warren of Adelbert College; 'Prose Extracts from Coleridge,' edited by Prof. H. A. Beers of Yale; 'Specimens of Argumentation,' classical and modern, edited in two volumes by George P. Baker; and 'First Courses in Science,' by Prof. John F. Woodhull.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s fall announcements embrace 'Massachusetts: Its Historians and its History,' by Charles Francis Adams; 'The Life and Writings of Jared Sparks,' with selections from his journals and correspondence, by Prof. Herbert B. Adams, a limited edition in two volumes; 'The Bench and the Bar of New Hampshire,' by ex-Gov. Charles H. Bell; 'The Old Colony Town, and Other Sketches,' by William Root Bliss; 'An Old Town by the Sea,' by Thomas Bailey Aldrich; 'Letters of Asa Gray,' edited by Jane Loring Gray, with portraits; 'The Poems of Thomas William Parsons,' and his metrical translation of 'The Divine Comedy of Dante,' which will be accompanied by a memorial sketch by Miss Louise Imogen Guiney, and an introduction by Prof. Norton; 'A Poet's Portfolio; Later Readings,' by W. W. Story; 'In Sunshine Land,' poems for young folks, by Edith M. Thomas; 'Sam Houston and the War of Independence in Texas,' by Alfred M. Williams; 'The Natural History of Intellect, and Other Papers,' by Ralph Waldo Emerson, some never included in any collection of his writings and some inedited, together with an index to all his works (in the Riverside and the large-paper editions); a new Riverside edition in ten volumes of the Works of Henry D. Thoreau; holiday editions of Holmes's 'Autocrat,' Longfellow's 'Hanging of the Crane,' Mrs. Deland's 'Old Garden,' and Miss Jewett's 'Deephaven'; 'Familiar Letters of Sir Walter Scott,' edited in two volumes by David Douglas; 'Greek Lines, and Other Architectural Essays,' by Henry Van Brunt; 'The Growth and Influence of Classical Greek Poetry,' by Prof. Jebb; 'Essays in Idleness,' by Agnes Repplier; 'Sub-Cœlum: A Sky-Built Human World,' by A. P. Russell; 'Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan,' by Lafcadio Hearn; 'A Japanese Interior,' by Miss Alice M. Bacon; 'The Amateur Photographer,' by Alexander Black; 'The Witness to Immortality, in Literature, Philosophy, and Life,' by the Rev. Geo. A. Gordon; 'A Sketch of the History of the Apostolic Church,' by Prof. Oliver J. Thatcher of the University of Chicago; 'His Vanished Star,' by Charles Egbert Craddock; and 'Rachel Stanwood: A Story of the Middle of the Nineteenth Century,' by Mrs. Lucy Gibbons Morse.

Dr. William Wright's 'The Brontë Family' will be published, with illustrations, by D. Appleton & Co.

The editor of 'Nuttall's Standard Dictionary' has compiled a 'Dictionary of Quotations from Ancient and Modern English and French Sources,' with a topical index, which Frederick Warne & Co. will issue immediately.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready Collar's 'Shorter Eysenbach' for the study of German. Their 'Ancient History,' by Prof. Myers, is about to be translated into Arabic.

Prof. O. B. Super of Dickinson College has annotated Erckmann-Chatrian's 'Waterloo' for D. C. Heath & Co.'s "Modern Language Series."

The announcement of the formation of the Navy Records Society in London cannot fail to be of great interest to the students of the early history of this country. Though the main object of the Society will be to render accessible the sources of English naval history, and to trace its obscure origin and early development, it will not confine its labors to the days of Elizabeth and the Stuarts. The Society's first publication will be the official documents relating to the fleet commanded by Lord Howard of Effingham, which defeated the Spanish Armada. This will be followed by the letters of Admiral Hood from the West Indies, 1780–3, and the memoir of Capt. Stephen Martin. Among the MSS. whose publication the Council has under consideration is the private journal of Rear-Admiral Bartholomew James, 1765-99. The latter officer assisted in the reduction of New York in 1776, and was taken prisoner at Yorktown when serving as lieutenant on board the *Charon*. The annual subscription is one guinea, entitling the member to receive one copy of all works issued by the Society during the year.

A new edition has been called for of Tristram's gossipy 'Coaching Days and Coaching Ways' (Macmillan)—two, in fact, but this before us is not the *édition de luxe*, though handier for reading, and most tastefully printed and bound. It contains the 214 pen-and-ink illustrations by Hugh Thomson and Herbert Railton, and is altogether an appetizing volume.

A reprint, by Lee & Shepard, of Sumner's

Boston oration on 'The True Grandeur of Nations,' coming upon the heels of an arbitration which has dissipated the war-cloud between this country and England, must be thought opportune. The prospect of war at once with Mexico (over Texas) and Great Britain (over the Oregon boundary) was what determined the Fourth of July theme in 1845. Sumner's financial argument against militarism and bloodshed every reader can now reinforce with the prodigality of pensions attendant upon a righteous and, in its main results, a beneficent war.

The two ladies (as we may infer) who have edited the 'Phillips Brooks Year-book' just issued by E. P. Dutton & Co. have eked out their pages of selections, carefully referred to the original source, with much good borrowed verse, often very fitly joined with the prose extract. Incidentally they have given a glimpse of Bishop Brooks's own poetic reading, where he cites passages in aid of his text. Emerson is thus used three times, Tennyson twice, Shelley, Wordsworth, and Coleridge each once—but the last, in his "Love, Hope, and Patience in Education," undergoes a strange transformation by clipping and substitution. The book is attractively manufactured.

A thin volume of 'Reminiscences of Early Anti-Slavery Days,' privately printed at the Riverside Press, is from the pen of Miss Sarah H. Southwick, a member of a prosperous Quaker family and connection which were of the greatest service to the editor of the *Liberator* and to the abolition cause. The writer says none too much of the Southwicks and Winslows, and aims chiefly to supplement larger narratives of the events which came under her observation with small details and personal impressions. But Miss Southwick was really almost omnipresent for the great occasions, being in the very midst of the Boston mob of 1835, hearing Wendell Phillips rebuke Austin at the Lovejoy meeting in Faneuil Hall in 1837, being among the mobbed audience at Pennsylvania Hall in 1838 and witnessing the consequent destruction of that building, attending the meeting of the American Anti-Slavery Society in New York in 1840 at which the great schism took place, being present at Frederick Douglass's début at Nantucket, etc. Her Boston home was a refuge for George Thompson in his deadly peril in 1835, and she once had the rare privilege of hearing that consummate orator repeat a speech of Edward Everett, just listened to, "nearly word for word, imitating him by voice and gesture." Her testimony to Thompson's charm of manner, in public and private, accords with the traditions. Very just, also, are Miss Southwick's appreciations of Mrs. Chapman and the Weston sisters. The simple narrative, which is quaintly illustrated with facsimiles of anti-slavery symbols and documents, is instinct with humanity and breeding, and no memoir has appeared better calculated to stimulate curiosity as to the epoch and the reformers to which it relates, or to propitiate the prejudiced. For this reason it is a pity that the edition is limited, and not for general circulation; but some copies, we may hope, will find their way into public libraries.

The combined catalogues of the several publishing houses which are bound up in the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual for 1893' make a bulk slightly inferior to that of 1892, if not enough to tell in the handling. This indispensable volume needs no further remark when the issue of it has been chronicled but our eye falls on the advertisement in the front of it, and for the benefit of the curious we will say that the now famous "Rudolph Indexer" is there figured in its three forms of book, case, and cabinet, along with the Rudolph card-cutter.

Mr. W. M. Griswold, Cambridge, Mass., who has already made up one stout volume of his serviceable 'Descriptive Lists of Novels,' continues to extend the series, Norway and Germany being his latest issues. He also improves upon the lists already published, and we have from him copiously intercalated reissues of the 'Descriptive List of Novels and Tales Dealing with American Country Life,' and of the French and British lists respectively.

We have received Part II. of Mr. Hubert Howe Bancroft's 'Book of the Fair' (Chicago: The Bancroft Co.). The narrative is prolix and disorderly, and not too trustworthy in detail. On p. 62 we read of the New York State Building that the design "is the old Van Rensselaer residence of its metropolis"—whatever that may be; whereas it is an independent and palatial design. Nor is it correct to say of the statued front of the Pennsylvania Building, that it is "a facsimile of Independence Hall." Reading is made difficult by the balanced illustrations; the text being carried across, instead of up and down beside, the illustration. Finally, these process cuts, which are the best thing about the book (especially when they show buildings and grounds in early stages of preparation), are scattered with little or no reference to the immediate letterpress.

The two leading articles of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for June, a description of the Andes of western Colombia, and considerations of the contraction theory of mountain construction and of the condition of the interior of the earth, are of a purely scientific character. Among the shorter papers, however, is a report from Lieut. v. Höhnel, giving some further account of the Astor Chanler expedition in eastern Africa, which is of general interest. From this it appears that, during the last week of January, in an attempt to seize forcibly cattle which the natives had refused to sell, the expedition was attacked by the Wa-Msa'ra—apparently a Masai tribe—and would have been destroyed but for the Mannlicher rifles with which it was armed. Several were killed or wounded, and the remainder finally escaped only by a timely fog which concealed their flight. Naturally the native losses were "far greater" (*ungleich grosser*). The July number contains a description of the northwestern part of the Argentine Republic, with especial relation to its soil. It is illustrated by two maps, the one showing the various heights, the watersheds and the limits of the deserts, the other especially the distribution of the vegetation, both wild and cultivated. Sugar plantations and vineyards seem to occupy the largest space under cultivation. This is followed by an account of the recent earthquakes at Zante, and a brief sketch, with a map, of Maistre's unsuccessful attempt to reach Lake Tsad from the Congo.

Early numbers of the *Century Magazine* will contain an unpublished diary of the secretary of the admiral in charge of the ship which conveyed Napoleon to St. Helena, thus checking Las Cases's Memoirs for the same voyage, and supplementing the magazine's recent account of the deportation to Elba.

The eighteenth annual report of the Boston Park Commissioners is, like its predecessors, a document valuable beyond local limits. It shows the progress up to February 1, 1893, of that system of pleasure grounds and connecting driveways in which Boston seems likely to surpass any city in the world, so great are the natural advantages of its environs, and so timely-wise have been the steps taken by State and municipality to improve these advantages to the utmost. Photographic views, maps, tables, and the text of statutes accompany the several reports. A genuine Boston notion is seen in the Massachusetts Emergency and Hygiene Association, which has had charge of the women's gymnasium on the bank of the Charles River, to which and to its equally public playground for children have flocked Jews in preponderance, Irish in next greater number, "then the colored people, then Poles and Germans." "At least two hundred working-girls a week, from eighteen to twenty-five years of age, have practised in the gymnasium, and to none has the exercise been of greater benefit than to them."

—The growth of the book collections of Cornell University during the academic year 1892–3 is most gratifying; perhaps unexampled in our college records. The aggregate falls a trifle short of 40,000 volumes. The books may be grouped under four heads: (1) the Moak law library, 13,000; (2) the Zarncke collection, 13,000; (3) bought out of the general library appropriation or donated by various persons, 10,500; (4) the Fiske Dante collection, 1,650. Of the Moak library, the gift of the family of the late Judge Boardman, it is enough to say that it is complete in its collection of Reports of English Courts and of all courts in the English language, *e. g.*, the old Year Books *ab initio*, all the Scotch, Irish, Canadian, Hawaiian, New Zealand, Australian Reports. It is fuller than the State Law Library at Albany, and as full as the Library of the Bar Association of New York city, probably fuller than the Harvard collection. Among the choice works under the second head we note the London, Edinburgh, and Dublin *Philosophical Magazine*, 1798 on; the *Preussische Jahrbücher;* London *Economist;* Journals of the Houses of Lords and Commons, British Statutes at Large, *Oesterreichische Militär-Zeitschrift*, Loddiges's 'Botanical Cabinet,' Sydenham Society (Old and New), "Pléiade Française" (Marty-Laveaux), and an almost complete collection of Dutch, Low German, Danish, Swedish, Icelandic lexicons. Of the Zarncke collection, it is quite impossible to give an idea of the variety and completeness. It is very rich in works upon the history of German Universities; almost, if not quite, exhaustive in Lessingiana; undoubtedly unique in Schelmuffsky literature (Christian Reuter); in Goetheana, surpassed only by one or two University collections in Germany; very rich in everything pertaining to general German literature and Germanic philology, and bringing many valuable additions to Romance and English philology. Of Prof. Willard Fiske's remarkable Dante collection we have already spoken. We will add that in size and value it is unsurpassed in England or America. It is decidedly superior to the Bodleian, somewhat to the Harvard, and about equal to the British Museum. In view of the foregoing, and of the general equipment of the University Library in the departments of science, history, and literature, the alumni of Cornell have reason to look forward to the twenty-fifth anniversary in October next with pride and satisfaction.

—A stout volume of four hundred and fifty pages on 'Benjamin Franklin and the University of Pennsylvania,' edited by Prof. Francis Newton Thorpe, has been issued by the Bureau of Education at Washington. It is the second of a series of monographs, succeeding 'Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia,'

edited by Prof. H. B. Adams. It is illustrated with portraits of Franklin, of the first Provost, Dr. Wm. Smith, and of the present Provost, Dr. Pepper, and views of the University buildings, more than forty in all, to assist the text. It is composed very much in the fashion of other "Circulars of Information" from the same Bureau. The editor writes a long disquisition to show the great service done to education in this country by Franklin in his plan for the Academy, later on the College of Philadelphia, and traces its history through colonial days, through the trying times of the Revolution, to its reorganization as the University of Pennsylvania, and on past its long period of mere existence to the more active and successful growth of our own times. The Provost, members of the Board of Trustees and of the various Faculties and Departments, and representative graduates, supply separate chapters on subjects in which they are specially interested, so that there is frequent repetition of salient facts, and a variety of methods of treating them. In the main, the story is not very novel nor very instructive. There is the same ambition that marked each colony to have its own institution for higher education, but in Pennsylvania neither Government nor people showed much zeal in the cause. It was left to men of Franklin's type, and to the energy of Provost Smith, who begged throughout the three kingdoms and in the South and the West Indies. The dreary neglect of the first half of this century ended in a revival of public spirit after the war and in a flood of private benefactions and some State and city aid that have made the additions of the last ten or twenty years greater than all earlier endowments. The title 'Jefferson and the University of Virginia' naturally suggested the taking headline of this account of the University of Pennsylvania, but it is hard to see what corresponding merit Franklin can claim with Jefferson. With characteristic shrewdness he aimed at establishing a high school suited to his times, but, with the business-like sense that marked his whole career, he builded for the needs of his own day and generation. That the Academy should grow into a College was natural enough, but that it should at last be a University in fact as well as in name was far beyond his dreams, and he was not given to dreaming. The present strength of the University is due to men of our own time, and the University of Pennsylvania is to-day the final outcome of the general elevation of the needs and standards of higher schools of education. Jefferson really did plan the University of Virginia, and it is to-day largely what he had in mind.

—Prof. Henry Carrington Bolton's 'Select Bibliography of Chemistry, 1492–1892' (Washington: Smithsonian Institution) is the second valuable bibliography with which the author has enriched the science of chemistry, the first being the well-known and highly esteemed 'Catalogue of Scientific and Technical Periodicals, 1665–1882.' Add to these various smaller special bibliographies, and the author's claim to the gratitude of his fellow-chemists must stand unquestioned. The bulky work before us is divided into seven sections, namely, of Bibliography, of Dictionaries, of History, of Biography, of Pure and Applied Chemistry, of Alchemy, and of Periodicals—the last being an excerpt from the second catalogue above referred to. In all the sections except those of Biography and Periodicals, the titles are arranged alphabetically. In the section of Biography the titles are placed under the names of the persons described, with cross-references from the authors. In the section of Periodicals the titles are arranged alphabetically by the first word, articles and "New" excepted, also with cross-references from the editors. Many very valuable and interesting notes have been introduced. The work does not profess to be a complete but (as its title indicates) only a select bibliography. Of course there will be some difference of opinion as to what should have been omitted and what should have been inserted, but this is unavoidable. A curious special table gives the number of titles in the several languages. For instance, there are 5 in Arabic, 29 in Chinese, 1 in Finnish, 1 each in Gujerati, Hebrew, Hindi, and Welsh. The book is a monument of well-directed and well-executed labor, and must become a standard work of reference. It is well and clearly printed. The titles in foreign languages have all been carefully revised by persons to whom these languages are native or at least familiar. There is a complete subject-index, but, in spite of the alphabetical form, an author-index would also have been acceptable.

—Mr. Emerson face to face with nature in the Adirondack "Philosophers' Camp," as described by Mr. Stillman in the August *Century*, recalls to a correspondent an unwritten leaf in the wildwood experience of the Concord sage. He writes:

"About 1877 it was my fortune to enjoy an hour's talk with Emerson beneath his own roof. He spoke of John Muir, who had been one of his guides in the Yosemite region, and who has given name to the chiefest among ten thousand glaciers. 'Muir,' said he, 'I was sorry to part with so soon. No scholarly man had looked so long and so lovingly upon the sublimities there. We arrived at the Big Trees before noon, had a lunch and a leisurely survey of the giants. We penetrated the dark caverns burned in the trunks of some, walked around others, wondered that the branches on the tops were so small while those fallen to the earth were themselves like thick trees. Then our party, largely business men from Boston and elsewhere, were eager to move on. But when I spoke of the matter to Muir he seemed equally surprised and grieved, in fact declared it "an injury and sullenness against Nature" to turn our backs so abruptly on her most marvellous works. I urged that our business demanded haste, and he rejoined that during years of mountaineering he had never approached the giants of Calaveras or Mariposa without making his camp beneath them. "We must go," said I, "and you cannot stay, for the horse you ride is ours." His answer was, "A horse is nothing to me. I have almost always come hither without one, and nowhere am I so much at home as among these chief things of the ancient mountains." Nor was he to be moved from his purpose, and so we reluctantly parted from him there, leaving him a true child of Nature in the solitude, alone but no more solitary than an infant in its mother's bosom.'"

—In Dr. Friedrich Klaeber's 'Das Bild bei Chaucer' (Berlin: Heinrich) students of English have a work of nearly 500 pages on Chaucer's use of figurative language—a work which they will read (or consult) with mixed feelings. The extensive and well-arranged collection of material will be welcome to scholars, and will probably interest even that sort of literary critic who instinctively guards the fine edge of his perceptions from contact with stubborn masses of linguistic and stylistic facts. There is much that is pedantic in the book, however, and not a little that is raw. As an example of elaborate pedantry we may instance the chapter on methods of introducing comparisons and metaphors, which is nearly all lumber. The author's immaturity of judgment is exemplified whenever he essays criticism. Particularly diverting is the grave sentence in which, using novelty in the flowers of rhetoric as the touchstone of originality, he denies to Chaucer the title of "an original genius of the first order" (p. 413). We fear that Dr. Klaeber does not understand his author so very well, though it must be admitted that he has a full appreciation of some of the coarser tales or parts of tales. He is guilty of the tiresome blunder of talking about Chaucer's naïveté; he discovers an involuntarily comic effect in lines where every word is used with the nicest art; he fails to grasp the intention of the poet in passages in which there is an attempt at "local color." His errors in details of interpretation are not few. For *elvish* he has no better gloss than *einfältig* (p. 173); for *cheste of every care* he has an ingeniously futile explanation (p. 392); and the tantalizing "he tolde a tale of Wade," which was well understood in the sixteenth century, loses all its possibilities of meaning under his treatment (p. 196). His imagination does not even rise to the height of the phrase *maken him a howve above a calle* (p. 430). His crowning exploit is the detection of a beastly pun in an innocent jest of Pandar's (p. 436). As compensation for this, he has overlooked the quip in the "high style" over which the Squire could not climb. His dissection of certain long descriptive passages (see p. 330, for example) has in its way not been surpassed since the author of 'Modern Painters' went botanizing in "Lycidas." But it is easy to find fault with details. After all, Dr. Klaeber has written a useful book, which Chaucerians will have to buy.

—One of the most gifted of German-American poets, Mr. Hermann Rosenthal, has published a metrical translation of the "Song of Songs" ('Das Lied der Lieder,' New York: The International News Co.) as a companion booklet to his version of Ecclesiastes, which appeared a number of years ago. The translation deserves high praise, alike for the intrinsic merit of its melodious verse and for the critical acumen which, in several instances, has elucidated obscurities in the original that have baffled not a few commentators. A random comparison of Prof. Ernst Meier's literal

> "Erhebe dich, Nordwind,
> Und komm doch, o Südwind,
> Durchwehe meinen Garten,
> Dass ströme sein Balsamduft!
> Damit komme mein Geliebter
> Zu seinem Garten
> Und geniessen möge
> Sein edles Obst,"

and Mr. Rosenthal's

> "Erwache Nordwind, fächle kühle Luft,
> Erbrause Südwind, ströme würz'gen Duft,
> Das meinen Garten Balsamhauch versüsse,
> Dass mein Geliebter nahe, mich begrüsse,
> Dass er des Gartens reife Frucht geniesse,"

shows at how slight a sacrifice of literalness the rhymed version succeeds in rendering the poetic flavor of the original. Mr. Rosenthal is master of more than one idiom. He was known in Russia fifteen years ago as a versatile littérateur and as the editor of the *Sarya* (the *Dawn*), published at Kiev. He has attested his knowledge of Hebrew by his own writings in that language, which include a biography of the naturalist Karl Vogt, written before he was twenty years of age. His ingenious surmises as to the authorship of the "Song of Songs," which he assigns to a female hand, attracted the attention of such eminent Hebraists as the late Michael Heilprin and Dr. S. Adler.

—The Royal Geographical Society of London has taken definite action upon the admission of women to fellowship in that body. At a special and largely attended meeting of the Society held on the 3d of July last, which was called for a reconsideration of a previous vote on the same question, it was decided that women shall

not be permitted to attach to their names the much-coveted letters F.R.G.S. This decision, of course, does not affect the status of the few women who already enjoy the distinction of membership, and who will now naturally hold to their seats with a double tenacity. Friends of intellectual activity will deplore this action of the Society, which seems to have been prompted through a "club" feeling rather than through the recognition that women do not possess the necessary qualifications for membership in a body whose first function is the acquisition and dissemination of knowledge regarding the earth's surface. The deciding vote was a close one, 158 to 172, and it is gratifying to know that the strength of the Council was with the minority, and that among the champions for the women's cause were some of the most distinguished members of the Society and some of the ablest minds of the country. It is to be regretted that the opinions of such men as Sir John Lubbock, the Earl of Mayo, Lord Northbrook (past President of the Royal Asiatic Society), Sir William Flower, and Mr. Douglas Freshfield should not carry more weight in a question of this kind than the opinions of men like Mr. Curzon and Mr. Hicks, who seem to have taken upon themselves the chief task of engineering the opposition.

## RUSKIN AS EXPOUNDED BY A RUSKINIAN.

*The Life and Work of John Ruskin.* By W. G. Collingwood, M.A., etc. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

PERHAPS no justly famous man could so badly endure the test of having his biography written in his lifetime, by a friend or an enemy, as Mr. Ruskin. There is such an enormous discrepancy between his life and his work that no writer with any sense of humor could seriously attempt to carry out a comparison of them. Mr. Collingwood, unfortunately for the effect he might produce on the reputation of Mr. Ruskin as a reformer—were that not already settled beyond the power of his own generation to modify it—has no sense of humor and very little of what may be termed comparative phrenometry. He is too blind a partisan of his master and sits too close to his feet to be able to form an estimate of him, either as a thinker or as a worker, to see him in the light in which the world at large either sees him now or is likely to see him in the future. His book, which, for the rest, is a noble tribute to his own devotion to its subject, and a by no means valueless contribution to the history of a man who will always be an object of great interest in the history of literature, is otherwise simply a labored and almost indiscriminate as well as unintelligent laudation of all Mr. Ruskin has ever done or proposed to do; for though in two or three slight matters Mr. Collingwood ventures on deprecatory criticism, it is as one would remark that there are spots even on the sun.

In point of fact, the man John Ruskin and the reformer John Ruskin are in the nature of a complete antithesis—the former a splendid, pathetic, and noble instance of consistent and logical devotion to the principles he laid down for the guidance of his fellow-men, and the latter as complete a failure in every attempt to guide them, so far as present results can be seen. He is a signal example of the justice of Emerson's warning to beware of the man who thinks he has come with an inspiration. His early intellectual life was an isolated one, the later a morbid one. Educated as a boy in a narrow Puritanism, favored by a conscientiousness intense to morbidness, he never became a man of the world even in the best sense of the term, and refused to modify his views in accordance with the results of experience or the decisions of common sense in regard to the subjects which interested him. As he himself once expressed himself, "his views were not opinions, but positive knowledge"; but unfortunately he had too often shown, by his honest and creditable change of views held at one time for others quite different, that his positive knowledge was too partial to be asserted with so great definiteness, and his absolute sincerity did not protect his authority from wide and increasing protest, so that, except with people ignorant of art, or very narrow and exclusive in their conceptions of it, his art teachings have no longer any interest, while his political and politico-economical theories have never had any hold on practical people, sublime and inspired by a true love of humanity as some of them are.

The most masterly and thoughtful among the artists even of England never accepted Mr. Ruskin's views of art, nor did the scientists accept his geological and cosmic theories; and if one may judge of the final result of the contemplation of his work by the tendency up to the present, which is all that a man of the present is competent to do, all that will remain of his labors as a permanent acquisition to the world is the purely literary—his masterly eloquence, his intense worship of nature, and his lofty exhortations to a noble and unselfish life; a classification with Plato and the pure idealists, but not with men of science, or even with Carlyle and Emerson. There was always something of insanity in his way of looking at things, the lofty egotism which insists on its exclusive view and refuses to embrace the broader insight of an entire humanity—which, indeed, by its limitations is unable to perceive what that insight has discovered. The mental malady of the insane is in the inability to coordinate their faculties with those of the people around them and with facts, to maintain the constant mental contact with others, or, as it is commonly said, to "keep touch" with the general intelligence of our fellows, and this to a certain extent was in Ruskin's nature. He was an intellectual egotist, though a most unselfish one.

While, therefore, his life is one which becomes of the highest interest as biography, and deserves a far more thorough and honest study than the author of this book has given it, or than it can have from any one who has known or judged him in the heat of the controversies his theories have produced, Ruskin's work is of no more practical interest or value than that of the 'Republic' of Plato or any other Utopia of the poets and dreamers; and all his devotion to the interests of art in his work at Oxford, or his attempts at Christian socialism through the St. George community, have resulted in nothing more than the excitement of an enthusiasm very partial and very ineffective. His theories of art never floated across the Channel, and in England and America produced only a temporary fever of morbid intensity in nature-transcription which has less to do with art than it has with science, but more with the robust healthy love of outdoor nature than with either. His social theories took no account of the experience of humanity, but, convinced that he had found the panacea for the unhappiness of human life, and that he was made to be the leader of a new exodus from the selfishness of ordinary being, he threw himself into the movement with his money and his personality, with no study of the causes of past failures of dreamers like himself, and with only this difference between him and them, that he looked at the undertaking as a born leader and representative of the strong rule of the right man, which he imagined to have been the cause of the virtues of the middle ages. He dreamed history as he dreamed the reformation of humanity.

If the author of this Life had had any sense of humor, he would have omitted passages like the following:

"Ruskin's art-criticism fought its way to the front long ago. His economy is now practically accepted. His religious teaching has not yet been listened to. That must wait until this nineteenth century—as he put it in 1845—'has, I cannot say breathed, but *steamed* its last.'"

"But in the life of a thinker and leader of men, like Ruskin, the question becomes more than a matter of curiosity. We all admit him to be sincere; but is he sound? Or if infallibility be put out of the question, is he more—or less—logical, rational, coherent in mental development than other men to whom we listen and in whom we trust for opinion and advice?

"To this I think there is only one answer. The more I study his life, the more I see that his work is not irresponsible and eccentric. The careful student should be able to trace his genius, down to the end, in continuous and rational progression. Passing over defined intervals of mental disease, and allowing for vehemence of expression—partly characteristic, partly the temporary effect of the penumbra of the storm-cloud—his mental development, I make bold to say, is normal and logical throughout his life. And I believe that when his work can be looked back upon as a whole, with proper understanding of its environment and with full knowledge of its circumstances, the common reproach of insanity made against each new manifestation of his mind will then be scorned as an exploded prejudice."

"In the great composers of Florence and Venice he found a quality of abstract design which tallied with his experience of what was beautiful in nature. Aiguilles and glaciers, drawn as he had drawn them, and the figure subjects of severe Italian draughtsmen, are beautiful by the same laws of composition, however different the associations they suggest."

It is unnecessary to say that the views of Ruskin and his work held by the author are those of a devotee, and all that the latter asserts and prophesies as to the effect of Ruskin's teachings on the world at large marks the blind ignorance of the world which belongs to a devotee. But while we might accept Mr. Collingwood as the preacher of Ruskinism pure and simple, and leave the doctrinal part of his elaborate essay to the judgment of time, it is not permissible to ignore the false color he gives to many transactions in Ruskin's life or connected with it. Thus, when he says that Pre-Raphaelitism "was the outcome of a general tendency which *he, more than any other man*, had helped to start; and it was the fulfilment, though in a way he had not intended, of his wishes, . . . it [his advice] was beginning to be accepted by many, but with timidity and modifications, etc.," he makes a gross misstatement of the facts in the case, for Ruskin had nothing to do with the early Pre-Raphaelite movement, and this has been authoritatively declared by the men who began it, for none of them had ever read ten pages of Ruskin's 'Modern Painters' at the time the movement began, nor were there, as our author insinuates, any precursors in England, though in France and Italy there had been, and in a certain way in Germany. And of all the illogical conclusions which could be put in words, the statement that "his advice to go to nature, selecting nothing, rejecting nothing, and scorning nothing, had been offered to landscape students, and it had involved the acceptance of Turner as their great exemplar and ultimate standard," is the most

illogical, for the practice of Turner was directly antagonistic to any such precept. Of this Mr. Collingwood might have convinced himself by reading what Mr. Hamerton has written on the subject. What Ruskin really did, the author has told in another place, though it has a very different meaning from that which he sees in it: "Just in the same way, our young Aristotelian, by beginning with the observed facts of nature—truths, he called them—and the practice, not the precept, of great artists, superseded the eighteenth-century academic-art theories and created a perfectly new school of criticism, which, however erring or incomplete in details or misapplied in corollaries, did for English art what Aristotle did for Greek ethics." What "he really did" was to make people believe that they were critics of art because they could see whether a picture represented nature literally or not, and persuade them that when they pronounced on a question of fidelity, they had been judging of art; *i. e.*, he enabled ignorance of art to erect itself into a canon of criticism.

But the book is throughout marked by this disingenuous treatment of the facts of Mr. Ruskin's life. "He could have been a painter if he had devoted himself to painting—not a Turner or a Titian, but a sound practitioner, much above the average," is the author's opinion, which is directly opposed to that of Mr. Ruskin, who said that if he had had the ability to become a painter, he would probably never have written a book, and here he was correct in his estimate of himself, for he had no eye for color, though a very great impressibility to it, and up to the last could see things only in detail, while his idea that Turner had any definite relation to Nature, or could ever be reconciled with the facts of her, is proof enough that his perception of her was too imperfect ever to have given rise to even an average art. The public, knowing nothing of art, takes his fidelity to detail as correctness of vision, but the real student of art knows that there is an impassable gulf between his imitation of the facts of nature and any form of true art. Mr. Collingwood is, consciously or unconsciously, trying to fight over battles which have been settled long ago by the collective judgment of the artists of all the world; and, however the single artist may err in a collective judgment, collectively the artistic judgment determines, and must determine, all questions of art, as that of collective scientists must of science.

The story of Ruskin's marriage and divorce, which was one of the gravest affairs of his life, and which as such should have been stated for what it really was, or simply but frankly put aside for reasons given, is really totally misstated, with a like falsification of the color of the biography. The subsequent love affair with a young lady in Ireland is equally disguised. When Mr. Collingwood deals with Ruskin's relations with Rossetti, he says: "And as editors refused them [the poems of Rossetti], he made himself responsible for the cost of their publication, both in the case of the 'Early Italian Poets,' I believe, and also in the case of the 'Poems' in 1868. It was only afterwards, when Rossetti gave way to chloral and misanthropy, and became inaccessible to nearly all his old friends, that he and Mr. Ruskin drifted apart." The facts are that Mr. Ruskin made himself responsible for the cost of the 'Early Italian Poets' in 1861, but there was no publication of original poems until 1870, when Ruskin and Rossetti had "drifted apart" for five years, not owing to chloral or misanthropy, but to the painter becoming impatient of the efforts of the critic to make him, to use the expression of another artist who knew Ruskin well, "hold the brush while Ruskin painted," and perhaps because *au fond* there was no real artistic sympathy between the two. Ruskin posed not merely as the defender of the Pre-Raphaelites, but as their master and teacher, and they rebelled. When Rossetti fell into the habit of taking chloral, he had no relations whatever with Ruskin.

Again, we are told that "His pupil, Signor Giacomo Boni, after recommending himself in Venice as the practical exponent of these principles at the Ducal Palace, has lately been appointed by the Government to the post of director of the monuments of Italy, etc."; and in another place Mr. Collingwood speaks of Boni as "the *capo d'opera* of the Ducal Palace." The fact is that Signor Boni was no more the pupil of Ruskin than any reader of his works might be, and was no adherent of his doctrines at any time, while he has never been, in relation to the Ducal Palace, anything more than the assistant of Signor Vendrasco, who was, not the *capo d'opera* of the Ducal Palace (which is commonly supposed to be the "Adam and Eve" capital or the "Noah" at the corner of the Ponte della Paglia), but the foreman of the works for the restoration of the palace, and Signor Boni had never anything to do with either restoring or preserving the ancient sculptures. He is now one of the inspectors of monuments of which each province in Italy has one; his province, we believe, being Apulia.

The history of Ruskin's religious evolution, which, one would say, was one of the important items in a man's life when it has been of such importance as Ruskin's, is no more honest or instructive. But returning to the principal matter, it was long ago settled in the general mind of earnest students of art in its largest sense that Ruskin's teachings, whatever may be their force and value in the provinces of morality and social economy as abstract ethics applied to human conduct, are in the last degree misleading for art; and his pretension of setting up as a teacher of art, or even of drawing, had never any justification, for no artist who has mastered the higher elements, either of design or of color, has ever accepted the teaching of Ruskin as true guidance. Mr. Collingwood quotes sarcastically a passage from an article by Mr. Stillman that "Mr. Ruskin never seemed to understand style in drawing," but he has furnished the proof in what he writes of Ruskin's appreciation of Miss Alexander and her work: "As to style, she fulfilled his own teaching of bygone years—the combination of free point-work with the pure line without blotting or bungling; and her sense of color and texture compensated for any weakness in anatomy and composition." Now, without any disparagement of Miss Alexander's work, which is as sincere and loving as drawing can be, but childish in the extreme and utterly destitute of style as the word is applied to genuine art, one may say with a great painter, Ruskin's warm personal friend, that "we can forgive him not appreciating Michael Angelo, but not his admiration of Miss Alexander." And, in fact, this is the kind of work that Ruskin has always done, and well done, and most warmly appreciated in others, but it is not in the road to art.

No man of our time has better deserved the personal appreciation he has received from the finest intellects—his contemporaries, Carlyle, Lowell, Froude, Thackeray, Norton, and the heads of Oxford; but this is due to the quality of the man and to the influence he had rather on the intellectual than on the artistic life of the times. And no one who is an authority in art, as no one who is an authority in geology, in political economy, or in theology, has ever stood up as his supporter in the respective province. The breezy quality of his thought, his originality, his passionate earnestness, and the very waywardness which was like a prophecy of his final condition, aroused interest in all he said; and the man remains one of the intellectual features of that nineteenth century which he so much abused and disparaged, never realizing how much better in reality it is than his beloved Middle Ages, with their lordly paternal virtues and cathedral-building excellence. His work, beyond its literary quality and its provocation to contradiction and discussion, is like sand-castles at the seaside; neither his art nor his sociology has solid foundation, and the most pathetic declaration of the simple-minded devotion of our author to his idol is in the passage quoted above: "His art-criticism fought its way to the front long ago. His economy is now practically accepted." The effect of 'Modern Painters' on the style of the crowd of emulating art-critics is beginning to pass away, but our author, true to his ideals, keeps something of it, though like a boy wielding his great ancestor's broadsword. The best sample given us in the book is worth quotation, not perhaps as a model of style, but to show the author's appreciation of it:

"To read 'Fors' is like being out in a thunder-storm. At first, you open the book with interest, to watch the signs of the times. While you climb your mountain—shall we say the Old Man of Coniston?—at unawares there is a darkening of the cloud upon you, and the tension of instinctive dread, as image after image arises of misery and murder and lingering death, with here and there a streak of sun in the foreground, only throwing the wildness of the scene into more rugged relief; and through the gaps you see broad fields of ancient history, like lands of promise left behind. By and by the gloom wraps you. The old thunder of the Ruskinian paragraph, shortened now to whip-lash cracks, reverberates unremittingly from point to point, raising echoes, sounding deeps; allusions, suggestions, intimations, stirring the realm of chaos, that ordinarily we are glad to let slumber, but now terribly discern, by flashes of thought, most unexpectedly arriving. Fascinated by the hammer play of Thor, berserking among rime-giants—customs that 'hang upon us, heavy as frost'—you begin to applaud; when a sudden stroke rolls your own standpoint into the abyss. But if you can climb forward, undismayed, to the summit, the storm drifts by; and you see the world again, all new, beneath you—how rippling in Thor's laughter, how tenderly veiled in his tears!"

What is most interesting and valuable in the book is the account of Ruskin's present life at Brantwood, for, as a man, no reader of the English literature of the day, loving honest manhood and noble life, can lose his interest in John Ruskin, though he will certainly wish him, some time, a more intelligent biographer. He, when he comes, will find some things in Mr. Collingwood's book of real utility, when properly sifted, for the understanding of the man, if not of his work.

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*The Simple Adventures of a Memsahib.* By Sara Jeannette Duncan. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

*From the Five Rivers.* By Mrs. F. A. Steel. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

WHAT with Aliph Cheem and Rudyard Kipling, the Theosophists and the Buddhist propaganda, the visiting Rajahs at the White City, the North German Lloyd service to the Mediterranean, and the fate of silver in India, it would seem—despite all the Sanskrit professors

tell us—as if Uncle Sam and his dusky Oriental cousins had never been so much to each other before, except, perhaps, at the time when our civil war raised such a tremendous excitement among the cotton-merchants of Colaba, at the tip of Bombay Island. But now come two more volumes to draw the West still nearer to the East. The first is a charming series of sketches of the various phases of the social and domestic life of a young couple of Anglo-Indians. Were we to insist upon a pedantically truthful title, we should amend it to 'The Experiences of a Memsahib,' but the dividing line between "adventures" and "experiences" is doubtless a vague one, and perhaps "*simple*-adventures," with italics and a hyphen, is just on the line. The book has neither plot nor love-story nor other meretricious seduction of the sort. The incidents are loosely attached to a Mrs. Browne, *née* Peachy; but Mrs. Browne, like the Hindu One-in-All of the Vedanta, is a wholly impersonal entity, an algebraic *a* for the genus Memsahib; and the author might have changed the name from chapter to chapter without serious damage to her recital. The said recital is put into the mouth of "Mrs. Perth Macintyre," who has been "out here only twenty-two years." Doubtless an old stager will smile very pensively at the thought of all the author has not seen, and easily forgive her this guileless little fiction on the score of all she has seen and (if we may be excused) "caught on to."

The book is bright and entertaining throughout. We can enjoy everything at our ease, without going to India, without perspiring under a punkah, without feeling nervous before the Viceroy; the pathos and humor of the scene when the embryo Memsahib bids adieu to her Wiltshire relatives on the deck of the P. and O. steamer; her wedding in Calcutta Cathedral; her installation as Memsahib, Mrs. Browne; the marshalling before her of her house-servants, including the scullion, who "wore a dhoty and an expression of dejection," and the washerman, who pounds your linen between two stones just as he did in the Sanskrit books twenty-five hundred years ago; the Viceregal drawing-room; the going to dinner, "quite quietly" and otherwise; the admirable satire on globe-trotters in general and the Parliamentary globe-trotter in particular, instanced by Mr. Jonas Batcham, M.P., in ignorant and ridiculous quest of native grievances to "report upon" at home; and more the like, and unlike. A comfortable chapter takes us through the discomforts, or the terrors, of the heat, the burst of the monsoon, the rains, and the ensuing mugginess. And, as an offset to this, we take a trip to "the Hills," and end with a sight of "the Snows," and, as a climax, the delights of a shiver.

Notably amusing is the way (p. 227) in which a Memsahib "picks up" Hindustani:

> "From Bengal and Bombay, from Madras and the Punjab, a preposition from Persia, a conjunction from Cashmere, a noun from the Nilgherries. . . . She prefers to improve it [her Hindustani] by the admixture of a little English; and the effect upon the native mind is quite the same. It really doesn't matter whether you say, 'That is very *corab* ['bad'], you stupid *ool-ka-beta*' ['son-of-an-owl'], or use the simple Hindustani statements to express your feelings. The [added] English may adorn them, but it is the Hindustani after all that gives vitality to your remarks. '*Chokee lao*' means 'Bring a chair'; but if you put it, 'Bring me a *chokee lao*,' the meaning of the command is not seriously interfered with, besides convincing you more firmly that you have said what you wanted to say."

Mr. Townsend's numerous illustrations are admirably done, full of fun and spirit. But he has made a slip at page 222 in giving Jimmy Forbes a high collar. At 218 Mr. Jack Lovitt had made Jimmy throw all his high ones away.

Mrs. Steel's little volume is concerned with the joys and sorrows of the real natives of the Punjab. Its chief contents are half-a-dozen short stories—one humorous, the rest tragical. The first and best is "Gunesh Chund." Gunesh is a village headsman. After years of unfruitfulness, his wife bears him a child; but, alas! it is only a daughter. Even now, just as centuries ago in the days of the great law-giver Manu, a wife that bears no son may be supplanted. The story turns on the conflict between the father's strong natural affection for wife and child and the unnatural requirements of his position. The author's matter is excellent and interesting; but her style of narration is by no means lucid and flowing. Whether this be due to inability or to affectation, the result is neither pleasing nor defensible, least of all in a midsummer book.

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*B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America.* 1773-1783. Vol. XVII. Nos. 1601 to 1643. February, 1893. London: B. F. Stevens.

THE arrangement of vol. xvii. is both simple and eminently satisfactory to the student wearied by the diplomatic wrangles of the foregoing volume. It is made up of forty-three papers, all letters of Lafayette, or closely related enclosures. Five of these letters have been previously translated and printed in part, twelve translated and printed entire, while twenty-six have never been previously translated or printed. With the exception of the cipher despatches and a few other papers, it is fair to say that Sparks's 'Washington' and the 'Mémoires, Correspondance et Manuscrits du Général Lafayette' (Paris, 1837-38; English translation, London, 1837), have already skimmed off the cream of this correspondence. Nevertheless, the volume before us is interesting, mainly because it is a substantial fraction of the entire mass of Lafayette's letters, and incidentally because it well supplements his correspondence with D'Estaing, edited in 1892 by M. Doniol in the *Revue d'Histoire Diplomatique*. Two ideas were uppermost in Lafayette's mind, and he never hesitated to iterate them to Vergennes, seemingly quite unsubdued if they did not immediately get the attention which his enthusiasm must have led him to expect. The condition of the American soldier, and the pressing necessity of securing "maritime superiority" to the French—these are his themes in almost every despatch. Nothing could be more ingenuous than his early proposed plan for approaching Halifax with four or five vessels, passing the batteries, shelling the town to pieces, and taking the Basin. It shows how little the young officer must have known of the topography of that imposing garrison, but it still more reveals the fact that a successful carrying of the Revolution into the lost ground of Canada was an underlying motive of the French. A great candor, the most extreme courtesy and deference to Washington, and a genuine modesty, especially after Yorktown, run through all the letters, although in No. 1613, and in several of the minor numbers of uncertain date, Lafayette hints to Vergennes that preferment would not be ungrateful to him.

Of this correspondence of Lafayette, written with all a soldier's directness and limitations, it is not possible, for the reasons given above, to speak with much freshness; attention must centre at once upon what new matter the volume offers. No. 1616 is a "Summary of the political and military Condition of America" in the hand of and probably composed by the Chevalier de Fleury, dated November 16, 1779, written, as its author admits, in a "filibustering style." Possessing no more than the usual claims to serious consideration of most French "impressions," this paper is full of a vivacious interest. Of New Hampshire the Chevalier says it is "almost of no account in the Confederation," of Hancock that he is "King of the Rabble," while Adams is a "sensible and intelligent man, but indolent on principle and by temperament." He insists that the Vermonters, "that half savage people," will always keep New York in check—a conclusion certainly warranted at that time. The Boston idea of the French seems to him to have been that they were "like pedlers, very honest thieves!" "Patriotism is non-existent at Philadelphia; it has there almost become ridiculous." He thinks South Carolina "has neither strength nor virtue," while Charleston is "open to the highest bidder." This charming prattle must close with the Chevalier's opinion of Washington: "This great man has only one fault—a very creditable one—too much virtue for the chief of a party." Lafayette states in No. 1619 that Fleury enjoyed a "very brilliant reputation in America."

Nos. 1625, 1626, 1627, 1631, 1632 are in cipher, with interlinear decipher, and have never been printed. It is natural to find them revealing somewhat intimately the actual condition of the French forces in America, especially in relation to Washington, of whom Lafayette says in No. 1625: "The French Generals and troops will be well pleased with his uprightness, his delicacy, with that noble and frank politeness which characterizes him." Again, in No. 1626: "The officers and men of the American army do not possess a shilling. The former only receive one ration, and have no clothes, nor have they, like the soldiers, the hope of receiving some from France." In a very long letter, No. 1632, of fifty pages in cipher and twenty-five in translation, the one surpassing theme is "maritime superiority," while at every point is evident the French policy of preventing an undesirable peace by furnishing sufficient munitions of war. Of late some infelicitous, but, we believe, not malicious, merriment has been made over the condition of some of the Northern troops in the war of the Revolution. Lafayette presents in this long letter a valuable counter opinion, which should be welcomed with equal pleasure. He says: "We cannot praise too highly the zeal and the discipline of the troops of New England, nearly all national, whose cause was at bottom the same, and who, also, in spite of their nakedness, and through the snow, marched willingly against the insurgents." Of the Continental troops as a whole he affirms that they "are more hardened and patient than the Europeans," and "have seen more shots fired than three-fourths of the European soldiers."

This lengthy letter raises the serious question as to how this important collection of papers is to be properly indexed. There is no pagination to the translated portion, and it is not easy to see how reference can be made to such an important incident, for instance, as the mutiny of the Pennsylvania troops stationed at Morristown and their march to Princeton. In Lafayette's first letter from Boston, of May 1, 1780 (No. 1622), he presents to Vergennes the son-in-law of Dr. Cooper, whom he plainly enough calls Johonnot; the translation, how-

ever, gives it wrongly Johonnoh. In No. 1635 Gen. Greene's name, rightly given in the original, is changed to Green in the translation.

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*An Adventure in Photography.* By Octave Thanet. Illustrated from photographs by the adventurers. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

It may be doubted whether the attempt to make photography funny, which is the excuse for being of this new manual, in so far as it differs from all other primers of the art-science, is likely to make it more instructive, or increase the attractiveness of photography for the hitherto unphotographic. The fun is too close a reminder of Warner to be made much account of, and the instruction is that of confessed greenhorns attempting to make proselytes. The former will be discounted by the reader and neophyte who wants to learn photography, and the latter, when the grain is culled from the chaff, will be found in any quarter-dollar treatise on the subject. The authors (for the joke is a joint affair of two women) begin by what the reader will be apt to end by—*i. e.*, making light of the whole affair:

"When my kind friends the publishers first proposed this book to me, I at once laid the proposition before my partner.

"Jane and I have taken photographs, developed photographs, and mounted photographs together for four years.

"'But we don't know enough to write a book,' said Jane.

"'And they want us to illustrate it with our own photographs,' I continued, under the impetus of my first burst of information, although I felt a distinct shock, similar to the feeling produced by unexpected cold water.

"'But we don't make good enough photographs to illustrate a book,' said Jane."

And Jane was right from the start, to adopt the style of the authors; for the book is not an addition to our knowledge of photography, nor are the illustrations such as require great experience or much skill or knowledge to produce. There is not only nothing new in the way of facts or experience in the 'Adventure,' but there are some evidences of ignorance which should have stood in the way of the present undertaking. We read:

"All this brings me to another trick of the ground-glass. It concerns what the artist calls values. If it were not for a tender conscience and some knowledge of the cost of reproducing photographs, I could fill pages with illustrations of values out of gear, as it were—fences larger than houses, and lop-sided scenery. . . . For a single example, observe, in the picture I sadly submit, the size of those black children in the foreground; they are Gullivers, and the women Lilliputians. . . . The question of values, of the harmonious arrangements of a picture, is infinitely expansive. . . . It is not only a question of proportion, it is a question of interest as well."

It is needless to remark that this writer has no conception of what "values" means, and it is one of the most important points in the photography of the day. If the ignorance is affected for the sake of chaff, the book should be passed over to the humorists, where it would stand a poor chance; if intended for instruction, the book is too elementary for beginners.

Practically, the opinions of the authors are scarcely worth more. "We are not scientific, Jane and I, and we profess no opinion; we simply know that eikonogen will get more out of a sullen plate than either pyro or hydrochinon." This, as can easily be proved, is quite contrary to "scientific" experience. "At the beginning of our adventure we tried the time-honored pyro. It was slow, it was dirty, it fogged the plates if you dared push it, and it would not work if it was not pushed! During the reign of pyro we spent the time that we could spare from the studio in scrubbing our hands." If this is chaff, again, it is poor chaff, and not the truth. We have tried, as carefully as scientific method enabled us to do, the various developing agents in use as they came before the public, heralded by the outcries of the advertisements in the trade journals, and nothing has yet been introduced which quite equals the "time-honored pyro," and, though using it continually, we do not require to scrub our hands to go into society.

"Jane and I" are too technical for good joking and too jocose for good instruction. "The experiment fails, but the principle is illustrated," as Dr. Draper used to say when his experiment in the chemistry class failed.

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*Some Further Recollections of a Happy Life.* Selected from the Journals of Marianne North. Edited by her sister, Mrs. John Addington Symonds. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

The success of the former volume relating to Miss Marianne North's travels, with the history of her life, has induced Mrs. J. A. Symonds to edit for publication further recollections from her sister's journals, telling of the earlier journeys of this adventurous lady together with her father and sister in Europe and the East. These wanderings in lands now easily accessible to any person of moderate means who puts himself in the hands of Cook or Gaze, were thirty years ago fraught with a certain amount of difficulty and adventure which added zest to the journey, and gave rise to unforeseen incidents which lent themselves to description. Miss North tells of her experiences with such enjoyment and *verve* and such a true sense of humor that the book is delightful reading, besides which it possesses all the charm of an intimate record for her own use, perfectly sincere without the disturbing thought of an audience.

The journeys date from 1859, in the Pyrenees and Spain, and continue till 1870 through Switzerland, Italy, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, Smyrna, Athens, the Adriatic, Egypt, Palestine and Syria, the Dolomite Alps, and lastly the Riviera and Sicily. Mr. North and his daughters travelled with little baggage and few insular prejudices; moreover, they had a great sense of enjoyment of things new and beautiful. They talked to the people they met of every class, and so got to know a great deal about the countries they passed through; they also came upon many people of their time now known to fame—Emin Pasha, Lady Duff Gordon, Palgrave, Mr. Finlay, Gen. Church (the hero of the Greek war of Independence, whom Miss North miscalls an American, evidently confusing him with the American painter of the same name), and Miss Hosmer, of whom Miss North writes while at Rome:

"Once Miss Raincock took me to see Gibson's young American pupil, Miss Hosmer, in a large unfurnished studio she had just taken, where she was preparing to make a portrait statue of some famous countryman. It was to be nine feet high, she said (looking herself like a small child); she had only one chair, which she gave me, as the stranger; seating our old friend on the table, she mounted to the top of a high ladder herself, from whence she chattered and laughed with the happy air of one who is successful and sure to please."

The thirty years which have gone by have so changed and civilized many of the then little-known mountain places among the Dolomites, in the Val Aosta, and in Switzerland that this journal remains as the record of what has long passed away. Venice was still under Austrian rule and Greece under King Otho. It is a pity the editor did not more carefully revise some statements, such as, "The temple of Ægina is of a coarse gray limestone; *it is 300 years older than the Parthenon*, and its architecture is heavy and barbaric in character, with those sculptured figures from its pediment we remembered at Munich, which, in point of art, are as inferior to the Elgin marbles as the temple is to that of Pallas Athene." About the Bocche di Cattaro, too, Miss North writes: "It is the only sea outlet of that country [Montenegro], so is naturally a source of perpetual discord between Greece [?] and Austria for its possession"; but Greece never laid claim to the Bocche di Cattaro. Notwithstanding inaccuracies of this kind and some misspellings, the book is very pleasant reading, full of amusing stories of people and events that came across the writer's paths.

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*The Literature of Philanthropy.* Edited by Frances A. Goodale. With Introduction by Blanche Wilder Bellamy. Harper & Bros.

This second volume of the small, 16mo "Distaff" series is presented to the public with the same introductory words that accompanied its predecessor. Their writer, signing herself "Chairman of the Committee on Literature of the Board of Women Managers of the State of New York," somewhat naïvely ignores the fluctuating prominence of events in not definitely mentioning by name the Chicago Exhibition, here as elsewhere in her undated brief account of the women's exhibit in literature at Chicago, of which the papers in the volume form a part. In the editing, also, explicitness has been deemed unneedful, not one of the papers bearing the date of composition. Several of the twelve that fill the measure of the collection seem to have been written expressly for it, while two—one, by Mrs. Maud Wilder Goodwin on "The Anti-Slavery Legacy," the other, by Mrs. Julia Margaret Fuller Lloyd, on "The Negro and Civilization"—are stated to be reprints from the *Popular Science Monthly* and the *Evening Post*. As the chief permanent value of papers having the journalistic character of all of these is to serve as milestones along the path of progress, the oversight of not stamping their numerals distinctly upon them, so that he who runs may read, is naturally a damaging one.

As a matter of fact, the only justification of the existence of a series of volumes ostentatiously composed, edited, and prefaced exclusively by women is as a sort of special pleading of the cause of women before a stiff necked generation. Viewed in this light, they ought to be armed at all points against adverse criticism; and although papers from such writers on particular subjects as Mrs. Josephine Shaw Lowell on "Criminal Reform," and Mrs. Elaine Goodale Eastman on her wards, "The Indians," must lend value and interest to any volume, to call one of this modest compass 'The Literature of Philanthropy' is to give a rather wide interpretation to its scope, notwithstanding the variety and timeliness of the topics on which the essays briefly touch.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, C. L. Bulbs and Tuberous-Rooted Plants. Orange Judd Co. $2.

Arithmetic by Grades. Book Number One. Boston: Ginn & Co. 20 cents.

Bach, Capt. F. W. How to Judge a Horse. W. R. Jenkins. $1.

Curtis, G. W. Other Essays from the Easy Chair. Harpers. $1.

Daly, C. P., and Kohler, M. J. The Settlement of the Jews in North America. Philip Cowen.

Ethelmer, Ellis. Woman Free. London: Women's Emancipation Union.

Ford, P. L. The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Vol. II. Putnams.

*NOW READY NEW EDITIONS OF:*

**Remsen's Introduction to the Study of Chemistry** (American Science Series, Briefer Course). By IRA REMSEN, Professor of Chemistry in the Johns Hopkins University. xix+435 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price $1.12; postage 13 cents additional.

A revised and enlarged edition, from new plates, of a work that has become standard the world over. The theoretical matter has been rearranged, the treatment of metals expanded and based on the periodic law, and chapters on organic chemistry and qualitative analysis have been added. In the descriptions of experiments questions are substituted for statements where practicable, and for these descriptions a distinctive type is used.

**Otis's Elementary German. Seventh Edition.** Based on the Sixth Edition, edited by HORATIO S. WHITE, Professor in Cornell University, with additional revisions by WILLIAM H. CARRUTH, Professor in the University of Kansas. xvi+431 pp. 16mo. Teachers' price 80 cents; postage 7 cents additional.

Contains a number of minor improvements suggested by experience, including some alterations in the account of declension and an important note on the syntax of participles and infinitives. None of the changes are so radical as to make impossible the use of the sixth and seventh editions in the same class.

*READY FOR THE FALL TERM:*

**Freytag's Karl der Grosse,** nebst zwei anderen Bildern. With introduction and Notes by A. B. NICHOLS, Instructor in German at Harvard. xix+179 pp. 12mo.

Three essays offering variety of topic and containing a large element of narrative and anecdote, which makes them much easier and better suited to rapid reading than the more abstract essays of the *Bilder*.

**Verne's Michel Strogoff.** Abridged, with Summaries of Omitted Passages and Notes, by EDWIN S. LEWIS, Instructor in French at Princeton. About 220 pp. 12mo.

Its high ideals of courage and patriotism make this more than a merely clever story. It is suitable for beginners in school or college, and the notes assume that the text is begun after a few lessons in the grammar.

**De Quincey's The English Mail Coach and Joan of Arc.** With introduction and notes by J. M. HART. xxvi+138 pp. 12mo.

**Marlowe's Edward II.** With the best passages from TAMBURLAINE THE GREAT and from his POEMS. With brief notes and an introductory essay by the late Professor E. T. MCLOUGHLIN of Yale.

*Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. also have in hand for early publication an elaborate edition of Schiller's Wallenstein, prepared by Professor W. H. Carruth of the University of Kansas, and will have ready for the second half of the year Schiller's Wilhelm Tell, edited with a comprehensive introduction and full notes by Professor A. H Palmer of Yale.*

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**FRENCH.** **Edgren's French Grammar,** $1.12. **Fontaine's Livre de Lecture et de Conversation** (in Press). **Lyon and De Larpent's Primary French Translation Book,** 60 cents. **Joynes's French Fairy Tales,** 35 cents. **Super's French Reader,** 80 cents. **Fortier's Sept Grands Auteurs** du XIXe Siècle, 60 cents. **Duval's Histoire de la Litterature Francaise,** $1.12. **Matzke's Victor Hugo's Hernani,** 70 cents. **Bowen's French Lyrics,** 60 cents.

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| Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1892 | | 1,472,142 48 |
| Total Marine Premiums | | $5,162,393 36 |
| Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1892, to 31st December, 1892 | | $3,759,193 05 |
| Losses paid during the same period | $1,466,178 06 | |
| Returns of Premiums and Expenses | $738,617 09 | |

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[*Educational continued on page* 180.]

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 7, 1893.

## The Week.

THE latest canvass of the Senate shows a majority of at least twenty for repeal. This makes further delay in taking the vote more inexcusable than ever. It is absurd to stand on ceremony, out of deference for "Senatorial courtesy," with the little band of silver Senators who, in their capacity as "enemies of the public welfare," are blocking the progress of repeal. They have had their say many times over, and nobody cares to hear or read their dreary speeches again. The progress of events has settled their case, and the sooner they are made to realize this fact the better for them and for the country. They seem completely beyond the reach of public opinion, showing in this respect a denser insensibility than Peffer manifests, for he has had a foot or more cut from the length of his beard, and is in other ways bowing to public sentiment, as he is known to be opposed to delay by filibustering. He looms like a statesman and a sagacious patriot in comparison with Stewart, Wolcott, Vest, Jones, and company.

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There will be no sorrow over the announcement that the Governors of the three new States whose Legislatures failed to elect Senators at their regular sessions will not call special sessions for that purpose, now that the Senate has refused to admit the appointees of the Executives. One Senator is quite as many as is deserved by straggling communities which had, as in the case of Wyoming, only 60,705 people when the last census was taken. It would have been a fortunate thing if the Nevada Legislature had got into the same sort of a tangle, so that we might be spared the spectacle of two Senators representing a total population which reached only 45,761 in 1890, and is much less now, by reason of the closing of many mines.

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A Chicago professor, writing on the silver situation in Colorado, quotes "a prominent student of finance" as saying: "I have never since slavery days seen our American press so unfair as it is now on this silver question." We think we could make a shrewd guess as to the personality of this prominent student of finance, who is pained at newspaper comments on his views; but as to the charge of unfairness, we confess to being left bewildered. If it is unfair to invite the freest and fullest discussion, then indeed the press has been unfair in its treatment of the silver question. Certainly it would be hard to mention another subject on which all sides have been given so generous a hearing. Nothing, in fact, has been so pleasing to well-instructed editors as to give a silverite a chance to air his views in order to demolish them. To how many cranks editorial advocates of sound money have given space it would be hard to reckon up. No single feature of the education of the people on the currency question has been more striking than the detailed and patient examination of unsound views by those newspapers which have stood for an honest and stable standard of value. Just here is where the shoe really pinches, we believe. The silverites have been driven to explain and expound their views more in detail than ever before, and to quit their vague and frothy declamation about the crime of demonetization and the robbery of the debtor class; and as their definite propositions have been shown to mean necessarily repudiation of debts and a depreciated currency, they have been led to rail at the process of discussion as "unfair."

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The Ways and Means Committee has done well in getting promptly at work and announcing that it will not give a longer time than until the 20th of September to hearings. Three weeks are quite as many as should be allowed for this purpose. We have had nothing but hearings on this question for almost a dozen years, first before the Tariff Commission appointed under the Arthur Administration, then before the Ways and Means Committee which framed the Morrison Bill, next the committee which brought in the Mills Bill, and finally the committee which reported the McKinley Act. It would be an absolute waste of time now to give two or three months to a repetition of all this. What the country wants is action on the tariff question—not more big books of testimony before a committee. The tariff is to be revised, and it is to the interest of all that the form which revision is to take should be known as soon as may be, that the business of the country may adapt itself to whatever changes are to come. It is to be hoped that the work may be pushed forward so rapidly that the bill may pass both branches of Congress and reach the President early in 1894.

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On the very day that the Committee on Ways and Means began tariff hearings, a large number of iron mills and textile factories started up again. This was most ill-advised action, and the Republicanism of any manufacturer guilty of it will be open to suspicion. Is the country to be given to understand that rails can be made and cars built and hosiery knitted and cloth woven with the preparations for a new tariff going on ostentatiously at Washington? If such things can be, then is the protectionist faith vain and the *Tribune's* preaching vain. If the mills were shutting down, as it solemnly assured us a few weeks ago, solely on account of the vague talk about a new tariff, how can they take courage to start up again when the talk has passed into certainty with the appointment of the Committee on Ways and Means and its prompt buckling down to work? On the *Tribune* theory, this should have destroyed the last shred of confidence, and shut up all the rest of the mills instead of opening the closed ones.

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The *Tribune* is ominously silent on this aspect of the tariff hearings, but it extracts solid comfort out of the remarks of the Bermuda onion-growers before the Committee. Never was there so complete and overpowering a demonstration of two main articles of the protectionist creed—namely, that all foreigners are filled with a burning desire to "dump" goods upon this unhappy land, and that the foreign shipper pays the duty. According to the *Tribune's* truthful figures, on one shipment of 10,000 boxes of onions to New York, 16 cents freight was paid per box, and a duty of 38 cents. Then the onions were sold "at an average price of 50 cents a box." If the Bermudans did not pay the duty, triumphantly asks the *Tribune*, who did? There is no telling what such people would *not* pay. They lost $400 on this shipment, reckoning in nothing but freight and duty, and counting the onions themselves as a pure gift. If that is the way they do business, we do not see why they would not pay any duties demanded of them. It is not surprising that their experience gave a "shock" to the Committee. Such a determination to sell goods at a great loss is too rarely met with not to startle the unwary.

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Even protectionists, we should think, would be glad if some extinguisher could be clapped down hard on the Ohio Wool-Growers' Association. That body was first dangerous, then became ludicrous, and is now nothing but a first-class nuisance. It was politically dangerous as long as it was able to keep both parties in Ohio on their knees, and when it drove the whole Republican party into McKinleyism. But it was this very demonstration of its power that brought it into ridicule, for its boasted army of voters in Ohio turned out to be men in buckram, and the State was practically lost to the Republicans. But here it is again, with as brassy a front as ever, passing resolutions against free wool as the "colossal political crime of the age," and demanding "full and adequate protection for the wool industry." This means, of course, that such protection does not now exist, and that McKinley must do his work all over again. The real tariff-dis-

turbers are the wool-growers. They want the whole thing done over again at their dictation. The present Republican game of declaring the McKinley tariff to be supernaturally perfect, and asserting that it would be sacrilegious to touch such a gift of heaven, does not fool the wool-growers for a moment. They know that they are getting the lowest prices for their wool ever known—practically as low, according to the *Wool and Cotton Reporter*, as would be the case under free trade; and what they want is a tariff which will absolutely shut out all foreign wool. This is to bring protection into contempt, and therefore we say that good protectionists ought to bend their wits to the task of squelching the Ohio wool-growers.

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Ex-Speaker Reed loses no opportunity to exalt the rules of his Congress, or to taunt the Democrats with wishing but not daring to adopt them, but he does not seem able to rouse much enthusiasm on the subject, even in his own party. The truth is, that the most dangerous and offensive part of the Reed rules—the part that lodged autocratic power in the hands of the Speaker—was particularly distasteful all along to many Republicans, who had too unpleasant an experience of the Speaker's tyranny in the Fifty-first Congress to care to expose themselves to it again. Speaker Crisp did well to bring out the essential differences between the Reed rules and those proposed for the present Congress. The roll-call, not the Speaker's count, is to determine the presence of a quorum, and it is the majority of the House, acting through the Committee on Rules, and not the occupant of the chair, that is to decide when debate and motions become merely dilatory and obstructive and must give way to a vote. The matter of closure was correctly put by Mr. Gladstone the other day when he said it was an evil, but an evil that might become necessary to prevent a greater one—the deadlocking of the legislative body. Closure is not to have the first place, but is to be kept in reserve in the background. The thing to put in front is freedom of debate, and the thing to emphasize is ample discussion. This is done, we believe, by the proposed rules of Congress, at the same time that an effective provision is made for protecting the majority against wanton filibustering.

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The $100,000,000 of surplus that Mr. Cleveland left in the Treasury in 1889 has disappeared, and in the meantime there has been an addition to the pension rolls of $50,000,000 and a loss of revenue from the repeal of sugar duties of $50,000,000. On the top of this comes the silver panic, which affects the public revenues in the same way that it affects private revenues. The Government is one among many corporations carrying on business, and it must take pot-luck with the rest. The Government is finding out, as other solvent debtors do, that what it owes is payable at the rate of one hundred cents per dollar, while its income is reduced to seventy-five cents per dollar or less. There is a possible deficit of $100,000,000 in sight for the fiscal year ending next June, and an almost certain one of $50,000,000. The Secretary of the Treasury is now meeting the deficit out of the greenback-redemption fund, the $100,000,000 gold reserve. The "working balance" of the Treasury, the amount which ought to be on hand at all times, over and above the greenback-redemption fund, has disappeared altogether, or consists only of unavailable subsidiary silver. The public may infer that the sinking of the gold reserve from day to day represents the total deficit, but it does not. It represents that portion of the deficit which cannot be staved off. There are some bills that must be paid, there are others that can be postponed. The art of postponing was introduced by Secretary Foster. It cannot be discontinued by Secretary Carlisle until his working balance of $30,000,000 is restored.

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The condition of the United States Treasury is certainly such as to require attention, but there seems to be some danger that an exaggerated impression may be created as to its prospects. It is true that a great falling off in revenue has taken place—nearly $13 000,000 during the last two months—while the expenditures have increased $5,000,000 during the same period. But it does not follow that these decreases or increases will continue, at least at anything like the same rate. The full details as to the increased expenditure have not been furnished us, but it seems that the disbursements for the army, for the navy, and for the Indians have all been materially larger than last year. These large disbursements are by no means of the most imperative character, and it is certainly to be expected that something will be done at such a time as this to prevent our expenses from increasing at the rate of $30,000,000 a year. We are not without hope of seeing a considerable saving from the revision of the pension list. On the other hand, it is altogether improbable that the revenue will continue to show any such falling off as of late. The internal revenue will suddenly start up as soon as the wheels of business are cleared of the currency entanglement, and as to the customs revenue, it seems to be forgotten that we have been importing more than $40,000,000 of gold this summer.

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We would call attention also to the fact that while the revenue of the Government from customs has greatly declined, the decline in the amount of imports has been by no means in corresponding degree. Thus the imports at New York for the last week reported were valued at $8,541,000, against $9,306,000 for the corresponding week of last year, $8,792,066 in 1891, and $7,550,000 in 1890. There is nothing very startling about these figures. The decrease in customs revenue is explained if we turn to the figures showing the amounts of goods entered for warehouse and for consumption, and the amounts withdrawn from warehouse. There we find that in the week referred to there were, in 1892, goods to the value of $2,243,000 entered for consumption, while in 1893 the value of such goods was but $1,147,000. The figures for withdrawals from warehouse are respectively $613,000 and $576,000, making the totals marketed $2,857,000 and $1,723,000. But if we look at the value of imports entered for warehouse, we find that in 1892 it was but $496,000, while this year it is $1,055,000. Here is to be found the explanation of the sudden and extreme falling off of customs revenue, and the reason for expecting that it will be, to the present extent at least, temporary.

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Mr. Worthington Ford, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, has sent a letter to Secretary Carlisle giving his final views and estimates upon the tremendous mistake made in the compilation of the trade balance of the fiscal year 1893. He finds the true balance to be approximately as follows:

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| Imports of merchandise..... | $866,400,922 |
| Exports of merchandise..... | 847,665,194 |
| Excess of imports..... ..... | $18,735,728 |

The original compilation made the imports $941,400,922 and the excess of imports $93,735,728. This startling blunder came about in the following manner. In January, 1892, an importing firm of Philadelphia complained to the Department of State that the American Consul at Messina charged one dollar for a currency certificate to accompany an invoice of olive oil, and asked why it was necessary to require a currency certificate on invoices of commodities imported into the United States free of duty or under a specific duty. The question, upon its face a reasonable one, was referred to the Treasury, and under date January 23, 1892, Mr. Spaulding, the Acting Secretary, wrote to the State Department suggesting that consular certificates showing the gold value of the currency in which the invoices are made out be dispensed with in all cases where the value of the currency did not affect the dutiable value of the merchandise. The State Department concurred; the consuls abroad were so notified, but the Bureau of Statistics at home was not notified, although one consul, Mr. Charles Heath, wrote to the State Department from Catania, Italy, in April, 1892, that the effect would be to deprive us of any accurate knowledge of the value of our imports. No notice was taken of Mr. Heath's warning, and the result is what we have seen—a mistake of certainly $75,000,000 and probably more in our trade returns for a single year.

One of the most encouraging signs of the times is the small amount withdrawn from the savings-banks under the thirty-day rule. It will be remembered that most of the city savings banks put in force their requirement of such notice on the 31st of July. The withdrawals up to September 1st have been quite insignificant, and the judgment of the bank officers is that relatively few more will be made. The immediate cause of this light demand is plain enough. First of all, the panic is over, and has been over for nearly a month. The nervous, unreasonable apprehension which encourages the locking up of savings funds is a matter of the past. For the shrewder class of depositors, who wished their money for the profit it promised—and this class has been astonishingly numerous during the recent panic—the opportunity for such use of currency has grown decidedly less inviting. The stock market no longer stands at panic prices; the premium on currency has quite vanished. It is doubtful if the average cool-headed savings-bank depositor could do better now, in the investment line, than to leave his money where it is. Not least important of all, Congress is moving steadily towards harmonious legislation under which a sound and honest standard of value shall be guaranteed. The savings-bank depositors, collectively, are among the largest lenders of money in the country, and they can trust their money to the loan market now with full assurance that it will be honestly repaid.

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A powerful argument for the establishment of trade schools on the Auchmuty plan is supplied in some advance figures from the forthcoming census which the *Century* publishes this month. They have been collected by the Rev. Frederick H. Wines, who has charge of the statistics of pauperism and crime in the census, and their accuracy cannot be questioned. They show that out of a total of 52,894 white male prisoners in all the prisons, penitentiaries, and reformatory institutions in the United States in 1890, no less than 38,156 were native born; that of 20,101 of these native born, both parents were native, of 2,729 of them one parent was native, of 3,560 of them the nativity of one or both parents was unknown, of 11,766 both parents were foreign born. Only 13,869 of the 52,894 prisoners were foreign born. That is to say, nearly three-fourths of all the convicted male criminals in the United States are born in this country, more than half of them of American parents, and only a little more than one-fourth are foreign born. It also appears from Mr. Wines's statistics as to the occupations of these 52,894 prisoners at the time of conviction, that 31,426 of them had no trade whatever, and that 23,144 of those without trade were native born. In other words, three-fifths of those who became criminals through lack of occupation were Americans. Mr. Wines's figures show furthermore that nearly three-fourths of all these prisoners were between the ages of twenty and forty, the average age being less than thirty-two years.

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For the proper background to bring out in its true proportions Mr. Gladstone's triumph on Friday in passing the Home-Rule Bill, we must look back to 1886. On June 8 of that year his first bill was thrown out by a majority of thirty, and the appeal to the country left him in a minority by more than one hundred votes. Many causes have contributed to bring about the historic victory which now has crowned his determined fight of seven years against tremendous odds. Some of them are wrapped up in his fascinating and impressive personality, and some in the general advance of Liberal ideas in England. But the main cause is undoubtedly the perception by the English people of the truth which Mr. Gladstone has made the burden of speech after speech—the truth, namely, that coercion always demonstrates its own failure, and that the only remedy left open is in the way of conciliation and yielding to the national aspirations of the Irish. That remedy may not prove successful, but if it does not, then there is no possibility of any other, and the whole problem of governing Ireland must be given up as insoluble.

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We referred recently to the discreditable attempts of some of the so-called Conservative party in England to attract voters. An instance in point has just been reported in the London *Times*. The Secretary of the "Central Unemployed Organization Committee" requested Mr. Gladstone to receive a deputation of men out of work "who were anxious to lay before him definite and practical proposals for the solution of the unemployed question." Mr. Gladstone courteously answered that he would not be able to receive the deputation, but that he would be happy to consider "the definite and practical proposals." Of course this settled that question, as the last thing to be expected from the "unemployed" is anything definite and practical. But the application to Mr. Chamberlain drew out the answer of a genuine demagogue. With the representation that while 100,000 workingmen in London were unable, through no fault of their own, to obtain employment, no other matter than this should obtain the attention of Parliament, Mr. Chamberlain expressed his agreement. He declared that it was scandalous that "the time of Parliament should be wholly wasted over this miserable Irish controversy to the neglect of the real interests of the working classes." Of course he added that the blame for this lay wholly with the Gladstonians.

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In commenting recently upon the principle of "betterment" in England, we criticised a bill introduced into Parliament at the instance of the London County Council on account of its failure to provide compensation for owners of property damaged by the contemplated public improvement. It is true that the bill makes no specific provision for such cases, but it is now pointed out by the Parliamentary Committee of the Council that the omission is apparent and not real. There appears to be a general statute providing that every person whose property is injuriously affected by any public work shall receive compensation, and this general statute is recognized by the bill in question. The only argument, therefore, which the opponents of this measure are still able to advance is, that the principle of assessing damages and benefits should be established by a general act applicable to the whole country, and not be limited to this particular instance. Upon this ground the House of Lords rejected the bill, but as the House of Commons seems determined to enact it, there is little doubt that the Lords will yield and allow a reform to be established to which the only objection is that it is not sufficiently extensive. It was with just such objections as this that Lord Eldon used to block attempts to improve the administration of justice.

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The two-years' service clause of the new German Army Bill appears to have aroused considerable jealous attention in France. Just before the Parliament was dissolved, a Deputy moved that the men who were to enter upon their third year's service next November be allowed to go home, to the great advantage of French agriculture, to the saving of $4,000,000 on the army budget, and to the establishment of the principle of two-years' service "as in Germany." The motion had no chance of success, and was not, in fact, seriously discussed, yet it greatly stirred up some of the writers on military topics. They hastened to point out that the German Army Bill makes two years only the average term of service, the cavalry and artillery being held to the three years' period, the infantry being ordinarily obliged to serve no more than two years, while the sanitary corps and some other auxiliary branches of the service get off with much less time. Further, over and above all these details, there is the provision that "the Emperor may at any time order the further service of the men whose return home is due." This is the two years' service "as in Germany." Moreover, a glance at the figures of the recruits of the past three years in France and in Germany will show that if France were to drop to the two years' plan, she would have an active army of 365,000, as against one in Germany of 528,000. This, of course, would never do, and there is no likelihood that, in either country, agriculture will be given the extra pairs of hands it needs, or that the army expenses will be cut down.

*THE SILVER DEBATE IN THE SENATE.*

SENATOR SHERMAN'S speech a week ago was intended to aid in securing the early repeal of the silver-purchasing clause of the so-called Sherman Act. All that he said, we may be sure, was said with that end in view, and all that he left unsaid was equally intended to have the same effect. The speech will have the intended effect without doubt. The Ohio Senator dealt the silverites some staggering blows, from which they will not recover. He knocked all the remaining breath out of the lie that the silver-demonetizing act of 1873 was passed by stealth and fraud. He showed up Senator Stewart of Nevada as a champion of the gold standard in 1874, a year after the passage of the silver-demonetizing act. He proved that the Sherman Act, as it is called, is a better, or less harmful, act than the one which it superseded. He commended the President for his course in urging the repeal of the act, and declared his purpose to sustain him in that particular. Finally, he adverted to the necessity of strengthening the gold reserve and meeting a temporary deficit in the public revenues by an issue of bonds, saying that the Administration ought to have that authority, and that it had never been withheld from any administration under a like emergency. All this and much more of sound teaching did Mr. Sherman offer, with the authority of a real master, for all which he has our best thanks. There were some points in his speech, however, which were of a strictly partisan type, such as his animadversions upon the expected tariff changes. These must be discounted in the same way, if not to the same degree, as Mr. Voorhees's partisan harangue. We regret that Mr. Sherman's statesmanship did not this time take a loftier flight, but we have learned to be satisfied with something less.

The Senator maintained that the present financial stringency was not due to the so-called Sherman Act, but rather to the Baring crisis of 1890, to the recent Australian crisis, and to the preparations of Austria-Hungary to resume specie payments on the gold standard. If it could be said that the act bearing Mr. Sherman's name had brought on a financial panic, that would, of itself, be a bad epitaph, although undeserved. We do not wonder that he takes some pains to remove the imputation. It was the whole course of silver legislation and silver lunacy, beginning in 1878, that chiefly brought on the present panic—not the Act of 1890 in particular. If the Bland-Allison Act had not preceded the Sherman Act, the latter might have run on for several years without bringing us in sight of the silver standard. But it is certain, and has been certain from the beginning, that whenever the public should see or should strongly apprehend the advent of the silver standard, there would be a sudden clutching of money, a sudden withdrawal of investments, and a sudden and sullen determination on the part of the holders of money not to let it go until they could know what kind of pay they would get for it. This has been the talk of financiers ever since the passage of the Bland-Allison Act. Something very like this was foreshadowed by Mr. Sherman himself in his great speech of last year in the Senate, when he expressed his readiness to vote for the repeal of the act of 1890.

So many jokes were cracked by Senator Vance on Friday that it is hard to say what part of his speech was intended to be taken seriously. We presume, however, that that portion which repeats the oft told tale about diminishing the debt-paying money of the world is so intended. We presume so because we find it in another Populist discourse the same day—that of Gov. Tillman of South Carolina, who says in the Columbia *State:*

> "They [the capitalists] are now fighting to reduce the metallic currency by one-half by making a gold standard. It's the most gigantic scheme of robbery ever attempted, and the people ought to rise in their might and put a stop to it, hanging some of the men who are causing it all, if it is necessary. They destroy the debt-paying power of one-half the coin for the benefit of the debt-holders, bondholders, and capitalists, and then tell the bankrupt people who contracted these obligations under the bimetallic standard that this country is entitled to as good money as any other country."

We like Tillman's way of putting it better than Vance's, because it is more direct, more sententious, and more in downright earnest. This debt-paying argument is the last ditch of the silverites. They have been driven from one position after another till they have taken their final stand here. But not one of them has ever told us how he proposes to keep the two metals in concurrent circulation. Unless we can have them both in use as money at the same time under the conditions of free coinage, we cannot achieve the end which Vance and Tillman are aiming at. If we are to have gold to-day and silver to-morrow, and gold again next week and silver the following week, the debt-paying basis is not broadened in the least—it is only changed. In other words, we have no greater breadth of debt-paying basis under the Vance-Tillman plan, but we do have more frequent fluctuations. Until Mr. Vance can show a practicable method for putting bimetallism in force and keeping his basis from sliding, the fewer jokes he cracks on the subject the better for his reputation as a humorist. Under any arrangement possible for this country alone, bimetallism would be like the movable sidewalk at the World's Fair, and no business man would know where his next step would carry or where it would land him.

Senator Vance ventured the prediction that the passage of the Repeal Bill would cause an immediate fall in the price of silver at least equal to that which followed the action of the India Council. This is rather risky prophesying. The price of silver bullion fell 19 cents per ounce after the closing of the Indian mints, and recovered 12½ cents before the London pessimists had fairly put their forecasts upon record. The reason for the recovery was that it was suddenly discovered that somebody, after all, had uses for the metal. Even since the closing of the Bombay and Calcutta mints nearly $6,000,000 worth of silver has been shipped to India, and a further immense amount to China. The Indian imports have puzzled London in the extreme; yet they were, after all, intelligible enough. Indian natives have for centuries used silver in its bullion form to store their wealth and make their personal adornments, much as the English aristocracy used to put their fortunes into gold and silver plate, or as the veteran archer in 'Quentin Durward' used to twist a link or two out of his gold chain to pay his tavern reckoning. It would be difficult to give any other explanation for the continued heavy silver exports from London. The habits of a nation, fixed by the practice of centuries, will hardly change at the passage of a single statute. Not only is this heavy Oriental demand certain to continue, but at the present lower price the use of silver in the arts will undoubtedly expand. Meanwhile the poorer mines will close and the better mines will reduce expenses. Whether the end of this will or will not be a further fall in silver, Senator Vance is as little able to predict as any other watcher of the market. The price is at least holding just now extremely strong under the general expectation of the Silver Purchase Law's repeal.

*MORE PARTICULARS OF THE BERING SEA DECISION.*

THE text of the Paris judgment, and of the extra-judicial advice contained in the afterpart, presents important elements not included in the reports transmitted by cable. These reports led to inexact inferences in regard to the time and areas of exclusion. No American or Briton can pursue, capture, or kill fur-seals, at any time or in any manner, within a zone of sixty miles around our islands, including the usual marine league, nor,

> "from the 1st of May to the 31st of July, both inclusive, on the high sea in that part of the Pacific Ocean inclusive of the Bering Sea which is situated to the north of the 35th degree of north latitude and eastward of the 180th degree of longitude from Greenwich till it strikes the water boundary described in Article I. of the Treaty of 1867 between the United States and Russia, and following that line up to Bering Straits."

The area last described is larger than either Government had contemplated. Bering Sea is divided in the middle, and the exclusion extends over three degrees south of San Francisco. Under the award, the "regulations" can be modified or abolished by the two Governments, and it is adjudged that they "shall be submitted every five years to a new examination, so as to enable both interested Governments to consider whether, in the light of past experience, there is occasion for any modification thereof."

There is no allusion to damages for abstention during the pendency of the arbitration. It is understood that both sides withdrew all claims under that head. The findings of facts in regard to the seizures were agreed to in advance by the opposing parties and adopted in the award, leaving the sum to be paid by us as damages to be hereafter arranged. At the end of the judgment, the Tribunal made very significant declarations which bear on the need of better management of our own Pribyloff Islands.

The treaty authorized "regulations" to be made for Bering Sea outside our territorial limits if the Tribunal came to the conclusion that Mr. Blaine's contentions for our right to seize foreign vessels in that sea outside those limits was unfounded. Over our islands and their territorial waters our jurisdiction was and is complete. The Tribunal could not, under any circumstances, prescribe "regulations" there. But the end sought was comprehensive preservation of the fur-seal, and the Tribunal evidently felt that "regulations" were needed on our islands as well as in the open sea, in order that parity of interests might be submitted to parity of rules. All the more was that needed after we had told the Tribunal that our property right in all seals on our islands was so absolute that we rightfully could, if we saw fit, destroy all the seals found on our islands, and so destroy the whole Pribyloff fur-seal herd and industry. Therefore the Tribunal gave the following very significant advice respecting our management of our islands if we wish all nations to coöperate outside of our exclusive dominion:

"(1.) The arbitrators declare that the concurrent regulations as determined upon by the Tribunal of Arbitration by virtue of Article VII. of the Treaty of the 29th of February, 1892, being applicable to the high sea only, should, in their opinion, be supplemented by other regulations *applicable within the limits of the sovereignty of each of the two Powers interested and to be settled by their common agreement.*

"(2.) In view of the critical condition to which it appears certain that the race of fur-seals is now reduced in consequence of circumstances not fully known, the arbitrators think fit to recommend both Governments to come to an understanding in order to prohibit any killing of fur-seals, either *on land* or at sea, for a period of two or three years, or at least one year, subject to such exceptions as the two Governments might think proper to admit of. Such a measure might be recurred to at occasional intervals if found beneficial.

"(3.) The arbitrators declare, moreover, that, in their opinion, the carrying out of the regulations determined upon by the Tribunal of Arbitration should be assured by a system of stipulations and measures to be enacted by the two Powers, and that the Tribunal must in consequence leave it to the two Powers to decide upon the means for giving effect to the regulations determined upon by it."

If we refuse to follow these suggestions, to put a curb on the rapacity and brutality of the lessee of our islands as exhibited at Paris, and if the other Governments decline to give their adhesion to the "regulations" made by the Tribunal, then vessels under the flag of any of those Governments may kill seals in the places and vast areas from which the two treaty Governments have excluded themselves. Nothing will, in that event, be left to the two Governments but to tear up the "regulations."

There will be some curiosity to know why the American members of the Tribunal dissented from the "regulations," if they will confine their expositions to that. But the country has no longer any interest in further vindication, by Senator Morgan or Justice Harlan, of Mr. Blaine's "eloquent diplomacy"—that is the correct phrase, we believe—nor in the Blaine-Phelps-Tracy law of wonderland expounded at Paris—its "Book of Nature"; its heresies by Puffendorf; its fur-seal "husbandry"; its false analogies between fur-seals and such domestic animals as sheep and oxen; its limitations of property to the usufruct; its title to wild animals derived from the law of nature or nations, instead of municipal law; its right of England, growing out of the defence of a free swimming fish or wild animal, to visit, search, and seize our vessels on the high seas in time of peace as in time of war; its expanding our municipal law into a sort of omnipotent, self-defensive international regulation made by ourselves and enforceable by ourselves on the open ocean; and its violation of that freedom of the seas to vindicate which we waged a foreign war in 1812.

## *RESPONSIBILITY OF CRIMINALS.*

Mr Round, the Secretary of the National Prison Association, contributes an article to the September *Forum*, in which he maintains rather old-fashioned notions concerning the responsibility of criminals. So much has been said in recent years about the influence of heredity and the effect of environment, that it has really become somewhat doubtful whether punishment should not be inflicted upon a criminal's grandfather rather than upon himself, and an impression has come to prevail in some philanthropical circles that almost the only real malefactor is society. Mr. Round will have none of this mischievous nonsense. So far as physical degeneracy is concerned, he states that his examination of a thousand prisoners showed that one-fourth of them had not only a fine, but an exceptionally fine, physical basis of life and strength, the other three-quarters falling only a little below the average of ordinary humanity. His investigation as to heredity is not yet complete, but the 700 cases so far examined show that there is no such transmission of moral qualities as has been claimed, except through physical conditions. That is, neither vice nor virtue is inherited, although the feeble or robust condition of ancestors may produce in the descendant a constitution favorable to evil or good habits respectively. "Physical conditions likely to promote criminality aside," he says, "I believe that the child of the thief, apart from his environment and possible training, starts well nigh as fairly in the race of life as the child of the average citizen." In the same strain Mr. Round expresses his conviction that crime is not a disease, and that the criminal is not insane and irresponsible. His experience is that most men guilty of crime offend wilfully, and are quite capable of living honest lives if they choose. Exception will be taken to his conclusions, but he brings out a truth which has been disregarded by a certain class of theorists.

In a sense, however, society is responsible for the criminal. It is responsible where the administration of justice is so lax and so corrupt as to make those tempted to commit crime think that they can escape punishment. It is notorious, especially in the city of New York, that political influence is sufficient to prevent the arrest of a certain class of offenders, and that, even if arrested, these offenders will never be brought to trial. Even if brought to trial, the chances of acquittal are many and the delays are long. All these things indirectly encourage crime, making its punishment uncertain, and thus diminishing the fear of punishment. As to the character of the punishment, the administration of justice and not its theory is again at fault. As Mr. Round says, the severest punishment for the criminal is to be obliged to earn his living like an honest man, and the most dreaded term is the sentence for such a period as shall effect his reformation. Our laws make suitable provision both for the nature and for the term of punishment, but they are not carried out. The prisons have been turned over to politicians and their followers, and they have failed, from either hostility or incapacity, to apply the graded system ordained by the Act of 1889, while our judges have pronounced the indeterminate sentence in hardly a score of cases. Mr. Round emphatically declares, and we fear with only too much truth, that the prisons of New York "are run solely to make political capital for the dominant party, they are run in fear of the labor element, they are run to make places for 'low-down' politicians and rewards for political leaders." We have no disposition to minimize the guilt of crime; but if crime increases under such conditions, it is not just to throw all the blame upon the criminal classes.

It is true that in the Elmira Reformatory we have a penal institution constituted and conducted upon the most scientific principles. The whole theory of the school—for it is really a school—is that the criminal is responsible. From the beginning of the course to the end of it the aim is to furnish the strongest incentives to correct conduct and the greatest deterrents from evil ways. The physical training is intended to lay a basis for moral character, the healthy man being more responsive to healthy motives. As a result, the average detention of the

inmates before they are released on parole is only twenty-two months, the indeterminate sentence thus cleaving only to the worst cases. Of those paroled during the year 1892 less than 6 per cent. were returned to the Reformatory, while the number probably relapsing into criminal ways was about 11 per cent. In this instance society may be said to do its duty by the criminal. Under the management of Mr. Brockway this Reformatory has come to be regarded as a model not only in this country but abroad, and it is constantly visited by the most distinguished penologists of every land, who testify, after careful inspection, unanimously to its perfection. It is hardly necessary to say that the institution has so far been exempted from political control, but there are indications that the sight of so much patronage politically unavailable has become intolerable to our rulers. Should they succeed in bringing the Elmira Reformatory down to the level of our other prisons, it would be a sad day for this State, and in the truest sense a sad day for the criminal classes themselves.

## THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION—VI.

### FINE ARTS: THE BRITISH AND THE NON-FRENCH CONTINENTAL SECTIONS.

CHICAGO, July, 1893.

THE galleries of the British Section have a lifeless look, and a few good pictures are not enough really to break the monotonous succession of story-telling genres, bad portraits, classical subjects treated in a literary way, weak landscapes and marines that fill the walls. The English painters are almost the only ones represented, scarcely any of the Scotchmen who at Glasgow and Edinburgh of late years have been showing something like real live work having pictures here. The English painters in general seem to think of something else than painting, and art as they understand it seems to be considered as a means of instruction, like a child's history-book, or a pretty way to point a moral. Some of the younger men, such as Stanhope Forbes, Frank Brangwyn, Arthur Hacker, William Stott, Adrian Stokes, George Clausen, Edward Stott, W. H. Bartlett, and Frank Bramley, show that they know what the art of painting means, and of course among the work of the artists of more long-standing reputation a thoroughly good picture is to be found here and there. But the average of technical achievement is low, the literary and moral conception of art is generally prevalent, and eccentricity crops out in a good many places as a cloak for weakness. There are ix canvases by Mr. Watts, at least one of which, "Portrait of Walter Crane," is a fine work, whatever may be thought of the others. Sir Frederick Leighton's "Portrait of Capt. Burton," which has made the round of international exhibitions, is as good a piece of character study and as well modelled a head as any one could wish to see, and his "Garden of the Hesperides" possesses qualities of color and a distinguished beauty of composition that make it far superior to his other works here. Three good portraits by the late Frank Holl, the same number by J. J. Shannon, and Alma-Tadema's scholarly-looking pictures of Greece and Rome, bear comparison with the work of the French and the Americans. Prof. Herkomer's "The Last Muster" is made to do service again, and two portraits of women by him, though dry in *facture*, are notable for their dignity of presence. When Mr. Moore's vigorously painted marines, Mr. Bramley's excellent out-door picture, "For of Such is the Kingdom of Heaven," Mr. S. Melton Fisher's "A Summer Night," Mr. Stokes's "The Setting Sun," Mr. W. Reynolds Stephens's decorative "Summer," and landscapes by Messrs. Davis, King, Hague, and Leader, have been mentioned, there remains but little that need take our attention. One picture, however, "Forging the Anchor," by Stanhope A. Forbes, is so good technically that one wonders how it can be the work of an English painter. The color scheme deals with only blacks and grays and the reddish glow from the hot iron at the forge, but it is harmoniously and forcibly managed; the drawing of the numerous figures is good, and there are air, space, and tone in their depiction. We do not need to be told that Mr. Forbes studied in France, but, as in his picture "The Village Philharmonic" at the Paris Exposition of 1889, he has taken a subject in his own country, and the rendering of character in his types is not the least of the merits of his work. Another picture by the same artist, "Soldiers and Sailors," is a soberly painted work with figures out of doors, very good in values and well studied, but without the completeness of ensemble that makes "Forging the Anchor," all things considered, one of the best pictures at Chicago.

The German artists in many cases make an honest attempt to paint pictures to be looked at for their own sake, but, like the English, a good many of them are given to elaborate story-telling in genre work. A certain heaviness of hand affects their portrait-painting, and in historical composition there is a pomposity that evokes souvenirs of Baron Gros when it does not more directly recall the stilted airs of Cornelius and Kaulbach. Prof. von Lenbach of Munich has a reputation as a portrait-painter. He is sometimes spoken of, indeed, as a great portrait-painter, but if the "Portrait of Prince Bismarck" and the "Portrait of Pope Leo XIII.," both lent by the State of Bavaria, are fair specimens of his work (and we have every reason to think they are, from what has been published about them), they show again what has so often been shown before, that a painter who paints badly enough to becloud his intention may be rated a great artist. The picture of the Pope is muddy in color and has scarcely a bit of well-studied form in any part of it. In handling it is slippery, and such modelling as it possesses is made by lines and tentative scratches. The portrait of Bismarck is worse, and it is more disagreeable in color even than the picture of the Pope. In every school of art, especially in England, Germany, and the United States, where there are people ready to talk and write about art who know nothing whatever about it, and get a hearing from others who know no better than to think what they say must be true, some such painting as this from time to time is exalted. It may as well be called by its right name, however: it is humbug. The Emperor William II. has been painted on horseback in a creditable but rather stupid composition by Prof. Werner Schuch, on board a steamer hunting whales in a very good marine picture by Prof. Carl Saltzmann, and in a simple half-length portrait by Prof. Max Koner of Berlin. The last-named portrait, in spite of the lack of anything better than merely respectable color quality, is an excellent work. It is life-like, well placed on the canvas, firmly modelled, and spirited as well as dignified in general aspect. The dark-blue coat, the gray overcoat with scarlet facings, the cross on the chest attached to the lighter blue collar of the coat, and the grayish white gloves form a simple but effective costume. It is all well and surely painted, and if the picture is not the work of a great artist, it is at least so much better conceived and so much more intelligently carried out than the majority of the portraits in the German Section, that it ranks easily as the best. The only other that might dispute its supremacy is an excellent full-length seated figure of Kossuth by Mrs. Vilma Parlaghy. There is a good example of the work of Gabriel Max in "Katharina Emerich," but that he descends to tricks may be seen by examining closely the texture of the white counterpane on the bed, when it will appear that the paint has been "tamped" with some sort of an instrument like a seal, with a cross-barred pattern. "The Rolling Mill," by Menzel (the only work in the catalogue by one of the most celebrated of German artists), is in no way extraordinary, but a small picture, placed on an easel in one of the galleries, showing people seated at small tables under the trees, is notable for minuteness of detail. Uhde's "The Announcement to the Shepherds" is a big brown canvas, totally uninteresting in composition, sentiment, or color; and "A Parade in Presence of the Emperor," by Hans W. Schmidt, is a creditable piece of official military painting. The "Apotheosis of William I.," by Prof. Keller, is big and rather skilfully disposed, but its artistic interest is lost in the pretentiousness of the subject. "The Congress of Berlin," by Prof. A. von Werner, is a well-painted group of portraits—an unusually successful attempt in its class to make a picture. Among the numerous landscapes there is one good little picture that deserves to be noted for an atmospheric quality which very few of those in the galleries possess, and truthful sunlight effect in early spring on an avenue of trees before the leaves have come out—"Landscape: Spring," by Miss Fanny Edle von Geiger.

The Dutch exhibition, though small, is very creditable. The pictures, particularly the landscapes, show a good deal of individuality; and sober, forceful color characterizes the work of the school. Pictures by the late Anton Mauve, Hubert Vos, William and Jacob Maris, and H. W. Mesdag are notable, and there are five canvases by Israels. He is a painter of wide reputation, who does little to justify it, and if anything could be cheaper, more vulgar, and technically worse than a head by him called "Type of a Fisherman," it would be hard to imagine it. "Fisherwomen at Zandvoort" is almost if not quite as bad, and "Alone in the World" is one of his familiar interiors with figures, a little more muddy in color and clumsy in drawing than usual. There is a fine collection of water colors from Holland, including landscape and genre, marked by cleverness of handling, charming color qualities, and excellent style. The prominent names here, some of them new to us, are Stortenbeker, Weissenbruch, Bastert, Blommers, Vrolyk, Klinkenberg, Ten Cate, Kever, Ter Meulen, Miss Wally Moes, and Koster.

In the Belgian section the absence of work by Émile Wauters, who died recently, is noticeable, but most of the well-known painters are fairly well represented. The pictures present few points of difference from those sent by France except that the average of excellence is lower. "The Walk on the Dyke at Heyst-sur-Mer," by Jan Verhas, and "Summer Sun," by Evariste Carpentier, are

the two most interesting works by figure-painters; "The Departure of the Herd" and "Road through the Dunes," by Franz Courtens, and "Orchard in Zeeland," by Verstraete, are the best landscapes; and a picture of red poppies by Emma De Vigne is remarkably good flower-painting. Ten pictures exemplify the peculiar and inartistic methods of Jan van Beers.

There is little to note in the Spanish and the Italian galleries. In the former there is a very good portrait of a French student painted out of doors by Ramón Casas, and in the latter are three portraits by Boldini. "Portrait of Miss ——" is below his mark; "Portrait of a Lady" is exceedingly clever, and most satisfactory in every way except that the artist has given his sitter, rightly or wrongly, an air that suggests the *fausse grande dame*; and "Portrait of a Girl," a child in black seated on a sofa, though just a little too pronounced in coquettishness, is a marvel of skilful painting, delightfully simple and distinctively personal in style.

There is nothing of importance in the Russian galleries except Siemiradsky's immense picture "Frina." In the Austrian Section are Charlemont's pretty "The Pages"; Brozik's historical composition representing an incident in the Thirty Years' War—the Imperial Councillors Martinitz and Slawata thrown out of the window of the Château of Hradshine by order of Count Thurn—a much better picture than his "Columbus" in the Metropolitan Museum; Makart's "The Five Senses," and five excellent small pictures by the late August von Pettenkofen. Some good portraits by Canadian artists are shown in a small gallery adjoining the British Section, those by E. W. Grier, Robert Harris, and Sarah B. Holden being notably good; and in the Venezuelan Building is hung a serious, well-painted equestrian portrait of Simon Bolivar by Arturo Michalena.

The Scandinavian painters show themselves to be in touch with the new ideas that prevail in some artistic coteries in Paris, and not a few of their pictures bear the stamp of serious, intelligent search for truth. From Denmark there is some good work by Lauritz Tuxen and P. S. Kroyer, and a fine portrait by Bertha Wegmann; from Sweden we have an interesting exhibition of seven works by Anders L. Zorn, original and charming pictures of birds and animals by Bruno Liljefors, good landscapes by Kreüger, and a portrait by Björck, in which character is well rendered. In the Norwegian galleries are landscapes of decided merit by Prince Eugene, Sörensen, and Sinding. Here, too, is one of the best studies of nature exhibited by any artist at Chicago—"Behind the Mill," by Fritz Thaulow. A stream flows under the mill, coming directly forward on the canvas in a wide, whirling flood. The swift water, churned into foam in some parts, reflects the white walls of the mill in others where it is quieter, and it is all delightfully limpid and clear. The same artist exhibits also two pastels—"By the River" and "In March"—in which dark streams are seen running between icy, snow-covered banks. Both are carefully studied, and, like "Behind the Mill," express the aspect of nature with great charm and genuine poetic feeling. There is a good deal of originality in choice of subject shown by the Scandinavian painters, and their landscape motives are novel, but there is not much to denote more than the presence of a few good Paris-trained men among them who make use of intelligent methods in their work. There is little to justify a prophecy that a new school is about to appear in the North. Such men as Kroyer and Tuxen, who were among the best of Bonnat's pupils, and Zorn and Thaulow, who make their headquarters in Paris, do much to make the Scandinavian sections interesting; but, on the other hand, we have the methods of the French in painting out of doors exaggerated to the point of caricature by Larsson, Skredsvig, and others. The best that can be said of the Scandinavians so far is that they seem self-reliant and not afraid to strike out in new fields in their own countries; and this, at least, is a starting-point (as it was in the United States), beyond which earnest endeavor may accomplish much in the future.

William A. Coffin.

## FROM FLAGSTAFF TO THE GRAND CAÑON.

Portland, Oregon, July, 1893.

Probably the number of European visitors to our Columbian Exposition would have been much larger but for the fact that most of those who wished to come were desirous of combining with the trip to Chicago a sight of our Western scenic wonders, while the "magnificent distances" which separate these wonders double the price of a round-trip ticket. The difference in this respect between Europe and America is vividly illustrated in the new and admirable United States Baedeker, the publisher of which has printed in a corner of the map of this country a diagram of Switzerland on the same scale, for comparison. There we find in a country of the size of a single one of our smaller States an inexhaustible variety of natural attractions, whereas, in order to see our principal sights, we have to cross the whole country on half-a-dozen transcontinental railroads.

During the last six weeks, nevertheless, I have come across a considerable number of foreign tourists, generally in parties, in Arizona, California, and Oregon, and most of them were provided, as was to be expected, with the new Baedeker. At the Yosemite I was told that this class of travellers almost made up for the natural falling off in the number of visitors caused by the World's Fair. At only one place did I fail to meet any of them, and that was at what Capt. Dutton has called "the most sublime of all earthly spectacles," "a great innovation in modern ideas of scenery," and which is certainly the most stupendous and original of American spectacles—the Grand Cañon of the Colorado River in Arizona—characteristically American in being the biggest chasm in the world, just as Niagara is the biggest waterfall, Superior the biggest lake, and the Chicago Fair the biggest exposition ever held. The reason of this neglect of the Grand Cañon lies in the fact that it is only since last summer that it has been made readily accessible, and is therefore not as generally known and as much talked about as the Yosemite, the Yellowstone, the Columbia River, Puget Sound, and Alaska. Until last summer those who could not procure a wagon, camping outfit, and guides of their own, were able to visit the Cañon only from Peach Springs, whence they reached it in a not particularly impressive spot, and were able to see it only from below, as the road gradually descends to the river bed. Four years ago I wrote in my 'Pacific Coast Scenic Tour' that the projected new road from Flagstaff would rob the Cañon of some of its cathedral grandeur by bringing the visitor to the top instead of the bottom; but, after reaching the new point of view, I instantly changed my mind. The Peach Springs route will indeed never cease to be used, for it has charms of its own not encountered on the other route—a greater profusion and variety of cactuses, wonderful specimens of Arizona mountain architecture, a mysterious nocturnal creek, and the tributary Diamond Cañon, which realizes better than any accessible part of the Grand Cañon itself the popular idea of a cañon, as being a deep, dark, narrow chasm between two threatening walls rising perpendicularly to a height of half a mile or more. But to grasp the true grandeur of the main Cañon one must see it from the place opposite Point Sublime to which the new stage-road of the Atlantic and Pacific Railroad takes us.

The Atlantic and Pacific is the only railroad by which the Grand Cañon can at present be approached, but this is no drawback, since, like other parts of the great Santa-Fé system, it provides excellently for the comfort of passengers, especially in its eating-stations, which are all under the same management, and supply meals far superior to those usually served in transcontinental dining-cars or stations. Along this route, too, are to be found the most interesting remains of Indian and Mexican life and habitation (Santa Fé, Laguna, Acoma, etc.). Much of this can be seen even from the car window; and at the stations, where the Indians assemble to sell curios (pottery, dolls, walking-sticks made of the porous ocotillo cactus, etc.), it is amusing to see how their boys and girls have learned to dodge the wily kodakers by keeping in the shade of the Pullman cars until a dime or a quarter has been offered them to overcome their superstitious objection to photography which they share with the Mohammedans.

Flagstaff, where we get off for the Cañon, is a purely American lumbering town, with no Indian or Mexican features, unless it be the burros and the large number of dusty dogs which look as if they had never had a bath. Water is as scarce at Flagstaff as in most Arizona towns, and dogs and men must consider themselves lucky if they can get enough for internal use. What little there is is brought by the railroad company in water-cars from a spring half a mile away, and at the street corners you will notice little boxes with the inscription, "Leave orders for water." At the hotel towels are no larger than a small napkin, probably in order to discourage any extravagant bathing propensities on the part of guests. Nor is Flagstaff otherwise an attractive place, except for the young pine trees amid which it lies buried, and the imposing San Francisco Mountain to the north, snow-covered eight months in the year.

Before starting for the Cañon—for after that has been seen everything for a while seems an anti-climax—half a day should be devoted to an eight-mile drive in the opposite direction, to the cliff dwellings of the Walnut Cañon. The cañon itself is easily found, but a driver should be taken to show the way to the caves along its steep sides. The road is enlivened by numerous prairie-dogs, scampering in all directions for their holes as the carriage comes into sight. They are very destructive to grain-fields. All the fine trees along the road have been cut, and nothing used except the best part of the trunk—with the same American wastefulness that formerly led hunters to slaughter deer by the dozen and save only the best cuts. The road is for the most part level, and as Flagstaff lies at an elevation of 6,935 feet above the sea, it is natural that we should arrive at the top of the cañon, whence

there is a steep clamber down to the cliff dwellings, but not a dangerous one, there being evidence that even cattle have found their way to some of the caves, in search of grass. There are dozens of these Indian cliff dwellings on both sides of the cañon, like swallows' nests built along the precipitous limestone walls. They are not deep, but some are of considerable length, with cemented partitions, most of which have been unfortunately destroyed by unscrupulous relic-hunters. Whatever may have been the object for which these curious dwellings were excavated, it is clear that they can have been used only in winter, since in summer the only source of water, the brook at the bottom of the cañon, dries up.

Walnut Cañon is one of those extraordinary holes in the ground which in Arizona suddenly open before the astonished wanderer through forest or desert, and which constitute one of the unique features of our Southwestern scenery. Yet were it not for the cliff-dwellings it would scarcely arrest the attention, for it is only three miles long and a few hundred feet deep, whereas the Grand Cañon is 180 miles long and in some places more than a mile deep. The most impressive portion of the Grand Cañon is situated about seventy miles north of Flagstaff, and can be reached by stage in about eleven hours. The round trip is made three times a week (fare $20), the start being early in the morning; and as the hours before sunset are the best time in the day for seeing the Cañon, those who are in a great hurry can get a glimpse of its grandeur and return the next day. Others should devote at least two or three days to excursions along the brink. The trip from Flagstaff is somewhat fatiguing on account of its length, and the heat and dust; yet the dust is not as persistent and annoying as on the way to the Yosemite, and the heat is often mitigated by a brisk breeze, in which warm blasts from the Painted Desert of the Little Colorado alternate oddly with cool waves from the San Francisco Mountain. The road-bed is usually level and smooth, except here and there where we traverse one of those stony patches that abound in volcanic regions, and where the ground is roughened with igneous rocks burnt full of small holes—somewhat like the bark of trees in which woodpeckers have deposited their acorns.

For these rocks the San Francisco Mountain is, of course, responsible. It is an isolated extinct volcano, 12,794 feet in height, somewhat resembling Mount Shasta as seen from the south, and forms the pivot around which the Grand Cañon road turns, just as Shasta does for the Oregon and California Railroad. For several hours after leaving Flagstaff the road ascends gradually till it reaches a height of about 9,000 feet, only a few miles from the base of the mountain, where the air is delightfully alpine and exhilarating. Thence the ascent of the peak is occasionally made, the greater part of it being possible on horseback. The view obtained is chiefly of the illimitable desert, with a number of minor volcanic peaks and buttes, but no very high ranges, so that the ascent is less tempting to tourists in search of scenery than to students of science, who may find here the plants and animals of seven different life-zones, from the tropical sands of the desert to the arctic snow of the summit, with many curious commixtures and surprises, as, for instance, a humming-bird flitting across the very summit of the mountain!

There is hardly a moment on the whole trip to the Cañon when this grand mountain is not in view, now fully, and again with only its snowy summit peeping out between the tree-tops. Those who take their own team and camping-outfit, can make the complete circuit of the mountain by keeping to its left on the way home; but the stage has to retrace its course, on account of the relays of horses, which cannot be kept on both sides. Apart from the mountain there is not much to attract the attention *en route*, unless one is a stranger to the phenomena of the desert, or of the great pine forest, through which we drive more hours, in fact, than we do across the desert. A specimen of this wood (yellow pine) is on exhibition in the Forestry Building at Chicago, with this placard: "Arizona, known as the treeless desert, has 2,000,000 acres of pine like this, untouched by the axe." The abundance of these trees in the midst of the desert is, indeed, one of the principal surprises awaiting the visitor to the Cañon. They are fine stately trees, with plenty of elbow room, but not a few seem to have an insecure foothold in the sand, and strong winds have made them lean to one side; many others have been destroyed by the terrible lightning that often plays among them; and now the lumberman's axe is descending on them; yet it will take some time to exterminate 2,000,000 acres of trees. The absence of underbrush gives this forest a clean, park-like appearance.

Agreeable variety is provided by an occasional colony of the quaking aspen, looking very striking, with their pale-green leaves and snow-white trunks, almost a hundred feet in height, and straight as masts. According to Dr. Merriam, the porous soil of this region "supports a sparse growth of bunch-grass which is high enough after the rainy season sets in to conceal the rocky surface, and, at a little distance, to present the appearance of a meadow." But in the dry season grass is scarce, and the absence of flowers places this route in unpleasant contrast to the Yosemite road, along which there is a constant succession of new flowers. There are indeed a few cactus blossoms—some on the brink and along the walls of the Cañon—which try to atone by their brilliant crimson color for their isolation, but even cactus is scant here. In a region where even the sage-brush of the northern alkaline deserts finds its southeastern limit, one would expect an abundance of drought-loving cactus; but I fancy that the cold and snow of winter often prove fatal to it; for it must be borne in mind that we are here at an elevation of over 7,000 feet, and that the climate is entirely unlike that of neighboring California, where it rains only in winter, while this Arizona plateau, like Mexico, gets its principal rains in midsummer (provided it gets any at all), and in winter the snow often lies several feet deep.

Evidence that Arizona has not had enough rain for two or three years past had been painfully evident from the car-windows, and was still more so after we left Flagstaff. Every few minutes the skeletons of cattle were seen lying near the track, some with the dried skin still drawn over them; in one place there were eighteen of them in a group: they had evidently succumbed to thirst before they could reach the station that was to take them to Kansas. Along the stage-road from Flagstaff to the Cañon, I was surprised to find a number of grain-fields which get along without irrigation, and not a few cattle and sheep ranches, with many animals. Some cattle were also kept at the stations where we changed horses, and which consisted merely of a stable for the horses, a tent for the man in charge, and a lonely dog who was always delighted when the stage came. Water is usually piped to these stations, and there is enough for the cattle as well as the horses, but food is very scant, and the cattle have a dwarfed, lean, and rough appearance, looking as if they had licked each other all over and the hair had refused to be smoothed again. It is certainly not a paradise for animals—excepting lizards, of which there are many species; yet in the groves near the Cañon deer and antelope are said to be still quite abundant, and the Indians still come here to hunt. They used to call at the camp, too, until their visits were "discouraged." The omnipresent coyote, of course, abounds. We passed one only a hundred yards from us, and, instead of running, it stared at us boldly. Perhaps it had heard that the California authorities had just stopped paying a bounty on coyote scalps, most of which were imported from Arizona. These cowardly animals are sometimes so crazed by thirst that they rush up to a spring while men and cattle are drinking from it, and can thus be killed with a stick or stone.

HENRY T. FINCK.

## THE MEMOIRS OF GEN. BIGARRÉ.

PARIS, August 15, 1893.

AFTER the great Napoleon, shall we have all his brothers and sisters? and not only his brothers and sisters, his mistresses? M. Frédéric Masson has already published in the literary part of *Figaro* twenty-five articles under the heading, 'Les Femmes de Napoléon.' The series is not finished yet, and it will make a volume. I have before me the 'Memoirs of General Bigarré, aide-de-camp to King Joseph.' This last mention was necessary, for, as a general, Bigarré left no reputation. People will read these memoirs chiefly for details about one of Napoleon's brothers and his ephemeral reigns in Naples and in Spain. General Bigarré wrote towards 1830; he was at that time fifty-five years old. The manuscript was presented to the library of Angers.

The publisher tells us candidly that "the style is not correct, the phraseology is often strained or trivial; the *gauloiserie* will often shock the least prudish; the judgments are not very elevated. But, in spite of these reproaches, it seemed to us that the innate honesty of this rude and illiterate soldier, his sincere patriotism, his enthusiasms, even his prejudices, which are a faithful and curious reflection of his time, the importance of the events and the personages he had seen, were capable of pleasing and interesting a reader." And so they are. I opened the book with diffidence, and read it with pleasure; the part of the memoirs anterior to the Revolution has a special interest, inasmuch as Bigarré was a Breton, and gives us curious particulars as to his province. His father was seneschal of Belle-Isle-en-mer; he himself was born on January 1, 1775, and was the thirteenth child of the family. He very early imbibed military tastes, as the island was garrisoned by two Swiss regiments, Courten and Castella, which were replaced after four years by two other crack regiments. Bigarré was destined for the sea and made his first journey to Bordeaux at the age of twelve. He studied afterwards a little hydrography and mathematics at Lorient. He was only fourteen when the Revolution of 1789 broke out; he was allowed, however, to wear the new uniform of the National Guard, and he was the first to show at Belle-Isle the blue coat, with its white lining, and the pink collar and cuffs. "Everybody looked at me as one of the children of the brave Lafayette, as one of the defenders of the country."

His father sent him on a merchant ship to San Domingo, and while he was there he became a witness of the revolt of the colored population and of the bloody struggles which took place in the West Indies. On his return to France he found everything changed. The majority of the officers of the army and navy had emigrated; in the Normandy regiment which was garrisoned at Belle-Isle, there were twelve places of sub-lieutenant vacant. Bigarré's father obtained one for him at the age of eighteen. He was enchanted to wear the white uniform of Normandy. His first campaigns, alas! were made in Brittany against the Chouans and the Vendeans; his father and his brother were threatened every day with the guillotine, and he was obliged to fight the men who were the armed adversaries of the Terror. The war which he had to make resembled much that in which he had participated in San Domingo—a war of surprises, of ambuscades, of devastation. Bigarré was employed against the émigrés of the Quiberon expedition; he saw the unfortunate Sombreuil, who was executed, as well as all the émigrés who were taken prisoners at Quiberon. He joined the naval expedition which was sent by Gen. Hoche against Ireland. He was on the ship *The Rights of Man*, which had to sustain a terrible fight and was afterwards wrecked in Bantry Bay. Bigarré was one of the survivors of the Legion of France, which had been organized for Ireland, a legion of 2,600 volunteers clad in the uniforms taken at Quiberon. The Irish expedition was, on the whole, deplorably conducted. "England," says Bigarré, "rejoiced at our disasters. She saw Ireland escape a revolution which would have freed her; she was not ignorant that we brought to Ireland a government of her choice, arms for an army, and 12,000 picked men to rid her of the English yoke."

Bigarré, after this unhappy expedition, was sent to the army of Sambre-et-Meuse. We find him first on the Rhine, then going to Paris with his regiment to help the movement which has kept the name of the 18th Fructidor. This movement was the triumph, says Bigarré, of the Republican party over the irresolute and the inconstant. The three Directors, Barras, Rewbell, La Révellière-Lépeaux, turned Carnot and Barthélemy out of the Directory; arrested Pichegru; deported fifty-two Deputies and several generals. After the 18th Fructidor, Bigarré was sent to Switzerland, and afterwards to Bavaria. The account of his campaigns is oddly mixed up with the story of his numerous and necessarily short love affairs; he was eminently one of those warriors who were, in the language of his time, devoted equally to Mars and to Venus, and he would have us think he was as irresistible in the domain of love as on the battle-field. His fatuity is simply ridiculous, but his adventures somewhat relieve the tedium of military operations, though they have an unpardonable vulgarity and did not deserve to become a part of the memoirs. But it is clear that Bigarré thought that love and war were one and inseparable. In love, he says, as in war, "vaincre sans péril, c'est triompher sans gloire"—thus altering a classical verse,

"À vaincre sans péril, on triomphe sans gloire."

At the waters of Luxeuil, where he was sent for his health, he made the acquaintance of Mme. Bonaparte. He danced with her daughter, Hortense Beauharnais, who became Queen Hortense, and he was induced by the kindness of Josephine to write a letter to Bonaparte asking him for a place in the picked body called the Consular Guard. Bonaparte appointed him captain in the chasseurs of this guard. Bigarré had now many occasions to see the First Consul, who resided at the time at Malmaison. He now thought of marrying, and asked for the hand of a young lady whom he had known in Alsace at Colmar. This lady gave her consent, and they were married in 1802. Mme. Bigarré had seen much of Mme. Bonaparte at the house of Rewbell, who was her uncle, and was intimate with Hortense Beauharnais. Mme. Bonaparte had a small theatre at Malmaison, which became the rendezvous of the ambassadors, of the highest personages of state. The principal actresses were Hortense de Beauharnais, Caroline Bonaparte, Mme. Savary, Mme. Duchâtel; the best actors were Eugène de Beauharnais, Bourrienne, Savary, Lauriston, Marmont. Masséna had a fine estate near Malmaison. One of the best portraits of Napoleon represents him in the dress of the Consular Guard walking before Malmaison. In the famous portrait by Gérard (now at Chantilly) the Emperor also wears the green uniform of the Guard of the Consuls.

When the First Consul began to meditate the 18th Brumaire, he sounded Rewbell, the ex-Director, several times, who was living quietly at Arcueil. Bigarré tells us that Rewbell did not like the First Consul, and gave him to understand that he could not work on his side, but "that Bonaparte might count on his neutrality in case of extraordinary events."

"I knew well," says Bigarré, "the ex-Director Rewbell, since for three years I saw him every day either at his house in the Rue de Varennes or at his country house at Arcueil. I can attest that he was a man of much *esprit* and of great firmness of character. The First Consul knew so well that he was a statesman and a Frenchman *par excellence* that he several times sent word to him by Mme. Bonaparte or by Gen. Lefebvre that it only depended on him to become a minister."

M. Rewbell would never submit to pay court to the First Consul. He did not esteem Fouché nor Talleyrand, and would never consent to be their colleague. After having been Director, Rewbell died without leaving to his children any greater fortune than he had in 1789. "His eldest son was persecuted by the First Consul for having been a witness for Jerome when he married Miss Paterson at Baltimore, and for having brought to Gen. Bonaparte a portrait of his sister-in-law." We learn also in these Memoirs that the Rewbell family rendered many services to Mme. Bonaparte during the Egyptian expedition; she always remembered it, "but the austerity of Rewbell's principles constantly thwarted the good intentions of this generous woman."

The Consular Guard proved to be the nucleus of the Imperial Guard. Bigarré became a Colonel and commanded a regiment of the Guard at the camp of Boulogne and in the campaign which ended at Austerlitz. During the battle, a battalion led by him was charged three times by the Russian cavalry, and in the last charge lost its eagle; the man who carried the flag received twelve wounds before it could be taken from his hands. Bigarré was much mortified by the loss of this eagle. Napoleon reviewed Vandamme's Division, to which he belonged, on the 25th of December at his headquarters in Schönbrunn; and, on arriving before the Fourth, which was Bigarré's regiment, he spoke thus to the battalion which had no eagle: "Soldiers, what have you done with the eagle which I confided to you? You swore to rally round it, and to defend it at the risk of your lives. How have you kept your promise?" Bigarré came forward and said that his regiment had done its whole duty; he explained at length how the unfortunate event had taken place. The Emperor smiled: "Well, you shall have another eagle." He invited Vandamme and all his colonels to dinner; but Bigarré was so outraged by the reproaches of Napoleon that he sent his excuses and did not join the other colonels. In vain did Napoleon afterwards appoint Bigarré Officer of the Legion of Honor; he resolved to offer his services to Prince Joseph Bonaparte, who had been appointed King of the Two Sicilies, and waited quietly for the answer of the new King. Joseph readily accepted his offer, and Napoleon authorized Bigarré to enter his brother's service. When he took leave of him, before quitting France, Napoleon said to him: "Well, are you angry with me, since you leave my service?" "Sire, I beg your Majesty not to think it; in going to Naples I hope to serve you more actively than here." "Well, tell the King that he must give you a regiment of his guard to command, and remain always a good Frenchman."

Bigarré was now beginning a second life, as it were; he was separated from the Grande Armée and following the fortunes of Joseph Bonaparte. This portion of the Memoirs contains many interesting details, especially in regard to Spain and the popular movement against the French. The Memoirs end in the year 1812; we are not told if this volume is to be followed by a second one, or if Bigarré, for some reason or other, did not continue to write. In 1830 he could have had much more to say on the eventful period which separates 1812 and 1815.

# Correspondence.

## SILVER IN POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The movement which will soon result in the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law proves conclusively that the silver folly has hitherto flourished chiefly through the sufferance and indulgence of those who could not be brought to believe that such madness could count seriously against a nation "of boundless resources." Men like Senator Sherman have up to the present crisis been governed in their financial course, not by economical principle, but by supposed political expediency. The present policy would never have been forced upon the country by any amount of ignorant or interested agitation, had not the authors of political platforms, the editors of partisan newspapers, and leaders in the halls of Congress, indifferent to remote results, attempted to outbid each other in securing the Western or Southern vote. I think it safe to affirm that practically none of these men, after careful study, honestly judged the policy advocated in party platforms to be wise. Their insincere juggling with dangerous catchwords was of a piece with their usual treatment of the tariff and the so-called labor problems. It is upon them, therefore, that the blame for a disastrous and expensive experiment rests, and it is to be hoped that they have laid its lesson to heart.

There is, however, one ambiguous phrase which has lately become current, that leads me to fear that we are not yet out of the woods. The silver question, we are told, and rightly told, is not a party question. Does this mean that both parties may in the future contain both sound and unsound-money men?

Are the combined sound-money men of both parties to be steadily antagonized by the combined cheap-money men within the same organizations? Despite Mr. Bland's reappointment, let us hope not. Leaders must recognize that no party which is uncertain on the money issue can continue to direct public affairs. No matter what a man's opinions on the tariff, if he believe in the efficacy of depreciated currency, he should be driven into the Populist camp; for the cheap-money demagogue necessarily holds that as the first and chief article of his creed.

If a fearless and unflinching programme like this can be executed, we are assured of the leisure and moderation required for future exigencies. Aside from the invaluable educational work of this summer's difficulties, the proselytizing power of any idea will be seriously impaired if it is branded as the hobby of the "long-haired men and short-haired women" who gather under the banner of Senator Peffer and Mrs. Lease. Ideas, like men, are known by the company they keep; and commerce would certainly have little to fear from any doctrine that is the peculiar property of the Alliance. The business and laboring men who have hitherto "favored silver" have followed the guidance of a Senator, editor, or Representative, whose opinions, in turn, have been dictated only by the desire to court favor through the flattery of popular prejudice. The common people may be relied on, if their leaders remain true and genuine: Grover Cleveland's career proves that. A. F.

Louisville, Ky., August 28, 1893.

## JAY AND GARDOQUI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your notice of the last volume of Prof. Johnston's 'Correspondence and Public Papers of John Jay' you speak of Jay's "weakness with Gardoqui." You refer, of course, to his willingness to yield for a term of years the free navigation of the Mississippi, while still asserting the right to it, in exchange for liberal commercial concessions on the part of Spain. Jay may have shown weakness in that matter, but if so he was weak in good company. For example, Washington, who had visited the Western country the year before, wrote to Richard Henry Lee, President of Congress, August 22, 1785, as follows:

"However singular the opinion may be, I cannot divest myself of it, that the navigation of the Mississippi, *at this time*, ought to be no object with us. On the contrary, until we have a little time allowed to open and make easy the ways between the Atlantic States and the Western territory, the obstructions had better remain. There is nothing which binds one country or one State to another but interest. Without this cement the Western inhabitants, who more than probably will be composed in a great degree of foreigners, can have no predilection for us, and a commercial connexion is the only tie we can have upon them. It is clear to me that the trade of the lakes, and of the River Ohio, as low as the Great Kenhawa, if not to the falls, may be brought to the Atlantic ports easier and cheaper, taking the whole voyage together, than it can be carried to New Orleans; but, once open the door to the latter before the obstructions are removed from the former, let commercial connexions, which lead to others, be formed, and the habit of that trade be well established, and it will be found to be no easy matter to divert it, and *vice versa*. When the settlements are stronger and more extended to the westward, the navigation of the Mississippi will be an object of importance, and we shall then be able, reserving our claims, to speak a more efficacious language than policy, I think, dictates at present." (Works, ix., p. 119.)

B. A. Hinsdale.

Ann Arbor, Mich., August 26, 1893.

## EVOLUTION MISUNDERSTOOD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Taking up *Nature* of August 10, I find in it a certain inference from Darwinism which I have frequently seen before, and which thus far seems to have passed muster unchallenged, though certainly false; at least I have nowhere seen its validity denied.

*Nature* says that the *New Review* contains an article by Prof. Ludwig Büchner on "The Brain of Women," and proceeds to give from it the following extract:

"If we consider that for thousands of years woman, by reason of her subordinate social position, has received a different education from her male partner, and that her training has led her in quite another direction than his, that her horizon has been a more limited one, and, moreover, that every encouragement has been given to the play of her emotions at the expense of the activity of her intellect, and, finally, that this state of affairs has lasted from generation to generation through mother to daughter, then I say that from a physiological standpoint there should be no cause for surprise that, as a result, woman should differ from man, that her brain should be inferior to his, or at any rate should have developed on different lines, or, as we have been saying, that the fore part of her brain should be found to be proportionately less and the hind part proportionately greater than that of man."

Now, I submit that our natural qualities, aptitudes, propensities, come to us not through *one* parent but *both*, and that there is no such a thing as descent of natural faculties or deficiencies in line female only. It is too well known to require being insisted upon that the daughter will inherit aptitudes, peculiarities, features, form, etc., from father as well as from mother, and that the son will thus inherit from mother as well as from father.

Whatever, therefore, may be true of the deficiencies or excellences of the minds of women as compared with the minds of men, this result must be due to the natural course of development of the female organism as distinguished from the male, under like conditions.

Respectfully, Werner A. Stille.

St. Louis, August 26, 1893.

# Notes.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready 'Essays in London and Elsewhere,' by Henry James, and 'The Work of John Ruskin: Its Influence on Modern Thought and Life,' by Dr. Charles Waldstein.

Books on the scenic wonders of the Pacific slope are multiplying fast. One of the latest is 'The Yosemite, Alaska, and the Yellowstone Valley,' by Wm. H. Wiley and Sara K. Wiley (New York: John Wiley & Sons). It consists of a series of papers reprinted from *Engineering*, descriptive of a journey of 10,000 miles, undertaken by the American Institute of Mechanical Engineers. It includes an account of the trip across the Union Pacific Railroad to Pike's Peak, Garden of the Gods, and other Colorado attractions, the return trip being made via the Northern Pacific. The style of these descriptions is frankly journalistic, often superficial, sometimes graphic, with plenty of spice in the form of drolleries and witticisms such as are apt to be perpetrated on such a journey. Some of the jokes and descriptions are repeated, giving evidence of careless editing, but, taken as a whole, the book is readable and calculated to stimulate the appetite of intending tourists. The best part of it is the chapter devoted to Alaska. The visit was made early in the summer, the result being sunlight twenty-one hours out of twenty-four at the northernmost point, and there was more snow and ice than are usually encountered on this trip. A good description is given of the Muir Glacier. Among the evidences of dawning civilization was an Indian brass band at Sitka. The young men "played surprisingly well, keeping the most perfect time." There are no fewer than 157 illustrations, some from photographs taken by members of the party, others familiar scenes that may be bought in the stores. Those of the Leland Stanford University will be new to most readers of books on the Pacific slope.

The 'Boston Illustrated' guide-book issued for some twenty years with periodic patching by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., has been written *de novo* by Mr. Edwin M. Bacon, and freshly illustrated by pen-drawings from one hand. Mr. Bacon's capacity for his task was exemplified in his admirable 'Dictionary of Boston.' He now takes up the city in the order of its quarters, and what he forbears to insert in the text often finds a place in the index, which abounds in statistics, historical notices, and such data as the price of board at hotels. This is a very satisfactory innovation. There is a new folding-map of the city, and sections of it are interleaved with the descriptive narrative.

The plural title of 'Les Moreau' in the series "Les Artistes Célèbres" (Paris: Librairie de *l'Art;* New York: Macmillan) holds good for but a few pages. The elder of the Moreau brothers, Louis-Gabriel, has almost no history, and M. Adrien Moureau's concern is with Jean-Michel ("Moreau le jeune"), the engraver and designer, who illustrated in the most prolific manner Ovid and Molière, President Hénault and 'Orlando Furioso,' Rousseau and Voltaire and Laborde, the great 'Monument de Costume' of 1789, and many another work. He was born in 1741, and faithfully caught the lineaments of the old régime in its downfall, and has recorded with his pencil the opening scenes of the Revolution, in which, though he still continued to produce into the present century, he underwent a change, like most things about him. M. Moureau is a candid biographer; he introduces many copies from Moreau's prints and from his unpublished sketches in the Museum of the Louvre.

A pamphlet 'In Memoriam' of the late Col. Charles C. Jones, jr., LL.D., historian, biographer, and archæologist (1831–1893), by Charles Edgeworth Jones, published at Augusta, Ga., records the literary productions of one of the most industrious writers of our time. Col. Jones was educated at three colleges—South Carolina, Princeton, and Harvard—and, after serving on the Confederate side in the civil war, he lived for a period of twelve years in this city and vicinity, practising law and composing work after work in his four favorite lines, viz., Indian antiquities, Revolutionary, Georgian, and Rebellion history and biography. With the more permanent publications were mingled addresses and newspaper articles to the total number of eighty. These were all of serious and mostly of high merit. We read of his father, a Presbyterian clergyman, that he was eminent for his "devotion to the cause of the evangelization and moral elevation of the human race." To Col. Jones himself we owe an essay on 'Negro Slaves and their Relations to the Confederate Government during the Civil War,' and the little volume 'Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast,' for which even "Uncle Remus" had left room.

The *Sewanee Review*, a quarterly journal of much promise issued by the Faculty of the Uni-

versity of the South at Sewanee, Tenn., completes its first volume with the current (August) number. In this number most to be remarked of the eight leading papers is one on "Features of American Slavery," principally from the point of view of the legal status. The tone is restrained and passionless, but the writer's candor and humane sympathies are apparent. Speaking of the stress laid by the laws on prohibiting the teaching of slaves to write, he surmises that the intention was to prevent "communication on the part of the slave with people at a distance." But there was a much nearer motive. Ability to write meant ability to counterfeit passes which would outwit the ignorant midnight "patterrollers," and so permit a freer intercourse between plantations or even pave the way to a fugitive's "enlargement."

There is an accent of truth in a biographical sketch, "An Abolitionist," in the July number of the monthly *Home and Country* (New York: Joseph W. Kay), which purports to give an inside view of the "Underground Railroad," not only as a receiver and forwarder of voluntary fugitives, but as an organized promoter of business by runners at the South. The branch which fell under the writer's observation was that of Ohio. He expresses his surprise that "no history of this remarkable body [U. G. R. R.] has ever been written," but Still's History and Smedley's (for Pennsylvania) and the Reminiscences of Levi Coffin (for Ohio) are well-known works, and Harriet Tubman's heroic adventures as a runner-off of her own color have also formed the subject of a memoir. We do not, however, remember to have read of any river scheme like that somewhat incredibly described by Mr. M. H. Peters, the magazine writer in question.

A fine analysis of the traits of the late Guillaume Guizot by his intimate friend M. A. Sorel, President of the Cercle St.-Simon, is given in the July Bulletin of that historical society. A man of the most ready and brilliant conversation, a scholar whose memory was extraordinarily sure and extensive, he died the writer of but one work, his 'Ménandre.' He had projected an edition of Montaigne, but his idea of preparation for it resembled that prescribed by Mark Pattison for the editing of Selden's 'Table Talk': "il y voulait faire entrer dans ce livre tout un siècle, tous les antécédents de ce siècle, toutes les suites dans les autres siècles." His end was attended with great suffering, which he bore unselfishly and stoically. His dying father had had Corneille read to him; he murmured Virgil's

"O passi graviora, dabit Deus his quoque finem."

His endurance of the operation on his throat caused the surgeon's assistant to exclaim, "This is a man of Utica." But Guizot wrote, as soon as he was able: "That youngster is mistaken; Cato was not of Utica, he merely died there."

The first Circular of Information from the Bureau of Education for the current year is a third, revised edition of Mr. Julius Ensign Rockwell's 'Shorthand Instruction and Practice,' an historical work of world-wide range, especially valuable for its statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States for the year ending June 30, 1890, its chapter on the employment of stenographers in courts, and its comparative tables of shorthand alphabets.

A brief history of the Chilian Revolution of 1891 has just issued from the Office of Naval Intelligence at Washington (War Series No. IV., Information from Abroad). It is a report from personal observation by two officers of the *Baltimore*, Lieut. Sears and B. W. Wells, jr. The causes of the hostilities are stated, and the course of hostilities followed to the end, with maps and photographic views. The leading manifestoes of the two opposing parties are given in an appendix. The Hon. Patrick Egan cuts a modest figure, and the bias of our navy and the bullying of our Government have nothing to do with this narrative.

Among this year's notices of collegiate honors taken by women, mention should be made of the award of the mathematical fellowship (value $400) at Cornell University for 1893-94. There were twelve applicants, nine men and three women, of whom one was from Girton College, Cambridge. As it is stated that the candidates "showed very remarkable ability," Miss MacKinnon (a M. S. of the University of Kansas), to whom the fellowship was finally given, can enjoy the satisfaction of feeling that she has contributed her modest quota to a mass of cumulative proof of the mathematical quality of the feminine intelligence. Such proof is still further reënforced by the latest announcement from the examiners (or, as they are technically called, the "Moderators") in the Honor School of Mathematical Moderations at Oxford. No Oxford residence students went in for this examination, but four women from outside colleges were well placed; two graduates of Royal Holloway College securing a first-class, and one student each from the Royal Holloway and from University College, Cardiff, taking a third-class.

No more picturesque episode in the evolution of higher educational opportunities for women has occurred in our generation than the admission last year of two young Chinese women as medical students at the University of Michigan. These almond-eyed followers of Hippocrates are Christian converts who expect on their return to China to approach their fellow-country women as missionaries, under the persuasive and merciful guise of the good physician. They are officially reported as being "very intelligent, excellent students, having no trouble in doing the work of their respective classes. . . . Indeed, they are regarded as more than average students."

Apropos of the recent citation of Increase Mather's application in 1692 of the term University to Harvard, the following extract may be of interest. It is taken from Mather's 'Brief Account concerning Several of the Agents of New-England, etc.,' dated London, November 16, 1691. We have italicized the various denominations employed for the same institution:

"As long as that Countrey [New England] lay unsettled, as to the Civil Government, I could not do much for the *Colledge;* only I prevailed with a Gentleman of my Acquaintance, to bequeath a Legacy of Five Hundred Pounds to that *Society*. And now in this New-Charter, all Donations or Revenues granted to that *Academy*, are by the King, under the Great Seal of England, Confirmed. I humbly proposed to some great Ministers of State, That a particular Charter might be granted for the Incorporating that *School* for Academical Learning. Answer was made, That it should be so, if I desired it: But that a better way would be, for the General Court of the Massachusetts Colony, by a Law, to Incorporate their Colledge; and to make it an *University*, with as ample Priviledges as they should think necessary," etc.

—A singular quality is given to the tone of the September *Atlantic* by the fact that the number consists almost entirely of essays. The verse is cut down to a minimum, and the only portion of fiction allowed is an instalment of Miss Murfree's "His Vanished Star"—a novel so like several of its predecessors that one feels already familiar with its plot and its characters. Most of the essay matter is in the gently meditative manner. The authors discourse staidly of love and marriage, of wayside happenings on a Florida road, and of such of the vegetable contents of the woods and fields as small boys delight in. The subjects of other articles are, it is true, of more solid importance, but in nearly all the tone is oppressively courtly or gravely impersonal. The notable exception is a vigorous reply by President Walker to Prof. Shaler's singular assertion, in the preceding issue, that a technical school not connected with a university is in all probability an anomalous or impermanent growth. His opponent's argument turns the tables by reversing Prof. Shaler's assertion, and declaring that, however beneficial the association of the technical school with the university might be to the university, it may be questioned whether the technical school would be better off, "in view of the multitude of distractions which beset ordinary student life, and the frivolity of many of the interests which are there deemed of prime importance."

—In the September *Century* fiction is merely one of the elements of construction. It is for the most part mediocre, and the peculiar alertness, freshness, and vigor so characteristic of our best periodicals are here produced by a skilful blending of kinds of subject-matter. Thus we find articles in which statistics from the census of 1890 support inferences as to the results of unrestricted immigration and as to the relations between idleness and crime among our native-born population. Interesting, too, is the biographical and critical matter relating to Defoe and Webster, the compact sketch of W. J. Stillman's adventurous life, and the continuation of Salvini's autobiography. The longest article in the issue, as well as that best worth repeated reading, is Mr. G. E. Woodberry's "Taormina Note-Book." It is less a record of what a traveller saw day by day in one of the loveliest of Sicilian towns than an essay in which are embedded all the more permanent impressions made on the mind of a scholar and a poet by the wealth of associations that history and the muses have showered upon Sicily, and by its native beauty of sea and sky and mountain.

—The leading article in *Harper's* is Mr. Davis's account of still another side of English life—the picturesque happenings that attend a general election in the country. Mrs. Pennell describes with enthusiasm another out-of-the-way French town, this time Rocamadour, which she calls "an Albert Dürer town set in an Albert Dürer landscape"; and Col. Dodge continues his now somewhat bewildering enumeration of the peculiar characteristics which distinguish the various kinds of horses and horsemanship in Eastern lands. In addition there are interesting papers which concern directly American biography and history. Mr. Norton gives extracts from some twenty letters of Lowell's, most of which are taken from the forthcoming volumes of his correspondence. Like the letters published by Mr. Stillman, and such others as have found their way into print, these rank among the highest of their kind, so completely do they fulfil Lowell's own dictum that "a letter ought always to be the genuine and natural flower of one's disposition—proper both to the writer and the season—and none of your turnip japonicas, cut laboriously out of a cheap and flabby material." Ex-Senator Maxey tells the story of the colonization of Texas and its brave career as a republic until

it became a part of the Union. Mr. Janvier continues his interesting researches among the relics of bygone days in New York, by following the course of the old Abingdon road—which, it seems, was known in the last part of the last century as Love Lane—and the fortunes and transformations of the estate and village of Chelsea. The remaining articles are biographical sketches of Prof. Barnard, the astronomer, and of Daniel de Gresollon, Sieur de L'hut, the soldier, explorer, and adventurer for whom Duluth was named.

—The current number of *Scribner's* shows how far afield our periodicals often run in their pursuit of the fresh and interesting. Not reckoning in the fiction, scarcely one article deals with strictly American materials. The leading article and the frontispiece concern Isaak Walton. Mr. Sullivan describes with loving minuteness the manuscript of Thackeray's "Roundabout Papers," which the Harvard College Library now possesses by gift of Mr. Leslie Stephen, and finds the details of its composition characteristic of the author. Andrew Lang contributes a laboriously erudite epistle to Samuel Pepys, Esq., intended for a new edition of "Letters to Dead Authors." Austin Dobson, at home in all that pertains to the history of English literature and society in the eighteenth century, writes with consummate accuracy and charm of the home life of Samuel Richardson. Other articles deal with the evolution of modern clothing, with the proverbial tides in the Bay of Fundy, and with the life and trade of the machinist. The only contribution that deliberately casts in its lot with the people, fashions, and customs peculiar to these United States is Robert Grant's "Opinions of a Philosopher," which comes to an end in this number.

—The first part of 'Die Wahrheit über Emin Pascha' (Berlin: D. Reimer), by Vita Hassan, contains a fairly interesting account of affairs in the Equatorial Province from January, 1881, till the breaking off of communications with Egypt two years later. The author, an Italian by nationality, though an African by birth, was the medical officer of the province, and writes intelligently and with an evident attempt at impartiality of the events which came under his notice. Though his narrative, thus far, contains little or nothing that is new, he has much to tell of the manners and customs of the Sudanese Arabs which is curious and entertaining. His account, for instance, of the marriage ceremonies of the former is singularly graphic. In the latter half of the volume he sketches the history of the eastern Sudan from its conquest by Egypt to the fall of Khartum. He has little sympathy with Gen. Gordon, and criticises his first administration severely, as marked by blunders and disastrous to Egyptian interests. His final failure he ascribes to an overweening self-confidence. Of Emin there is, as yet, comparatively little said, and praise and blame are about equally bestowed. The general impression left is that his rule differed but little from that of an upright and enlightened Turk. When he saw oppression, he relieved it, if it was possible, but he seems to have been able to put few checks upon the savagery of his soldiers. Raids for cattle—and apparently for slaves—were not uncommon. The only instructions which Emin gave when they were made upon tribes with whom they were at peace were that they should be without damage to persons, houses, or fields. It may be remembered that the soldiers left by Emin, who have been recently stationed by Capt. Lugard in Uganda, are a serious menace to the welfare of the country through their raids. Emin is also described as being very suspicious and jealous of his higher officers, and several instances are given of his arbitrary or underhand treatment of them. On the other hand, he is represented as displaying high qualities as a ruler, and it is made evident that with better material to work with he would have accomplished far more than he did in developing the resources of the Equatorial Province. A portrait of the author, who died in March last, is given. The book is translated into the German from the French by Dr. B. Moritz, who occasionally adds an explanatory note or corrects an error in the original text.

—Of the two fragments of early Christian literature brought to light last year, the Gospel and the Apocalypse of Peter, the Gospel naturally attracts the most attention from students of Christian origins. In the Apocalypse, however, are several features of unusual interest for the student of social and literary history. This document, attributed by Harnack to the first half of the second century, far antedates all other extant Christian detailed and realistic descriptions of the torments of hell, and is thus the prototype of that species of literature, widely popular at a later date, of which Dante's 'Inferno' is the greatest example. The torments themselves are elaborations of fancies derived from Greek sources, perhaps the Orphica, and are chiefly interesting when looked upon as in the initial stage of centuries of service as the terror of all, both the wicked and the good, the awful background of death. From the sins for which these torments are inflicted we get a most instructive glimpse of the moral feeling which pervaded early Christian society. The growth of asceticism is foreshadowed by the severity with which sexual offences are punished. In regard to the rich and comfortable we find a vindictive tone which offers a striking counterpart to the bitterest utterances of modern socialism. This is the way in which the tables would be turned in the next world: "And in another place were jagged stones, sharper than swords or any spit, glowing with fire; and women and men clothed in filthy rags were rolling on them being punished. Now these were the rich that trusted in their riches and did not take pity on the orphans and widows, but regarded not the commandment of God." This picture is a very natural outgrowth of Luke xvi. 19–31 and James v. 1, or of what lay behind those passages. The next verse contains the earliest Christian condemnation of taking interest: "In another pool filled with blood and matter and boiling filth, stood men and women up to their knees; these were they who took usury and demanded interest on interest." The verse immediately following deals with those guilty of abnormal sexual offences, and thus, curiously enough, we find the same juxtaposition of sinners which is so striking in the eleventh canto of the 'Inferno':

> "E però lo minor giron suggella
> Del segno suo e Soddoma e Caorsa."

In the Apocalypse the collocation is not so apparently intentional, and the punishments are different, but with little choice in regard to painfulness. This passage in Dante probably strikes most readers as the very essence of mediævalism. In this point, as in many others, the mediæval view was nearer primitive Christianity than we realize. A mass of literature is rapidly accumulating about these two documents. Harnack's 'Bruchstücke des Evangeliums und der Apocalypse des Petrus' (2d ed., Leipzig, 1893) is probably the most complete edition. It contains the text, with introduction, translation, and notes, besides a detailed critical excursus on the Gospel and full indexes. Harnack is the authority for two or three of the more important historical statements given above. The English reader will find an English version with commentary in Robinson and James's 'The Gospel according to Peter and the Revelation of Peter' (London, 1892).

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OHNEFALSCH-RICHTER'S KYPROS.—I.

*Kypros, the Bible, and Homer:* Oriental civilization, art, and religion in ancient times elucidated by the author's own researches and excavations during twelve years' work in Cyprus. By Max Ohnefalsch-Richter, Ph.D. With a letter to the author from the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone. Two volumes. Vol. I.: Text; Vol. II.: Plates. London: Asher & Co. 1893. Folio, pp. ix, 530; 7, ccxviii.

RICHTER'S full report of his work in Cyprus is a welcome addition to the resources of the student of archæology. Coming after the other explorers, he is able to verify or correct and to use their observations, and thus to make his book in a sort a history of Cypriot research. With some of these gentlemen he has unnecessary tilts respecting questions of priority in discovery, but in general his tone regarding his work is quiet and not undignified, though in the nature of the case often self-assertive. What he has done may safely be left to speak for itself: he has not only made important discoveries, but (building in part on others) he has laid the foundation of a scientific arrangement of the material, without which the details will be of comparatively little value. The account of his excavations is given chiefly in the opening chapter of the first volume and in the explanations of the plates. The body of the work is devoted to an examination of Cyprian deities and cults, and their relation to Egyptian, Semitic, and Greek religious ideas and customs; it is, in fact, a contribution to the history of one side of the old Semitic-Greek religion.

The number of details with which the author has to deal is immense, and it is not strange that he does not always succeed in bringing them into orderly array. Nor is it surprising, though it is regrettable, that the costly English translation, printed at Berlin, is typographically bad; in addition to the errata given at the end of vol. i., many words are misspelt, the punctuation is often faulty, and there is inconsistency in the writing of proper names. In some cases also the translation appears to be incorrect. We do not forget that the difficulties in bringing out the work were great; nevertheless, in so important a book we have a right to expect accuracy of printing. On the other hand, the illustrations in the second volume are admirable in execution, and bring together materials from various quarters so as to allow of helpful comparison. Too much praise cannot be given to the author's patient industry and conscientious devotion. His reading is wide, his references to authorities are numerous and precise, and he is careful to assign to each his own. The explanations of the plates are full of matter, and the author's suggestions and hypotheses, scattered throughout the two volumes, are always interesting, if they do not always commend themselves as correct. The indexes and cross-references are good, but there is no table of contents.

The main object of the work is to exhibit

Cyprus as the meeting-point and distributing-centre of the ancient world, and to show how it illustrates and how it helped to form the religious framework of Semites and Greeks. The discussion is archæological-historical rather than theological-historical; it confines itself to showing the existence of certain representations of deities and cults in Cyprus, and does not attempt to examine into the origin of the religious ideas that underlie them. This limitation is perfectly proper: Richter's investigations are of the nature of a preparation for the theogonic history.

Among the points of special interest in his work is his description of the Astarte-Aphrodite cult. It has been held for some time that the Greek Aphrodite was of Semitic origin. The grounds on which this view is based are the Semitic coloring of the Greek goddess and the indication of Oriental origin in the earliest Greek notices of her. Richter has added nothing of great importance to this evidence, but he has traced the history of Astarte-Aphrodite images from the early fetish-forms to the final creations of Greek art. He is no doubt right in recognizing a close relation between the conic Aphrodite of Paphos and the quadrangular goddess of Athens. This progression of forms is what we should expect, and it is perhaps only in Cyprus that we could find it demonstrated. A noticeable feature brought out is the nose-ring in statues of the goddess; this is, however, chiefly interesting as an illustration of the general rule that religious form is imitation of social custom. The animals connected with the Cyprian Aphrodite are doves, hares, birds, and fishes. The relation between deities and sacred animals is one of the obscurest points of ancient religious history, and one on which the present work does not attempt to throw light. The author is concerned to prove only that this special combination arose in Cyprus. More generally, he holds that Cyprus was the birthplace of Aphrodite, in both her characters of love and of war, the spot on which the Greek feeling out of the crude Semitic material fashioned the exquisite form of the goddess of the Homeric poems and of the later sculptors.

This is, however, a small part of the theogonic and other work that he assigns to the island. He finds here the origin of the Harpies, the Sirens, the Erinnyes, of Heracles (out of the Babylonian Izdubar-Eabani), of one aspect of Athene, of the principal type of the archaic Græco-Phœnician Artemis, of the Carthaginian human sacrifice, and even of the Persian Anahita. For some of these combinations there is much to be said. Cyprus was, as far as we know, the first common dwelling-place of Greeks and Semites, and where else should we look for the most ancient figure of Aphrodite? The other cases adduced by Richter are less convincing. For the Heracles type we should perhaps turn more naturally to Asia Minor: there seems to be no need of localizing so old a Semitic custom as human sacrifice in Cyprus; and the derivation of a somewhat obscure Persian goddess from a Mediterranean island is precarious. In general, though we must credit Cyprus with a considerable share in the formation of ancient Greek mythological figures, and possibly also of old religious rites, it is wise, at the present stage of investigation, to wait for further light before making the very broad generalizations with which these volumes abound. Exploration is constantly revealing points of contact between ancient peoples hitherto undreamed of—witness, for example, the Amarna find. Egypt is coming into prominence, along with her great rival, Babylonia. Amid such a mass of social exchanges we must pause before undertaking to fix definitely the points of creation of special theological types.

True to his title, our author adduces numerous illustrations of Biblical things and customs. The sun-pillar (*hamman*), especially connected in the Bible with the worship of Baal, apparently as sun-god, is a frequent figure in Cyprus; whether it was originally and properly metallic in distinction from the wooden post, as Richter thinks, seems to be doubtful. Greater interest attaches to the wooden post, the *ashera* (translated "grove" in the King James version), which plays so prominent a rôle in the prophetical and historical books of the Old Testament. The word has called forth an animated discussion within the last three years. There is no doubt that it signifies the wooden pillar which stood by the shrine of Astarte, and was worshipped as a representation or symbol of the goddess. But it also appears in the Old Testament as the name of a divine being. Some scholars held that this use of the word was due to a late erroneous confusion between god and symbol; the discovery of the word in an Amarna inscription proves, however, that it is really the name of a goddess. What, then, is the relation between the ashera-post and the goddess Ashera?

Our author suggests an explanation as simple as it is obvious. The primitive representation of this deity, as of many others, was an aniconic, amorphous post. When, in process of time, more ambitious idols were introduced, the ancient fetish-form (as also in many other cases) retained its special sanctity, stood alongside of the shrine or image, and bore the name of the deity. An interesting illustration of the persistence of an old form is given in the lately discovered exquisite Artemis group (p. 312), now in Vienna, in which the goddess in her full Greek form leans on an archaic image of herself. The word *ashera*, in the sense of "post," is not to be derived immediately from a verb meaning 'to be straight or upright,' but is to be taken as coming from the divine name. Nor can we say with our author that Ashera is identical with Astarte; she is an independent deity (perhaps the female counterpart of Assyrian Ashur, Hebrew Asher) who in Canaan was probably merged into Astarte.

Cyprus affords examples of a widespread ritual practice generally referred to in connection with the enigmatical passage (Ezek. viii. 17) in which the idolatrous Jews are reproached with "holding the twig to their noses." We often see a goddess or an attendant smelling a flower, an act that appears to be religiously symbolical. It is not probable that this custom will avail for the explanation of the Bible passage in question, the text of which appears to be corrupt; but the custom itself is of interest as a survival of tree worship, a cult the peculiar treatment of which by our author we will speak of further on. His illustrations of Biblical and Homeric customs are generally apposite, but we have not space to cite further examples.

Richter makes a striking contribution to folk-lore in the instances he adduces of the preservation of old Græco-Phœnician customs in modern Cyprian Christian ceremonies. The festival of St. Lazarus (on the Saturday before Palm-Sunday), in which a Lazarus boy dies and comes to life, recalls the Adonis rites and the women weeping for Tammuz, as do the ceremonies of Good Friday and Easter Day. The cakes of meal, honey and oil, and the kolyva of nuts, almonds, figs and other fruits, seem to be not different from the offerings anciently made at the Adonia, and the kolyva even appear to be a survival of the worship of ancestors. In so many cases in religious ritual and in the dress of the people is such survival evident that Richter is justified in seeking for the explanation of ancient manners in those now in vogue. Cyprian women wear over their foreheads pins of gold or silver, the heads of which represent sometimes doves, but more generally various kinds of fantastic figures. But, whatever the shape of the head, the pins are always called *pesounia*, "little doves." Connecting this with the fact that the dove was sacred to Astarte-Aphrodite, Richter concludes that in ancient Cyprus the priestesses of the goddess, and other women in the character of her devotees, wore such pins with dove-heads. Whether or not he is right in this particular case, it seems probable that the present life of the Cypriots furnishes material out of which the old Græco-Phœnician life, on its social as well as on its religious side, may be reconstructed in not a few of its main details.

## BROWN'S VENICE.

*Venice:* An Historical Sketch of the Republic. With maps and plan. By Horatio F. Brown. London: Percival & Co.; New York: Putnams. 1893. Pp. xxiii, 434.

Mr. Brown has achieved a work long deemed impossible: he has written, within the compass of a single volume, a satisfactory history of Venice. The subject has tempted many historians, and some have grappled with it, but none has hitherto mastered it. The secret of Mr. Brown's success is his power to separate the essential from the accidental in the career of Venice. Hitherto, the picturesqueness or the melodrama of certain portions of that story has prevented historians from treating the whole symmetrically; but the first requisite for a historian is to see the totality—to know the stream of a nation's development from its source to its mouth—and this gift Mr. Brown possesses. He can afford to eschew florid descriptions of particular events who can trace with unerring keenness the progress of human destiny in the life of a whole people. So the reader will find in this book little enough about *bravi* and dungeons and all those other stage properties which romancers and poets have pitched upon as peculiarly Venetian; but he will find, instead, a clear account of the way in which Venice organized her government at home and extended her powers abroad.

Venice endured as a State for more than twelve hundred years—longer, that is, than any other Christian State, and almost as long as the See of Rome. What was more improbable than that a settlement of fishermen on a cluster of mud-banks in the Adriatic should grow to be a commonwealth unsurpassed in commercial prosperity, in political steadiness, and in real magnificence? After the Venetians had overcome their first difficulty—how to subsist at all on those mud-banks—the problem before them was whether to reach out for territory on the neighboring mainland or in the distant East. Fortunately, everything conspired to their expansion as a trading people, whereby they escaped the danger of being swallowed up in the innumerable quarrels which tormented northern Italy during the Middle Age. When the time came for them to seek territory in the Valley of the Po, they were already strong. Trade enriched them, dealings with many different races gave them experience, their contact with the Orient kindled their sense of beauty, their eminently

practical temperament discouraged internal broils. Thus, by the beginning of the thirteenth century, they had come to be one of the strongest Powers in Europe, and, in proportion to their size, by far the richest. Then desire of rule began to lead them astray. They sacked Constantinople; they waged an inevitable war with Genoa, a war from which they issued triumphant but weakened; they acquired great possessions in the Levant, and planted their power on the Italian mainland, and so excited the jealousy of Europe that she formed the League of Cambray against them. From the disasters of that League Venice never recovered. Outwardly, for two hundred years, she was splendid, but death was slowly numbing her vitals, and she had no strength left with which to resist Napoleon's *coup de grâce* in 1797.

But to the student of political systems the organism of Venice is even more significant than the story of her outward expansion, and it is on this side that Mr. Brown's book is especially satisfactory. He shows how the early spirit of the Venetians was democratic; how they chose a leader, or doge, but successfully prevented the dogeship from becoming hereditary in any family, and then proceeded to make of the doge a pomp but not a power. The Venetians dreaded most of all the tyranny of one man; escaping this, they then fell under the tyranny of a caste. Their oligarchy is one of the marvels of history. We see plainly how it developed out of the original democracy, but it is not so easy to see how it retained for 500 years the affection of its subjects. One of the characteristics of the career of Venice was its freedom from internal rebellion; compared with the long ages of quiet, the little conspiracies of Tiepolo or of Bedmar seem hardly more than the cocoons of some pestiferous insect on the bark of a millennial oak. And yet the mechanism of Venetian oligarchy was rigid, and its methods were arbitrary. The numberless checks against ducal ambitions, the establishment of committee to watch committee, the secrecy and espionage, should have tended to make the Government odious to all those Venetians who had no active hand in it; but such was not the case. The common seaman or artisan, or the merchant who, by the closing of the Great Council in 1297, was for ever excluded from the dominant caste, was not less devoted to Venice than were the Great Councillors themselves. Even for most of these real power was an illusion; they but registered the will of the Forty, who in turn revolved at the pleasure of the Ten; and, finally, by a further condensation, the Ten themselves were summed up in the Three.

In this way Venice overcame the difficulty, inherent in an oligarchy, of securing despatch and decisiveness from a multitude of advisers —a result which students who derive profit from historical parallels may compare with the expansion of the committee system and the exorbitant magnification of the Speaker in our own Congressional history. So far as Venice is concerned, this political development is described by Mr. Brown with a clearness which leaves little to be desired. What we should wish to have more fully illustrated is the way in which so autocratic and exclusive a government succeeded in inspiring the devotion of all classes of Venetians: we understand why it was obeyed, but the historian should explain how the oligarchy which could, and relentlessly did, compel obedience, caused itself to be beloved. That this was the case, no one can deny. A people as virile as the Venetians would not, for ages together, have upheld a government whose despotism was detested, and yet no people has surpassed the Venetians in civic disinterestedness: the nobles gave their lives and treasure to the service of the State; the bourgeoisie submitted to taxes which in an emergency amounted almost to confiscation; without a murmur the plebeians manned Venice's war-ships to fight her battles in all parts of the Mediterranean; her priests were Venetians before they were Romans; her great artists, like Tintoret, craved the honor of decorating gratuitously her monuments rather than accept rich rewards from foreign princes. How was it that the ideal Venezia came to exercise this supreme influence over the hearts and wills of all Venetians? Her political organization alone does not explain this.

Mr. Brown lays due stress on the capture of Constantinople by "blind old Dandolo" in 1204; if Venice had not thereby hopelessly shattered the already enfeebled Byzantine Empire, and had she not, in the fourteenth century, crushed her rival Genoa, it is possible, he thinks, that the Turks might have been kept out of Europe, and that Venice herself would not have been punished for her truculence by losing her rich possessions in the East. This is possible; but in history it is rarely profitable to speculate on what might have been; rather is it profitable to examine the conditions which, at a given time, caused a given policy to be embraced. This Mr. Brown does with great acumen, indulging but rarely in speculations. He agrees with the best critics of Venetian history in regarding the death of Mocenigo and the election of Foscari in 1423 as marking the high tide of Venetian power. After that Venice increased in splendor, and even in apparent power, but her organism had reached the limit of its growth, and what followed was an ossification which long concealed her inward debility. Indeed, the Venice that we know best, whether through her existing monuments (with the exception of St. Mark's), or through story and painting, is the Venice of this later period, and there could be no better proof of her original vigor than that it sufficed for nearly four centuries after she had passed her prime to give to her Government a semblance of stability which astonished all beholders, and to adorn her decline with works of incomparable beauty. That she fell was due not alone to the arrogance which led her to undertake foolhardy enterprises: no mortal wisdom could have foreseen that the voyage of the Portuguese Vasco da Gama to the Indies in 1497 (incorrectly given as in 1486), or of the Genoese Columbus to America in 1492, would cripple her commerce and ultimately work her ruin. For Venice those voyages, which have been of incalculable benefit to mankind, were in the highest sense *fatal*, like the plague from the effects of which Athens never recovered: they show how the career of a whole people can be blasted by an inscrutable destiny.

We have said that Mr. Brown has the historian's sense of totality, and we have indicated the general lines along which he has been most successful. Let us now make a few suggestions of changes which, we believe, would improve his already excellent work. Here and there, especially in the first half of the book, a page of statements concerning the general political condition of Europe, and particularly of Italy, would be of great help to those readers who do not carry in their heads a compendium of universal history. At present, as Mr. Brown has drawn her, Venice is too isolated; yet a paragraph would often suffice to show her organic relations with her neighbors. Mr. Brown takes for granted, for instance, that the reader knows all about the Exarchate of Ravenna, and the attitude of the Holy Roman Emperor towards Italy, and that of the Pope towards the Emperor. Our notion is that an historical work should be, if possible, self-explanatory, though the explanatory passages may be very brief. Further, we could not have refrained, had we been telling the story of Venice, from giving some account of her artistic development; not to do this is to leave out one of the most important clues to an understanding of Venetian character. No history of England, no matter how concise, would be well-rounded which should omit to describe the development of English literature. In the case of Venice painting, architecture, and sculpture took the place of literature, and ought to be chronicled in order that we may know that the Venetians were more than merchants, diplomats, and luxurious nobles.

A more serious defect is the change of method adopted by Mr. Brown in treating the history of Venice after 1530. Hitherto, he has written as an historian; henceforth, he writes as an essayist. The last two centuries and a half of the Venetian Republic, he says, are noteworthy on only three points: her losing struggle with the Turks, her conflict with Rome in matters spiritual, and the final development of the Council of Ten; and he proceeds to devote a chapter to each of these points. The result is that, instead of having a narrative in which these phases are treated simultaneously, generation by generation, we are carried through the Turkish wars to the peace of Passarowitz, in 1718; then we go back two hundred years, and pursue religious affairs to the death of Sarpi, in 1623; then we go back again to 1529, and take up the thread of internal politics, following it to the extinction of the Republic, in 1797. In other words, we have not a history, but three essays on three different topics, and the effect is unsatisfactory. One of the highest achievements of an historian is the production of a sense of simultaneousness; to bring up his episodes in detachments reminds us of the way in which De Long's Arctic explorers had to make seven trips backwards and forwards in order to drag their lifeboats and provisions over the ice-floe.

But, after making these deductions, we still repeat that Mr. Brown's is the best history of Venice that has ever come into our hands. Its style, indeed, lacks distinction of phrase, but it is straightforward and clear. We wish that he had given references to the passages which he quotes, and that he had provided a better index. These, and the correction of various misprints, should be added in the next edition.

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*Science and a Future Life.* With Other Essays. By Frederic W. H. Myers. Macmillan. 1893. 12mo, pp. 242.

THE career of the author of this little volume shows how a deep interest in the problem of human destiny may transform the cast of a mind from the literary to the scientific, without at the same time damping the emotional ardor with which life began. In the second essay in this book, "Charles Darwin and Agnosticism," Mr. Myers quotes the well-known passage of Darwin's Life in which the great naturalist deplores the decay of his æsthetic and sentimental faculties: "Now for many years I cannot endure to read a line of poetry. . . . My mind seems to have become a kind of machine for grinding general laws out of large collections of facts; but why this should have caused the atrophy of that part of the brain alone on which the higher tastes depend,

I cannot conceive," etc., etc. Without comparing Mr. Myers to Darwin in the matter of "science," his case inevitably suggests the other contrast. His earlier essays and his poems were the fruit of an exclusively literary, æsthetic, and religious culture. His contributions to the Psychical Research Proceedings show him as a wide reader of neurology and collector and classifier of masses of rare and problematical facts. But now in this latest volume he reappears with that serenity and hope in definite methods of work which it seems the peculiar blessing of a scientific occupation to confer, but still with the old sense of life as an emotional "problem," and with unabated rhetorical fire.

The Essays (not counting a memorial of the late Prince Leopold) are five in number, and under their diverse titles have the same essential aim, which is to show, first, how disconsolately irrational is the view of the world which merely materialistic science and merely mundane history offer to the mind's acceptance; and, second, how probable certain kinds of neglected fact have made it that the world which science acknowledges is but an extract, and the history which we see about us but a fragment, of a larger universe of which we as yet know nothing definite, but which, if known, might satisfy our rational need. What Mr. Myers proposes is thus primarily not a dogma, but a method. Nothing could be further from him than to try to convict agnosticism of error on dialectic grounds. Others may do that: he seeks first to make the reader feel its insufficiency, and then to invite him to a practical channel of escape, by following which he has himself been cheered. In other words, he shows the agnostic horse the medicinal waters, but refrains, in these pages, from forcing him to drink. Hence the great persuasiveness of his writing. It does not challenge the resisting attitude, as so many onslaughts on materialism do. For, considered as a non-"psychical researcher," Mr. Myers is himself an acute case of agnosticism, and feels all the disconsolateness of which he writes. It is only as psychical researcher that he has recovered, and yearns over others that they should do the same. The following passages come as near as anything in the book to giving an expression of his positive faith:

"Of late years the induction of hallucination in sane and healthy persons during the hypnotic trance has begun to be recognized as an experimental method of great value in psychology. But comparatively few savants have as yet recognized the extreme variety and instructiveness of the phantasmal sights and sounds which occur spontaneously to normal persons, and which it is now for the first time becoming possible to study in a systematic instead of a merely anecdotic manner. . . . The study of cases of [a certain] type, many of which I have set forth elsewhere, has gradually convinced me that the least improbable hypothesis lies in the supposition that some influence on the minds of men on earth is occasionally exercised by the surviving personalities of the departed. I believe this influence to be, usually, of an indirect and dreamlike character, but I cannot explain the facts to myself without supposing that such an influence exists. I am further strengthened in this belief by the study of the automatic phenomena. I observe that in all the varieties of automatic action—of which automatic writing may be taken as a prominent type—the contents of the messages given seem to be derived from three sources. First of all comes the automatist's own mind. From that the bulk of the messages are undoubtedly drawn, even when they refer to matters which the automatist once knew, but has entirely forgotten. Whatever has gone into the mind may come out of the mind, although this automatism may be the only way of getting at it. Secondly, there is a small percentage of messages apparently telepathic—containing, that is to say, facts probably unknown to the automatist, but known to some living person in his company or connected with him. But, thirdly, there is a still smaller residuum of messages which I cannot thus explain—messages which contain facts apparently not known to the automatist nor to any living friend of his, but known to some deceased person, perhaps a total stranger to the living man whose hand is writing. I cannot avoid the conviction that in some way—however dreamlike and indirect—it is the departed personality which originates such messages as these. I by no means wish to impose these views upon minds not prepared to accept them. What I do desire is that as many other men as possible should qualify themselves to judge independently of the value of the evidence on which I rely—should study what has been collected, and should repeat and extend the observations which are essential to the formation of any judgments worth the name. . . .

"I place together, then—as I claim that history gives me a *prima-facie* right to do—certain experiments which have, so to say, gained general acceptance but yesterday, and certain cognate experiments which are on their way (as I think) to general acceptance on some not distant morrow; and I draw from these a double line of argument in favor of human survival. In the first place, I point to the great extension and deepening which experiment has given to our conception of the content and capacities of the subconscious human mind—amounting, perhaps, to a shifting of man's psychical centre of gravity from the conscious to the subconscious or subliminal strata of his being—and accompanied by the manifestation of powers at least not obviously derivable from terrestrial evolution. And in the second place, I claim that there is, in fact, direct evidence for the exercise of some kind of influence by the surviving personalities of departed men. I claim that the analysis of phantasmal sights and sounds, treated by careful rules of evidence, indicates this influence. And I claim that it is indicated also by the analysis of those automatic messages which in various manners carry upwards to the threshold of consciousness the knowledge acquired from unknown sources by the subconscious mind" (pp. 32, 35).

In other words, Mr. Myers writes himself down with decision as a "spiritualist," but it is hardly necessary to note how greatly his methods and temper differ from those which are usually associated with that name. But, be his spiritualism true or false, his merits as the first comparer and coördinator of these abnormal phenomena along their whole extent must always be acknowledged. What strikes one most in the present volume, after its felicity of style, is the breadth of the author's intellectual sympathies. The book may be cordially recommended to all who are interested in the higher aspects of contemporary thought.

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*Life of Sir Richard Burton.* By his Wife, Isabel Burton. 2 vols. Appletons. 1893.

A LIFE of Sir Richard Burton by his wife promises to be interesting, though we hesitate, and wonder whether, in spite of his adventurous and romantic career, the interest can be kept up to the end of two such ponderous volumes. We pick up one of them, and, examining the binding, we discover on the front a faithful hound standing mournful by an imaginary grave: on the back, a hand, marked R. F. B., protruding from a cloud, and letting down a shower of glory on a weeping female form, at whom the head of a Chinese dragon makes faces from behind. We open and see a "Consecration" "to my earthly master"; and by the time we have finished the "Foreword" our curiosity is thoroughly aroused.

Unfortunately, it soon subsides as thoroughly, and without the satisfaction of finding anything new or noteworthy. Hitchman's biography of Burton, six years ago, gave a good enough idea of the man as viewed by an ardent admirer, and for whoever wants more there are his own eighty-odd publications. We should have been glad of a purely private life, a picture of his extraordinary character; and no one was so competent to give us this as the woman who stood by him in sickness and in health for thirty years, facing many of the same hardships and perils, lightening his toil, and sharing his disappointments. So she thinks herself, and indignantly answers those who have dared to doubt her fitness for the task. We are loath to criticise a labor of love, even when the love is not supplemented by good judgment. Absolute, unquestioning devotion is touching; we can sympathize with hero-worship, and are willing to overlook several instances of very questionable taste. What we complain of is not what Lady Burton tells us about her husband, but the mass of other things she inflicts upon us. Our attention is taken up not so much by what "he thought and did" as by what she writes. She says: "I have no leisure to think of style or polish, or to select the best language, the best English—no time to shine as an authoress. I must just think aloud, so as not to keep the public waiting."

We tremble at what might have happened if Lady Burton had had the leisure to shine, for, hurried as she was, two-thirds of what she has written might have been profitably omitted. The long appendices should have been kept for the new work she promises us, 'The Labors and Wisdom of Richard Burton'; the host of newspaper puffs belong only in her scrapbook; and much of the rest would burden any diary. To put it harshly, Lady Burton is very garrulous. She seldom travels anywhere—and she was travelling a good part of the time—without favoring us with the name of the hotel at which she stopped, and telling us how she liked it, what there is to see in the place, and how she got there. When she has a dinner party, or goes to one, we know who was present, we learn about her efforts in the cause of the prevention of cruelty to animals, we read her letters to Aly Sloper, etc., etc., etc. We can only be grateful for what we are spared. For instance, "I do not think that a list of the aboriginal tribes of Brazil at the time of its discovery (one hundred discovered by Cabral in 1500) would amuse my readers or fit in with my subject." Neither do we, but we lose something perhaps more attractive:

"One thing I always regret in writing is, that I could recite so many amusing and interesting things that would immensely please a very large portion of English people; but England is so very queer, and I am become convinced it is not the same England I used to know, that I do not like to venture them. They are not in the least risky, only amusing and adventurous, but, being very honest and straightforward, would be sure to tread upon somebody's corns; blame or sneers would be sure to crop up from some quarter or another, and make me regret it."

The perfect naïveté of the author of this passage at times lends a charm to what would otherwise be wearisome reading, while her earnestness and sincerity command our respect. This is not her first appearance, as she has written two books of travel, besides other productions which have never reached the public. She was not allowed to put her first attempt into print: "He thought I must study and copy many years before I tried authorship." On another occasion, "I now wrote a book called 'The Sixth Sense,' and was vain enough to think it very clever; but I was afraid it would do harm, and I took the courage to burn it." Her husband taught her "to write quite openly in the unconventional and personal style—what we *now* call the Marie

Bashkirtseff style." So be it, but Marie, even as a child, was never guilty of such a paragraph as the following: "On the 10th of December my publisher, poor Mr. Mullan, died, and my boys' books were returned to me, to begin afresh with another publisher, which was, unhappily, Mr. Bogue. On the 15th, Richard lectured at the English Engineers' Club, which was very well attended, much applauded, and was noticed largely in the foreign press, in most gratifying terms, speaking of him as dear and respected for his learning, merits, and philanthropy, and I had my third fête for humanity to animals."

The main facts of Sir Richard Burton's life are well known, and can be found in Hitchman rather better than in this work, though many pages of the two are entirely or nearly identical. His pilgrimage in disguise to Mecca, his discovery of Lake Tanganyika, and his translation of the "Thousand and One Nights" (which his wife never read unexpurgated, though it was copied by "a lady amanuensis"), are the three things for which he will chiefly be remembered. In spite of great achievements, his was a life of signal troubles and disappointments. He declared, "My career in India had been in my eyes a failure"; even the famous Mecca trip was but a part of what he had meant to do; the irregular Turkish force which he helped to organize during the Crimean war never saw service, and his various suggestions met with snubs; his expedition with Speke ended in a bitter quarrel between the two, and it was Speke who was chosen to go a second time and have the glory of discovering the sources of the Nile; his name was struck off the Army List without warning when he entered the consular service at perhaps the worst possible post, Fernando Po; when he did at last get a situation to his heart, the consulship at Damascus, after a while he was abruptly cashiered, though his conduct was subsequently approved and he was sent to Trieste, where he was left from 1873 till his death in 1890. For long years the place of Minister to Morocco was the goal of his ambition, but when finally a vacancy occurred, some one else was appointed. Even his request for permission to retire with full pension a little before his time, on account of failing health, was refused, though he was always generously treated in the matter of leaves of absence. His projects of gold mines or other undertakings in Africa, Brazil, Iceland, and the land of Midian brought him only bother and expense.

This is a sad record for a man of such great and varied abilities, of such energy and industry, who knew twenty-nine languages, who understood the East as few Europeans ever have, who was one of the pioneers of modern African exploration, and who wrote, on widely different subjects, works that will always have value. In spite of Lady Burton's protestations, we can see that, to a certain extent, he had himself to blame for his woes; but we will not undertake to say how much, or discuss his character as it appears in the pages before us. His views on many questions were original, outspoken, and sometimes startling, and not of a nature to recommend him to his official superiors. Comment on them will be more in place in connection with her next book, which we shall await with interest. In conclusion, we note that some of the poetry she has put in, both his and hers, has considerable merit. His "Legend of the Lakki Hills" might almost be mistaken for Byron, and the "Kasîdah" has fine lines, even if we can hardly agree with the sentiment that it is "the most exquisite gem of Oriental poetry that I have ever heard or imagined, nor do I believe it has its equal, either from the pen of Hafiz, Saadi, Shakespeare, Milton, Swinburne, or any other."

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*The People's Money.* By W. L. Trenholm. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

THIS work is intended for people of ordinary education and intelligence. It is the author's opinion that the inability to understand money and finance professed by many well-informed persons is unnecessary and inexcusable. He considers that no one who is capable of learning to read, or of comprehending the movements of machinery, need doubt his ability to obtain a clear and definite understanding of the financial system of the United States, and he thinks that, if the sequence of phenomena is carefully observed, but little time and effort will be required to master the whole subject of finance. That a general understanding of these matters is greatly to be desired may be conceded at once, and much of Mr. Trenholm's book is so clear in thought and simple in statement as to be universally intelligible. But the persistence of contradictory opinions concerning the most elementary principles of finance, and the clashing views of those who have made it a special study, appear to indicate the existence of more obscurity and difficulty than Mr. Trenholm is disposed to recognize. Not only is there a fundamental difference between bimetallists and monometallists, but back of this lies a more fundamental difference concerning value. The cost-of-production theory has been violently attacked, and there is as wide divergence of views concerning what money is as concerning what it ought to be.

That Mr. Trenholm has underrated the difficulty of his task may perhaps be proved by reference to some of his statements. Thus we find it laid down as "of course" that the burden of idle money is the same whether such money be of metal or paper. Probably Mr. Trenholm had in mind the burdens of banks or individuals, but he makes the assertion concerning the burdens of the community. Were it true, it would be hard to explain the cause of the substitution of paper for metal, and the incomparable elucidation of this change by Adam Smith would be entirely fallacious. Nor, so far as individuals are concerned, is idle money any more of a burden than other idle machinery. Mr. Trenholm does not recognize credits, such as checks and bills of exchange, as money, and in some of his observations upon bank-notes we are inclined to think he has confounded money with capital. His views upon the respective advantages of Government notes and bank-notes are peculiar, and to us, we must confess, unintelligible. We shall endeavor, therefore, to state them as nearly as possible in his own language.

The saving to a community, in Mr. Trenholm's opinion, from the use of paper money is about equal to the annual interest on the volume of such money less the expense of its issue and maintenance. This saving is less in the case of issues by Government than in those by banks, because the rate of interest upon Government debts is less than that upon bank loans. In other words, if the Government's credit is good, there would be a saving to the people in having the banks issue paper money, while if the credit of the Government was bad, there might be a saving in having it, and not the banks, issue the notes. The promoters of the Nicaragua Canal appear to have got hold of the converse of this argument in their ingenuous proposal that our Government should do them the trifling favor of writing its name on the back of their bonds. Mr. Trenholm seems to apply the term interest both to the rate charged the Government when it borrows and to the rate that the banks charge when they lend.

Mr. Trenholm further maintains that the increase of note issues tends to reduce the rate of interest on commercial loans. He declares that our people gain nothing from the issue of $346,000,000 of greenbacks, while the issue of bank-notes to that amount, based not on bonds but on commercial paper, would probably make 7 per cent. a maximum rate of interest throughout all our agricultural communities, except those in the newest States and the Territories, and would even there greatly reduce present rates for money. Under the system that prevailed from 1820 to 1860, he contends, the prevailing rates in communities that had banks were 6 per cent. for discounts and 7 per cent. for interest. He considers that his theory is established by the example of the Bank of Stockholm, which in twelve years reduced the rate of interest in Sweden from 8 per cent. to 3 per cent. He disapproves of the national-bank system for several reasons. The formation of a new bank in a country town under this system has the effect, he holds, of depriving that community of the use of more money than the new bank can issue, and thereby increases instead of diminishes the rate for loans. On the other hand, true banks of issue cheapen loans, because, if a bank can make a profit of 2 per cent. on its circulation, it can afford to reduce its rate of discount 2 per cent.

We have at hand figures only from 1845 to 1860, but it appears from them that the average rate of discount was for that period over 9 per cent., and it can hardly have been lower during the earlier years. The fact is not important, however, for the assumption that the rate of interest depends upon the note issues of banks is one that throws existing monetary science into confusion. We cannot take space to criticise it, but it seems to us to render Mr. Trenholm's book, in spite of much that is sound and well-put, a very undesirable guide for the class of readers to which it is addressed. Nothing better fitted to give a thorough grounding in this intricate subject has ever been written than Adam Smith's classical chapters. Whoever will be at the pains to master what he has said will be well equipped for grappling with our modern problems, and will be able to see through certain fallacies which have, we apprehend, perplexed Mr. Trenholm's argument.

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*Pioneers of Science.* By Oliver Lodge, F.R.S. Macmillan. 1893.

THIS is a very handsome volume, printed upon the heaviest calendered paper, full of attractive cuts, written in an easy style, dealing with an important and absorbing topic, and the work of an eminent physicist. The puzzle is to conceive how so good a man was ever induced to write a book upon a subject of which he appears to know nothing—the history of astronomy. The first chapter contains a sketch of the life of Copernicus, of which Mr. Lodge says "we know very little." Speaking for himself and his three friends who read his proofs, this seems to be very true. For those who have read Prowe's great biography in three volumes, it is less true. Even before the appearance of that work, ten years ago, it would hardly have been admissible to say that "in study and meditation his life was passed." We now know that during most of his life he was an active mem-

ber of Parliament, dealing with the most practical subjects, as well as managing the extensive possessions of the bishopric of Regensburg, and, in fact, almost governing it. When he retired from politics, so necessary was activity to Coppernicus (we follow the orthography approved by Prowe), that he took up the life of a practising physician, and continued in it almost to the very end of his long life. It is true, of course, that he was a man of study and meditation, yet an inaccurate impression is conveyed by the statement that his life was passed in such occupations as if in them alone. How much better it would be if writers—and the recommendation particularly applies to English writers—when they know nothing would say nothing.

Dr. Lodge says: "His father is believed to have been a German." True, this is the belief, and it is founded on an accurate knowledge of the genealogy of the family, which, for a family of merchants, was locally far from obscure. Much is made by Dr. Lodge of the Copernican theory of the precession of the equinoxes; but so far as this theory differed from what was involved in the general statement of Hipparchus and Ptolemy, it was utterly erroneous. There was a certain *intorta corolla*, which was invented to account for falsified observations, reported at a time when authority overweighed the testimony of the senses.

The account of Tycho Brahe is not so bad; but when we come to Keppler, grave inaccuracies reappear. This astronomer is represented as suffering all his life from "bitter poverty." The truth is, his first wife was a rich woman, and he was always fairly well, often very well, paid. But, with an entirely cheerful and contented disposition, he made it his business to grumble, because his pay was always in arrear (as was everybody's), and that was the way to get it. When his wife died, the money, it is true, went to the children; but by that time Keppler was pretty well to do. The account of Keppler's work is certainly not so bad as some recent English statements, drawn purely from their writers' imagination; but it is needlessly confused. The whole book is upon this low level of almost simple ignorance.

When Dr. Lodge comes to the discovery of Neptune, he makes a diagram of the orbits of Neptune and Uranus, and describes straight lines between corresponding places of the two planets. This, he says in the legend, illustrates the direction of the perturbing force. He forgets that a perturbation that remained constant would not be a perturbation, that the only way it can be detected is in changing the elements of the orbit, and that the unperturbed orbit is really as much perturbed as the perturbed orbit. Consequently, the whole question of the discovery of Neptune rests upon considerations which cannot possibly be popularized. There are some things which demand serious study. In these cases, all that can be done for the general reader is to show him clearly that such is the case.

We wish we could counterbalance these strictures by reporting that the book does something to inculcate the sincere spirit of inquiry, or gives any general picture of the life of "scientific pioneers," even though inaccurate in details, or that it communicates information about the labors of these men not better, more easily, and more securely to be gathered elsewhere. We can say that it is a handsome volume, well suited to a person who wishes to know as much of the history of astronomy as he can gather in an hour or two.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barry, J. D. The Princess Margarethe. G. M. Allen Co.
Berendt, M., and Friedländer, J. Spinoza's Erkenntnisslehre in ihrer Beziehung zur modernen Naturwissenschaft und Philosophie. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Champfleury's The Faïence Violin. Appletons. 75 cents.
Dole, N. H. Not Angels Quite. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Earle, Mrs. A. M., and Ford, Emily E. Early Prose and Verse. [Distaff Series.] Harpers. $1.
Grant, Robert. Jack in the Bush. Scribners. $1.25.
Grant, Robert. The Opinions of a Philosopher. Scribners. $1.
Hales, Prof. J. W. Folia Litteraria: Essays and Notes on English Literature. Macmillan. $1.75.
Harkness, Prof. J., and Morley, Prof. F. A Treatise on the Theory of Functions Macmillan.
Jayne, Lieut. R. H. Through Apache Land. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co.
Karagiannides, A. Die Nichteuklidische Geometrie vom Alterthum bis zur Gegenwart. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Kirk, H. C. The Revolt of the Brutes: A Fantasy of the Chicago Fair. C. T. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Larrabee, William. The Railroad Question. Chicago: Schulte Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Macalpine, Avery. Joel Marsh, and Other Stories. Ward, Lock & Bowden. 50 cents.
Meyer, E. H. Lehrbücher der Germanischen Philologie. Vol. I. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Phillips Brooks Year Book. E. P. Dutton. $1.25.
Pocket Guide and Notebook of the World's Fair. Chicago: White City Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Rougemont, Prof. A. de. Manuel de la Littérature Française. W. R. Jenkins. $1.25.
Shepard, Elizabeth G. A Guide Book to Norumbega and Vineland. Boston: Damrell & Upham.
Smith, G. V. The Bible and its Theology. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Sweet, Henry. A Primer of Historical English Grammar. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Tuckwell, Rev. W. The Ancient Ways: Winchester Fifty Years Ago. Macmillan. $1.50.
Turk, Prof. M. H. The Legal Code of Ælfred the Great. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.05.
Unveiling a Parallel. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Wallace, Gen. Lew. The Prince of India; or, Why Constantinople Fell. 2 vols. Harpers.
Weissenborn, Prof. H. Zur Geschichte der Einführung der jetzigen Ziffern in Europa durch Gerbert. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Yechton, Barbara. Little Saint Hilary, and Other Stories. Whittaker. 60 cents.


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## *Educational.*

[*Continued from page iii.*]

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[*Continued on page* 202.]

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## G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS,

NEW YORK and LONDON.

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 14, 1893.

## The Week.

THE Senate's delay in coming to a vote on the Repeal Bill is in some respects unfortunate, but is, from other points of view, not without its compensating advantages, especially as there is now no real uncertainty that repeal will ultimately carry. For one thing, the delay helps to isolate the financial difficulty through which the country has been passing, and to show its precise nature. The trouble came about through distrust of the Government's intention or ability to maintain the standard of value unimpaired, and has been steadily disappearing ever since that distrust has been shown to be unfounded. So clear has the uncomplicated nature of the phenomenon now become that the most desperate of partisans have given up trying to read other causes into the panic. The *Tribune's* tariff gun, which was doing dreadful execution a few weeks ago, has been so effectually spiked by the great revival of industry in the face of active preparations to reform the tariff, that it was actually driven on Monday to fight the civil war over again, and to alarm the faithful with one of its old-time articles about the South in control of the Government. This is a thing to be grateful for, as well as amused over, since it proves that the revision of the tariff can be taken up with a free hand in accordance with the wishes and directions of the great majority of the people. In so far as the dilatoriness of the Senate has helped to bring this fact out in a clear light, it cannot be wholly regretted.

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The speech of Senator Pugh of Alabama on the Silver Repeal Bill is the loudest wail and the plainest note of despair that has been uttered by the silverites since the debate began. When a man says that he is going to talk merely in order to consume time and to prevent a vote, he proclaims as loudly as possible the fact that he is in the minority. He avows, also, that the minority must rule. This is a doctrine which Pugh and his colleagues in Alabama proclaimed in 1861, with a sequel which we need not mention. The consequences now will be less serious, but far more speedy. Mr. Pugh may advertise his loquacity as much as he pleases. So may his colleague Morgan, whose wind power is far greater. So, too, may Senator Jones of Nevada, who has booked himself, in an evening paper, for a four days' speech. We all know what this speech is. The Senators know what it is, and they can retire while he is making it, as they retired while Stewart was making his. There is an end to reasonable debate, even in the Senate. There never was a time when a majority of that body could not pass a measure which they really wanted to pass. If they had had a majority of one, they could have passed the Force Bill three years ago. The majority of one happened to be against it. By that fact, and by that fact only, did it fail to become a law.

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It is in the weekly record of bank deposits that the measure of private hoarding of money must be sought, and present testimony on this score is particularly encouraging. The Philadelphia Clearing-house banks, reporting on Monday, showed increase in deposits for the week of $1,271,000. The Boston banks show gain, on the same account, of $2,279,900. It sometimes happens that a great increase in bank loans, through the redeposit of the funds advanced, increases somewhat disproportionately the deposit total. But this has not been the case during the past week. Banks are nowhere loaning freely; in Philadelphia last week's increase was only $238,000; in Boston there was a decrease. This explains, too, the apparent shrinkage in deposits reported in Saturday's New York bank statement. Deposits decreased $222,400, it is true, but loans were contracted $3,200,100, and practically all of this contraction involved withdrawal of old deposits, so that it may be safely said that about $3,000,000 new deposits sought the New York banks last week. All this is encouraging in a high degree, and has been reflected in the prices of securities. Yet it would be very unwise to reckon on these factors without noticing the qualifying influences. None of the banks, here or elsewhere, have yet regained their normal condition, and they will not regain it until the question of the Silver Law's repeal is settled. There are outstanding now $37,000,000 loan certificates between the New York banks, $11,000,000 in Boston, and other sums in Philadelphia, Baltimore, and elsewhere. The aggregate amount of this emergency currency for uses between banks is almost exactly that of the season's gold imports. With confidence restored, the imported gold will quickly be employed to offset and cancel all the certificates outstanding. But much of the imported gold was borrowed in London, Paris, and Berlin, and any compromise on unsound currency would stop in an instant the renewal of such loans upon maturity. How quickly last summer's evils would return under such conditions may be imagined. It is noticeable that Europe still holds aloof from our investment markets. The passage of the Senate Repeal Bill will alone serve to bring the foreign investors and foreign money-lenders back to the United States.

The *North American Review* tries to be as much like a sensational daily newspaper as possible, and prides itself on the speed with which it puts upon the market articles on "timely" subjects. But, even at its shortest, the period which must elapse between the writing of a paper and its publication is sometimes long enough to leave the writer in a ridiculous position—for example, in the case of Thomas B. Reed just now. For the September number of the *Review* he wrote, some time in August, such statements as these:

> "Mills are stopping all over the country. . . . What can the mills do but shut down? . . . The manufacturers of this country do not know what is going to happen to them. Nothing but uncertainty is their lot, and uncertainty is the great paralyzer of business."

But while the *Review* containing this article is displayed on the news stands, the papers are every day printing long lists of the mills which have reopened as soon as the distrust caused by the silver crisis was removed by the assured repeal of the Silver-Purchase Act. This fable teaches that there is a type of partisan article which it is much better to print in a daily paper that cannot be easily looked up three or four weeks later, than in a monthly periodical which will be on sale three or four weeks later.

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A number of manufacturers appeared before the Ways and Means Committee on Monday to protest against any change in the tariff. The burden of their talk was, in the words of Mr. Joseph Wharton of Philadelphia, Vice-President of the American Iron and Steel Association, that "the uncertainty with regard to future tariff legislation was now causing more distress than the financial conditions." Oddly enough, none of them seemed to appreciate the fact that all such arguments constitute the strongest possible reasons for the prompt enactment of the new Tariff Law to which the Democratic party is pledged. The people voted, not simply once, but twice, not by a bare margin on one occasion, but by overwhelming majorities in each of the two elections, in favor of a reduction of the tariff. The only uncertainty that remains is as to the details of this reduction. What is needed, therefore, is the framing of the new law with the greatest speed compatible with justice. Then business will know what to expect, not simply for one year or two, but for four years. The fact is not yet generally appreciated that the new Tariff Law, which ought to go upon the statute-book during the early months of 1894, will remain there for four years. Even if the Republicans should recover control of one branch or the other of Congress next year, the Executive Department will remain under Democratic control, and the

Low-Tariff Law cannot possibly be repealed in less than four years. Manufacturers will thus know exactly what to expect for a long period of time, and it is their interest, as much as the general public's, that they should have this knowledge as soon as possible.

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We have received several copies of a circular, issued by the Protective Tariff League, asking manufacturers to send in statistics showing how many hands they employed in the week ending November 5, 1892, and how many in the week ending September 2, 1893. This is a very cunning device. The object evidently is to make it appear that all the shortage of demand for goods and all the lessened employment of labor in the financial panic is due to a tariff scare, although there has been no change of tariff, and although there was just as much reason in the latter part of November, 1892, to expect a change of tariff as there is now. There is one pertinent question on the cards enclosed in the circular which the League neglected to put, namely: Why did you not get scared and discharge your hands as soon as you knew that Cleveland and a Democratic Congress had been elected? The circular is as follows:

"DEAR SIR: The American Protective Tariff League is preparing its Industrial Census for the purpose of comparing business conditions as they existed the week before the election of Mr. Cleveland with the week ending September 2, 1893, or ten months after the election. All information received upon the enclosed cards will be regarded as *strictly confidential*, the data to be published in tabulated form by States or industries. Perhaps you cannot conveniently give answer to some of the questions asked. In that case, please reply to all that you can, and omit reply to those which you cannot give.

"*Please do not mention this undertaking* until the work is completed, beyond kindly handing the extra cards enclosed to some person or company that will give reliable reports. —Yours very truly,

"W. F. WAKEMAN, General Secretary."

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Secretary Herbert has turned a particularly illuminating ray of light upon the "Chilian war" episode of the Harrison Administration in his letter to the Senate regarding the unpaid duty on a consignment of European shells for the navy, which has been lying in the Custom-house for a year or more. He shows that these shells, comprising 96 ten inch Firth armor-piercing shells, 60 twelve-inch Holtzer armor-piercing shells, 200 six-inch and 200 eight-inch Holtzer armor-piercing shells, and 550 ten-inch Hadfield common shells, were ordered by cable by the Navy Department in January, 1892, the emergency being so great that the mails were too slow to meet it. January, 1892, was a great month for the Harrison Administration. The news from Washington began with the first days of the month to be saturated with war rumors of the most stirring kind. All the navy-yards were said to be in a perfect fever of war preparation, the Navy Department was full of bustle and war talk, heavy shipments of powder and ammunition were reported as starting from San Francisco for Washington, and large consignments of gun-cotton were discovered on the way from Newport. War was in the air, and the number of warriors in the newspaper offices and clubs who were determined to "blow Chili out of existence" was on the increase hourly. It was on January 25 that President Harrison sent his "just-in-time" message to Washington, getting it published only a few hours before the answer of Chili disclosed the fact that there was no excuse for its deliverance. The whole affair, as it was viewed in the light of Chili's answer, was one of the most discreditable episodes in American politics. Viewed now, in the further light thrown upon it by this cable order for shells, it has a much more serious aspect, for there can be no doubt that the President was really preparing for a war upon Chili, with little regard for either the justice of his cause or the ordinary restraints of Christian civilization. He was actually collecting ammunition to begin an unjust and unholy war upon a weak and helpless nation.

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The amusing aspect of the affair is, that when President Harrison's shipload of European shells arrived, he could not get them out of the Custom-house without paying duty, and the Navy Department had no funds at its disposal which could be drawn on for the purpose. If he had been a little more ferocious, or if Chili had been a little less prompt and manly in sending her answer to our "ultimatum," our Presbyterian President wou'd have had to start his war-ships for Chili, to "blow her out of existence," with no more powerful shells than our American manufacturers were able to invent, or he would have been compelled to ask Congress, as Secretary Herbert asks it now, to pass a resolution remitting the duty. Mr. Herbert makes the request as an "enemy of the protective-tariff system," but President Harrison would have been obliged to make it as a friend of the system in distress. The spectacle of Uncle Sam, brought to a standstill at the beginning of a war of his own provocation because he had not the money in one pocket to transfer to the other to enable him to pay duty on his foreign ammunition, would have been a rare one. We do not think that Congress ought to remit the duty. To do that would be to cast reflection upon the protective-tariff system. The bill ought to be sent to Benjamin Harrison, at Indianapolis, Ind., and he ought to use the shells as object-lessons in international courtesy and Christian civilization in his lectures on international law before the students of the Leland Stanford, jr., University.

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It would have been gratifying to hear that the Grand Army of the Republic had taken a firm and patriotic stand upon the abuse of pensions, but its recent meeting showed that the claim-agent element is as potent as ever. Ex-President Harrison was shocked at the thought that "the moth of avarice, the canker of greed," might have eaten into the hearts of this generation and caused them to forget the services of the Union soldiers. As to whether these destructive agents had been operating upon the hearts of the old soldiers themselves he did not inquire, but the size of the pension appropriations would indicate that, so far as greed was concerned, the American people were not the guilty party. The retiring Commander-in Chief followed in the same strain, reminding the country that it would not now be in existence had it not been for the Union Army, and that upon the principle, "All that a man hath will he give in exchange for his life," the country was bound to give whatever the veterans demanded. The notorious Raum was present and reiterated these sentiments, which can scarcely be said to express love of country in its highest and most unselfish form.

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With the passing away of Hamilton Fish at the advanced age of eighty-five we seem to close a book in the nation's history. He became active in public life when Andrew Jackson was a candidate for the Presidency, and, after filling various important offices and serving a full term in the Senate of the United States, he retired altogether, as he supposed, from public life shortly before the outbreak of the civil war. When President Grant called him from his dignified retirement to the chief place in his Cabinet, in 1869, he could not have had any adequate conception of the merits and abilities of the man whom he had selected for the office of Secretary of State. In fact, Mr. Fish was not his first choice for that place, or his second, and great was the surprise when the name was sent to the Senate—as great perhaps as that which greeted the nominations of A. T. Stewart for Secretary of the Treasury and Adolph E. Borie for Secretary of the Navy. Mr. Fish was already forgotten. He was past sixty and the generation did not know him. He obeyed the summons reluctantly, but he proved to be a statesman of a very high order, if not of the very highest. He had many severe trials, and he saw many days when he would have been glad if the honors of the State Department had never come to him. Probably his most difficult task was that of harmonizing Gen. Grant with the party which elected him, and in this he did not altogether succeed. Great patience and great tact were the indispensable qualities of a Secretary who had a San Domingo question and a Washington Treaty on his hands at the same time. It is Mr. Fish's crown of merit that the former did so little harm and the latter so much good.

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In the report of the Comptroller of Customs at Georgetown, Demerara, for 1892–

'93, we find several tables relating to the operation in British Guiana of the McKinley reciprocity clause. They are summed up by the Comptroller himself as follows:

"If they prove anything, it is that the conditions of our commerce are such that, with the single exception of cotton-seed oil, trade has not been fostered between this colony and the United States by the operation of the McKinley stipulations for reciprocity. In certain articles, such as flour, kerosene oil, lard, and pickled beef and pork, the Americans had already a practical monopoly of our market. Increased consumption of these and similar articles can only follow upon an increase of population or purchasing power, such as may be expected to attend the development of the gold industry. By submitting to the terms imposed by the Washington agreement, the colony was enabled to continue to send its sugars into the American market; but it does not appear that the retention of this right has been productive of any material increase of trade. However vital the retention of this right may have been to a few individuals, the opinion seems to be gaining ground that, to the colony in general, it was not the absolute necessity that at one time it appeared to be."

What is thus true of British Guiana is true in general of all the countries with which reciprocity arrangements were made under the terms of the McKinley Bill. The main course of trade does not appear to have been sensibly affected in any direction by those vaunted "treaties" which were going to revolutionize commerce on this hemisphere.

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The effectiveness of a little timely humor in high places was never better seen than in the Earl of Rosebery's speech on home rule in the House of Lords, and nothing was needed to make his hit complete but the pained air with which the Marquis of Waterford rose to protest against levity in such a presence. The noble Marquis would like to keep up the illusion that the Lords are a solemn gathering of the nation's wisest, struggling for the truth and the right; and no wonder he was grieved at Rosebery's intimation that they were only a lot of prejudiced dunderheads, for whose decision the country did not care twopence. Altogether, Rosebery's speech seems to have let in an unwonted breeze among the dry bones, and they will find it hard to pull themselves together again into anything like their former awful dignity. We would give something if a competent man could do the same kindly office for our Senate. "Senatorial courtesy" has been blown out to portentous proportions in the last few weeks, fairly inviting puncture by some deft hand. Then there is Peffer, posing as the great conservative to save the people from passing madness, and the silver Senators, with their muscles fairly cracking in their efforts to hold the country from plunging straight to ruin, and many more solemn dignitaries, to whom a humorous exposure would do a world of good. If a good hearty laugh could be roused on the floor of the Senate and in the country at the absurd figure which the opponents of repeal are cutting, it would expedite matters wonderfully.

The outbreak of riots in England will surprise no one who has watched the recent course of events in that country. The tendency has been marked to treat the labor-unions as standing for all laborers, and to ignore the existence of any rights on the part of laborers without the unions. The London Council has practically made it a rule that in all its contracts the requirements of the trade-unions shall be observed, so that it is idle for a contractor to attempt to employ free laborers. Very much the same attitude has been taken by Parliament, and that body has gone far towards adopting laws forbidding men to work more than eight hours a day at trades whose unions decide that such shall be the limit. Even Mr. Gladstone, although lamenting the former days when freedom of contract was cherished as a sacred right, now seems to feel that the demands of the unions must be conceded, stipulating only that they shall prove themselves to represent the majority of workmen. It should not have required much foresight to discern the consequences of this doctrine. If the demands of the unions are the demands of "labor," then when the coal-miners' unions order a strike, no one has a right to mine coal. For the Government to attempt to compel the union miners to let free laborers alone is inconsistent. Such conduct on the part of the Government implies that non-union laborers have a right to work upon such terms as they choose, but the attitude of the Government towards the unions has encouraged these bodies to expect different things. When it comes to the actual destruction of property, to the burning of the engine-houses, the wrecking of the hoisting and pumping machinery, the flooding of the mines, and the murder of miners who attempt to work against the orders of the strikers, of course the Government has to interfere and to meet force with force. But the pity of it is, that the course of the Government has been such as to foment the conflict. We have seen much the same thing in this country, and have to a certain extent established the principle that men have a right to work independent of trade-union orders. England has come to democracy late, and has yet to pass through some of our experiences. It remains to be seen whether she will establish that system of government upon the firm basis of the right to labor, or will attempt to base it upon monopoly.

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The attack upon Siam by France is naturally seized upon with avidity by the Russophobists in England as proving the wisdom of their fears. The Hon. George Curzon, M. P., has drawn a startling picture of "India between Two Fires," and the danger of the supine policy that now prevails in the counsels of the Empire. Curiously enough his most effective opponents have been military men. Gen. Adye replied to him by saying that it is not necessary to assume in such discussions that both France and Russia are not to be trusted. He pointed out that Russia's conquests in central Asia add very little to her military strength. In mere extent of territory they compare with British India, but the population in the latter case is 250,000,000 and in the former 5,000,000. A Russian military expedition directed against India would have to cut loose from any substantial base of operations, and the idea of bringing any considerable force in fighting condition over the Pamirs is, in Gen. Adye's opinion, absurd. Gen. Chelmsford confirms this position, showing that if Herat must be defended by the English, it will necessitate the carrying their frontier 700 miles forward, only to put them in a strategical position much inferior to that which they now occupy. He adds that the fact that Alexander and Mahmud and Timur formerly invaded India with success does not necessarily prove that a Russian invasion would now have a like result. It is decidedly reassuring to hear army officers talk in this peaceable manner when civilians want to draw the sword.

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Whatever personal jealousies and grievances may be animating the officers of the Brazilian Navy who have openly revolted against the President, it cannot be denied that they have a good *prima-facie* case against a Government which has been marked by autocratic and illegal methods. President Peixoto has been only less a Dictator than Fonseca, whom he helped to overthrow. His very title to the office he holds is clouded by his failure to order an election of a President, in accordance with the Constitution; and his recent veto of a bill aimed to correct this abuse of power seems to have been what precipitated the revolution. Then he has been guilty of the most outrageous interference in the State affairs of Rio Grande do Sul and Santa Catharina, where a civil war has been smouldering for several months. These facts would make friends of decent government wish the revolution all success were there any likelihood that a better successor might follow Peixoto. But the chances are that, as he walked in the footsteps of Fonseca, some other autocrat will copy his example. Meanwhile, the revolt of the navy comes to show, as the Chilian revolution showed, how dangerous an arm the navy may become to a South American dictator. Troops and garrisons he can keep his eye on and hold in subjection, and revolutionary agitators on shore he can clap into jail or shoot; but when the disaffected turn up in control of his men-of-war, and are able to steam up and down the coast and choose their own place for landing and establishing headquarters and fomenting insurrection, the case is alarmingly different.

*THE LORDS AND THE SENATE.*

It is a remarkable coincidence that the English House of Lords should be rejecting the Home-Rule Bill at the same time that the American Senate is about to pass the Silver-Purchase Repeal Bill. The latter is just as repugnant to the majority of the Senate, left to their own personal preferences, as the Home-Rule Bill is to the House of Lords. If they dared, they would defeat it. The Lords have thrown out the Home-Rule Bill with great contempt and by an overwhelming vote; and yet if a new House of Commons passes it again next year by a good majority, the Lords will have to accept it. It will then have the demonstrated popular demand behind it which the Repeal Bill in this country already has, and the Lords will give way just as the Senate is giving way now.

The coincidence recalls the real analogies which exist between these two second chambers of great national legislatures. They are historically analogous and related, whether we suppose the Senate to have been directly modelled after the House of Lords or not. There can be no doubt that the English colonists who built the system of American State government would not have made that system so almost universally bicameral had they not inherited the English tradition that such was the proper system. Out of the two chambers of the State legislatures grew the two of the Federal Government, though voices were not wanting in the Philadelphia Convention to urge, with Dickinson, that the American Senate should be given "as strong a likeness to the British House of Lords as possible," and the expositions of the 'Federalist' frequently show that a degree of likeness was thought to have been secured by the new Constitution.

At any rate, it is easy enough to trace an existing likeness, and to show how the actual Senate bears a strong resemblance to the actual Lords, both in point of personnel and removal from direct responsibility to the people, as well as in the methods which the people finally resort to in order to bring it to its senses. We might even say that the Senate exemplifies the hereditary principle of the Lords, since it is hard to see for what reason Pennsylvania sends Don Cameron to the Senate except that he is the son of his father. It certainly exemplifies membership on some other ground than popular choice. Quay and Hill and Murphy are in their seats with as little relation to the wishes of any body of constituents as exists in the case of the Marquis of Ailesbury. What possible dependence upon popular suffrage or sentiment can be made out in Stewart or Jones? They sit for the Nevada Mining and Milling Company, just as the Duke of Westminster sits for his own vast estates. More than a dozen Senators could be named whose personal interests would lead them to vote against repeal, just as the personal interests of English peers would lead them to vote against the principle of "betterment" or against any measure of land reform.

But the more interesting analogies are those which can be made out in the ways the American people and the English people have of bringing their second chamber to give them what they want. The general principle is laid down by Bagehot when he says: "But in truth it is idle to expect a second chamber, a chamber of notables, ever to resist a popular chamber, a nation's chamber, when that chamber is vehement and the nation vehement too." The two powers lodged in the hands of a Prime Minister to bring the House of Lords to terms are dissolution and the creation of new peers. After an appeal to the country and a second passing of a rejected bill, there is nothing for the Lords but ignominious surrender, and they dread this so much that when they saw it coming in 1846, on the repeal of the Corn Laws, even the Iron Duke advised them to give up in advance. If they did not give up, a Prime Minister would get from the Crown, as Earl Grey and Brougham in 1832 got from King William, a written promise to create enough new peers to overcome the obstinate majority.

Now we see both these powers practically at work upon the Senate to-day. For it to throw out the Repeal Bill would be as monstrous as for the Lords to reject a bill sent them the second time after an appeal to the country. There have been really two appeals to the country on this silver question. In 1890 the Senate passed a free-silver measure, which was beaten in the House by a narrow majority. Again in 1892 it passed one, and a new House defeated it by eighteen majority. Again this year still another House has spoken, and by a majority of 130 has told the Senate to listen to the voice of the people. It is Bagehot's case of a popular chamber being vehement and a nation being vehement too. The creation of new Senators is the people's threat in the background which is bringing light to many of the Senate. They know how expeditious is the American way of creating new peers. Our obstinate Lords are not simply given enough companions to outvote them, but are themselves put out in the cold. Whenever we create one Senator we kill another. The knowledge of this fact will make the vote for repeal, when it comes, unexpectedly large, as many Senators are now sure that if they stand on Senatorial dignity, or vote so as to keep their record consistent, or to feed fat their hatred of the President, it will be equivalent to saying—

> "As for me, hungry Oblivion
> Devour me quick."

*HOW TO INCREASE EXPORTS.*

In the thoughtful speech recently delivered by Senator Sherman upon the repeal of the act to which his name, in spite of his efforts to disown it, persistently clings, he took a comprehensive review of the financial situation of the Government. Among other judicious proposals he urged that the Secretary of the Treasury should have power to sell bonds whenever necessary to replenish our reserves, of which it is enough to say that it is exactly what should be done in order to put the credit of every enterprise in this country upon a substantial basis, and that the quicker it is done the better. He proceeded, however, to contemplate the possibility of an adverse balance of trade, and observed very properly that, in view of this contingency, we ought to encourage in every possible way the exportation of our products. Upon the importance of this the distinguished Senator was eloquent. "We ought," he said, "to pour the wealth of our country into the lap of all Europe, and sell them our products in order to avoid any difficulty." But here his statecraft came to a pause, and he very frankly declared, "I do not precisely see how this can be done." He professed his confidence in the ingenuity of the American people, but he was unable to discover how that ingenuity was to be exercised. He asserted that whatever could be devised to facilitate transportation should be done, but as to the nature of the expedient to be employed he admitted his ignorance.

In this attitude Senator Sherman indicates the perplexity which inevitably awaits every protectionist when he reflects upon the ultimate consequences of his doctrine. The only logical outcome of the doctrine is the extinction of foreign trade. It is a bad thing to import goods; we cannot export unless we import; therefore we will not export. But Senator Sherman is far too able a man to be satisfied with this Chinese theory of civilization. He understands that men desire to trade, and that it is good for them to trade, and yet he feels bound to cling to protective duties. He sees that it is of the utmost importance that our exports should be increased—of the utmost importance both to the people and to the Government; but he will not, and, being a sincere protectionist, he cannot, see that the only way in which this can be done is by increasing our imports. He insists upon the vital necessity of sending our goods to Europe, and sticks to a theory which maintains the vital necessity of taxing heavily the goods which we get in exchange.

The truth is, we are in the position of a farmer who sends a wagon-load of his products across a bridge to a market-town without paying toll, exchanges the products there for whatever he needs, and when crossing the bridge upon his return pays a toll of 50 per cent. upon the value of his purchases. Senator Sherman—and every protectionist—is bound to believe that the payment of this toll is somehow a profitable transaction for the farmer; but reason rebels when brought face to face with this proposition. It is too clear that the toll is a reduction of the profit upon the exchange of goods. Senator Sherman is

too intelligent a man to cry with Mr. McKinley and protectionists of that stripe, "The foreigner pays the tax!" He knows better than that, and he knows, moreover, that if the foreigner did pay it he would be by so much incapacitated for paying a good price for what he bought. Hence the Senator is brought to his present helpless state. He knows as an economist and as a statesman that our exports ought to be increased. He believes as a protectionist that our imports ought not to be increased. But our exports cannot be increased without increasing our imports, and when Senator Sherman gets as far as this he confesses that he is at the end of his tether. There may be some hidden resource in American ingenuity, but to the protectionist it is past finding out.

Senator Sherman is not a young man, but he is a sagacious man. Under the conviction that the Republicans "had no right to throw responsibility" upon an anxious President looking for a renomination, he concocted the Silver Act of 1890. He confesses now that that act has done us a mischief. He sees that it is eminently desirable to facilitate transportation, and he sees that by that act transportation was hindered. Most of our railroads have been in the habit of borrowing at low rates in Europe, and that act cut them off from their usual supplies of capital, and compelled them to borrow where they could at rates of interest that have become positively ruinous. Seeing that this was no way to facilitate transportation, he comes out openly in favor of repeal. Why should he not do with the tariff as he has done with the Silver Act? He knows perfectly well that the duties imposed by the McKinley Act are in many cases outrageously high. He knows that these duties were forced into the bill by the threats of a small and bigoted faction, in defiance of the protests of the most conservative Republican manufacturers, and in opposition to the best traditions of the Republican party. It is not to be expected that Senator Sherman should admit the McKinley Act to be altogether a bad act, any more than he admits the Sherman Act to be altogether a bad act. But as it is evident that the McKinley Act is doomed, it appears to be from every point of view wise for Republicans of Senator Sherman's calibre to avoid mere mulish obstruction to tariff reform, such as disgraces the Conservative party in England in its dealing with the Home-Rule Bill. Let them bend their efforts to the reduction of duties in such a manner as will cause the least uncertainty as to the future. When this has been accomplished, Senator Sherman will be enabled to see precisely how that increase of our exports is brought about, the manner of which is now hidden from his vision.

### *SOURCES OF REVENUE.*

It is now some thirty years since Mr. David A. Wells issued a pamphlet entitled 'Our Burden and Our Strength.' Our burden seemed at that time almost unbearable, and grave doubts were entertained as to the solvency of the Government. Mr. Wells showed that our strength was far greater than was commonly supposed, and that we should have no difficulty in carrying an even heavier load of debt than that already incurred. This essay was circulated by the Loyal Publication Society to the extent of 200,000 copies in this country and in Europe, and did much to establish the credit of the United States upon a solid basis. President Lincoln at once called Mr. Wells to Washington and placed him at the head of the National Revenue Commission, which brought order out of the chaos of tax-laws, and enormously increased the revenue while it diminished the burdens upon consumers.

Mr. Wells has now repeated his service to his country. In a pamphlet issued on Tuesday in the form of a letter to Secretary Carlisle, he handles the subject of taxes upon distilled spirits, malt liquors, and tobacco, with all of his old ability and with the same patriotic exultation in the abounding wealth of our people. He reviews our former experience in endeavoring to collect revenue from distilled spirits, showing that beyond a certain point an increase of the tax resulted in a decrease of revenue, and at the same time swelled the profits of the distillers by hundreds of millions of dollars. He recalls how a reduction of the tax from $2 to 50 cents a gallon put a stop to illicit distillation, how many industries requiring alcohol as a material at once revived, and how the revenue of the Government from this source rose in two years from about $22,000,000 to nearly $56,000,000. He does not remind us, but it is well for us to recall the fact, that this fortunate change was brought about by the unanswerable arguments from experience which he laid before Congress. The difficulties in the way of sound fiscal legislation were much greater then than now, but the wisdom of the policy recommended by Mr. Wells was so clearly demonstrated that it was irresistible.

After carefully reviewing the changes in the tax and the vicissitudes of the distilling industry, Mr. Wells concludes that a minimum tax of 330 per cent. upon spirits is dangerously near to or in excess of the maximum revenue point, and that "any increase in the existing rate will favor a recurrence of the disastrous and disgraceful results that characterized the period of experimental taxation in the years immediately succeeding the termination of the war." We cannot state the details of the argument advanced, but it appears to us irrefragable. It is especially to be noted that, whatever might be the case in the future, an advance in the tax upon spirits would be followed by a present decrease in revenue, whereas what the Government requires is an immediate increase.

Passing to the tax upon fermented liquors, Mr. Wells shows that it has been practically uniform at the rate of $1 per barrel of 31 gallons since it was first imposed in 1863. This tax is about 20 per cent. ad valorem, and amounts upon every half-pint glass of beer to about one-fifth of a cent. Under this moderate excise the product taxed has increased from 62,205,000 gallons in 1863 to 1,071,183,000 in 1893, which signifies an increase of consumption per caput from 1.86 gallons to more than 16 gallons, and an increase of revenue from $1,558,000 to nearly $32,000,000 Upon this Mr. Wells observes: "If it becomes desirable at this or any other time for the United States to materially increase its annual revenue by additional taxation, such a result cannot be obtained more certainly and with so little of expense, effort, or industrial friction, as by a moderate increase of the tax upon fermented liquors. The existing tax (20 per cent. ad valorem) is lower than upon almost any other industrial product entering largely into domestic consumption." At the same time, it seems, the brewing of malt liquors is an extremely lucrative occupation, while "it is also reasonably certain that, in the distribution of industrial products for consumption, there is no branch of business that returns a larger profit on the labor and capital employed than the retailing of malt liquors; a small retail-store often supporting a large family, besides paying high Federal and State licenses." Mr. Wells does not hesitate to maintain that if the tax upon beer were doubled, the revenue of the Government would be correspondingly increased, from $32,000,000 to $64,000,000 per annum.

As to tobacco, many interesting particulars are presented. Our internal revenue taxes upon tobacco are lighter than those elsewhere imposed, having been materially reduced in 1883. These taxes produce now about $32,000,000, the same amount which is derived from malt liquors. Had the tax remained unchanged, the revenue would now be probably $60,000,000. "Were the same ratio of taxation on tobacco as exists to day in the United Kingdom established in the United States, the annual revenue accruing to the Federal Treasury at the present time would be $85,000,000. If the rates existing in France were adopted, the annual revenue from this source would be $112,000,000." Mr. Wells, however, does not consider the effect of high taxes upon such articles as beer and tobacco in deteriorating their quality. It would, perhaps, not be detrimental to health were the beer-sellers to add sufficient water to their beverages to compensate themselves for the increased tax, but it would be a deplorable thing to see our people condemned to the use of the infamous quality of tobacco inflicted upon their subjects by the paternal governments of Europe.

It is hardly necessary to point out the bearing of Mr. Wells's pamphlet upon the reform of the tariff. That bearing will become the great subject of debate just so soon as obstruction to the popular will ceases in the Senate; and until that time it will be impossible and undesirable to fix the attention of the public upon any other theme than the repeal of the Silver Bill. When that shall have been brought about, our revenue system will be thoroughly revised, and for this work no assistance can be more valuable than that furnished by the facts and arguments that Mr. Wells has presented. Every one who wishes to have an intelligent opinion upon our fiscal policy will do well to study the information made available in this pamphlet, which the press has already widely republished.

## THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.—VII.

### SCIENCE.

CHICAGO, September, 1893.

IN writing on Science at the Fair, one hesitates where to begin or what limits to set to the field to be surveyed. It is obvious that applied science must be almost exclusively left out of the question, and the discussion limited to the results of research as exemplified by exhibits, or to notices of the raw material for research here brought together for the first time and still awaiting study.

The various scientific congresses projected during the Fair, of which most were held in the latter half of August, have not differed from other less advertised scientific meetings, except in the paucity of their audiences and the prominence of the worthy but quite unscientific people who are responsible for the "World's Congress Auxiliary" and the addresses of portentous length in which visiting scientists were welcomed. Some of the congresses were better organized and attended than others, many very respectable or even valuable papers were read to scanty audiences, but, on the whole, the opinion about these gatherings seems to be that which was expressed by the student who, when asked what was the function of an obscure concatenation of muscular fibres in human anatomy, replied, "To perpetuate the name of their illustrious discoverer." These meetings were held miles away from the Fair grounds, they occupied time which could be better spent in other ways and which was valuable by reason of its costliness, if for no other reason, to most of those who were visitors in Chicago. No results adequate to the means and time called for were visible to the scientific eye, and so, for all practical purposes, these meetings were of very little importance. In several cases this was immediately recognized and adjournment was had to the Fair grounds, where, under the guidance of specialists, the members were intelligently introduced to the collections or appliances in which they were most interested, and kindred minds had opportunity of making personal acquaintance.

Before coming to the exhibits of studied and unstudied material, zoölogical, botanical, geological, and anthropological, a word or two should be said upon a subject which stands on the boundary line between the arts and sciences, relating to and more or less connecting them. We refer to the mode of presentation of material exhibited, relating to any field of research, in such a manner that the exhibitor's idea may be communicated to the observer clearly, effectively, and with the greatest economy of space, time, cost, and exertion to the parties concerned. This art or science is a new one, and the progress which it has made is due almost entirely to the efforts of a very few men in England and America. The pioneer in this field was the late Prof. Baird of the Smithsonian Institution, and the perfection to which it has been brought is chiefly due to his pupil and successor, Dr. G. Brown Goode. In England the late Henry Moore of the Liverpool Free Museum, Gen. Pitt Rivers, Dr. Sharpe, and Prof. Flower of the British Museum have been able workers. As in other scientific matters, there have been many contributors of detail and a few effective organizers. The old museums were, like most of those on the Continent to-day, vast repositories of material for students and heterogeneous curiosity-shops for the laity. The modern idea of the museum is not merely that of a storehouse for students, but eminently a school for the general public. As Goode has put it, the exhibit should comprise a related series of clear and comprehensible labels, illustrated by specimens. The Smithsonian or National Museum in America and the Pitt Rivers Collection at Bethnal Green in London were the first to illustrate this principle, to which the best administrators of the day have given a cordial welcome.

The first occasion on which the two methods were conspicuously comparable before the public eye was at Philadelphia in 1876, when the Government exhibit prepared on the newer lines was in striking contrast to the hotch-potch of many other exhibits. It is gratifying in the extreme to see how well the lesson has been taken to heart and how great the advance has been between 1876 and 1893, as illustrated by the presentation of the exhibits of both private and public collectors at Chicago. It is true that there are still many dreadful examples of outworn methods to be found here and there, but they are sufficiently in the minority to emphasize the rule, and, when of official character, are invariably foreign and from the less progressive countries. That progress is not confined to the northern hemisphere or to large countries, is fully exemplified by the admirable manner in which New South Wales has organized her exhibits, labelled and arranged them, besides printing clear and comprehensible guides to many of them. It is a matter of public comment among all those qualified to judge that none of our foreign exhibitors has surpassed, and few if any, have equalled, our progressive Australian friends in this respect. Japan, too, is conspicuous for her well-selected and judiciously educational exhibit, which no "museum-man" will pass without favorable comment.

In the general divisions of the Fair it is notable that the perfection with which this side of the work has been carried out is clearly proportional to the scientific character of the workers in the particular field. Thus, nearly all mining-men have more or less scientific training, and the Mining Building, as a whole, contains better arranged and more instructive material than any other on the grounds. Agriculture has felt the directing hand of science less, or at all events less generally, than any other profession, and so the agricultural exhibits appeal more to the idea of immensity or the puerile conceits of the uncultured than those of any other group. No great corporation has benefited more by the labor of scientific experts in its line of work than has the Pennsylvania Railway, and we find its special exhibit scientifically arranged and instructive in the highest degree; and so we might go on indefinitely to illustrate the point. Naturally the National Museum, as the source of the impulse which has moved so many others in the right direction, stands at the head, with the associated bureaus of the Government, in the display of the methods in question, but the great need of room and the small means supplied for the purpose of the present Government exhibit prevent this feature of it from being as prominent as it might have been under more propitious circumstances. That it is not without its effect is obvious from the crowds which swarm in the aisles of these exhibits from morning till night, evidently finding there not only what attracts but what interests them.

In zoölogy the Fair offers a rather meagre display, which is made still more obscure by being broken up into small exhibits, many of which are found in most unexpected places. The most representative general exhibit is that of Prof. Ward of Rochester in the gallery of the Anthropological Building. Here a very excellent series of specimens suitable for a teaching museum are brought together, well and clearly labelled and attractively arranged. The model of the mammoth here attracts much attention, and the taxidermy throughout is good, if not remarkable. There are a number of specimens of taxidermy exhibited by private persons, none of which needs special comment; the general average is poor and inartistic. The furriers in the Liberal Arts Building have here and there a well-mounted fur animal; a few may be found in the Leather Building; and small collections representing State faunas may be found in most of the buildings erected by the several States or foreign countries. Most of these are poorly mounted and very imperfectly labelled. Occasionally a rare creature may be detected among these forlorn representatives of their kind, as in the case of the Liberian hippopotamus, a mounted specimen of which is included in the exhibit of that little African State. The exhibit made by the State Museum of New York is creditable, clean and well labelled, one of the best of the minor collections.

The National Museum exhibits a mounted series showing examples of all the families and most of the genera of American mammals and a number of groups of North American mammals, accompanied by accessories indicating the natural surroundings of the species. Among these the most interesting are those containing the Rocky Mountain sheep and goats, the woodland and barren-ground caribou, and the Pacific sea-lions. A fine walrus might have been more life-like if the taxidermist had had a better guide than Elliott's caricatures of this unfortunate animal, which, in addition to extinction, seems to be doomed to posthumous misrepresentation. The most important among the exhibits in this series is the mounted skin of a very good example of the Alaskan sea-otter, perhaps the best existing specimen in any museum. A number of large African game animals are also shown, some of which are rare. Similar series, illustrating the American families of birds, reptiles, and batrachians, fishes, insects, etc., are also exhibited by the Museum, as well as two very attractive collections of the birds of Paradise and humming-birds. Several groups of species, formerly common but apparently now verging on extinction, comprise the Carolina paroquet, the wild pigeon, and the ivory-billed woodpecker. There are also spirited groups representing the

courtship of the prairie chickens, and the flamingo with its singular nests.

Such groups are not only æsthetically more attractive than the ordinary mounted bird on a plain perch, but they convey to the beholder some idea of the bird's habits and natural surroundings, so that the most careless can hardly go away without learning something new. Excellent examples of this sort of mounting may be seen in the American Museum of Natural History at Central Park, and in the British Museum, Kensington; but the restricted space and the small amount of money available at Washington have hitherto prevented the National Museum from extending to birds the treatment which has been so successfully applied to the larger mammals. The subject of fish and fisheries was so well exemplified at Philadelphia that the result at Chicago is something of a disappointment. Excepting for the fisheries of North America, the exhibition is small and mostly unimportant. The reason is not far to seek. The United States and Canada collectively have nothing to learn at present from foreign countries, and no foreign dealers in fish products have any reason for supposing that they can gain a foothold in our markets, except for sundry specialties like cod-liver oil. Consequently the commercial incentive is lacking, and, apart from such countries as New South Wales and Japan, which have made an exhibit as a matter of national pride and in evidence of the state of their industries, the foreign fisheries are very imperfectly represented. The Government exhibit is good, though less prominent than in 1876, and the practical rather than the scientific side of the Fish Commission's work is emphasized. The aquaria are useful in showing a good many unfamiliar salt-water fishes to the Western visitor, but the fresh-water aquaria have suffered from virulent attacks of the fish fungus (*Saprolegnia*) and are less successful. This exhibit, as a whole, is that of tanks of water with fish in them, and not aquaria in the strict sense of the word, which implies a balance of conditions between the water plants and the animals, as in a state of nature. Many of the State exhibits show more or less dilapidated stuffed fishes as a part of their faunal exhibit, but California has an excellent series of models, by Denton's method, of her chief economic species. These are well colored and properly labelled. New South Wales has a good series of alcoholic fishes in the same excellent order as the rest of her exhibits. The collection shown by Japan is more interesting from the economic or anthropological side than as illustrating the ichthyology of the empire. The shell fisheries are almost unrepresented in the Exposition except by the canned product. A few unlabelled and poorly preserved shells appear in the Brazilian exhibit, a few oysters and pearl shells in the collections of New South Wales and Mexico; Wisconsin shows a pretty series of fresh-water pearls in (of all places) the Mining Building; and Tiffany has a fine series of pearls in their natural state, beside those worked into ornaments—but this is about all that is visible in this line, excepting the series of shells contained in the Ward exhibit in the Anthropological Building. There are a few interesting models of fish traps and weirs in the collection shown by the Sultan of Johore in the Plaisance, but these objects belong under the head of Anthropology rather than that of Ichthyology.

Entomology is admirably illustrated by the collections in the Government Building made by the Entomological Bureau of the Agricultural Department. Probably no portion of the whole Exposition better illustrates the scientific modern method of presenting such matters to the public eye. The insect is shown fully labelled in all its stages and varieties, with its food plant and cocoons, with illustrations of its ravages when injurious, or beneficial methods of work when useful, supplemented by a small map showing its geographical range, and often, when of economic importance, accompanied by enlarged anatomical models. Nothing more clear, instructive, and satisfactory can be imagined. The experiment stations of the several States in the Agricultural Building show a collective exhibit which is very creditable, though less efficiently displayed than that made by the Government; and there are the usual miscellaneous collections of attractive butterflies, etc., to be found in many of the State exhibits and in those shown by foreign governments. W. H. D.

## THE MOST SUBLIME OF EARTHLY SPECTACLES.

PORTLAND, Oregon, July, 1893.

TEN hours and a half after leaving Flagstaff, we reached the Grand Cañon Station, which at present consists of a log-cabin (stored with bacon, hams, canned goods, and antidotes to thirst), besides a number of tents—a large one for kitchen and dining-room, and smaller ones for visitors, each tent having a board floor and a comfortable bed. The tents cost a dollar a day, and the same sum is charged for a meal, which will be found as good as can be expected under the circumstances. Through a lucky coincidence, two of the very few springs on the Cañon's brink were found right here, where the scenery is at its best. Standing beside them one cannot avoid recalling the sad stories of men who wandered along the edge of the Cañon for days and finally perished of thirst, within sight of the inaccessible river below, mocking them with the distant roar of its turbulent waters.

In speaking of the Walnut Cañon I said that one comes across it unexpectedly and without warning, in the midst of the pine forest. The same is true of the Grand Cañon. The forest grows up to its very edge, and although the camp is only a hundred yards from the brink of the colossal abyss, one might live there a year without suspecting its presence. The superintendent of the camp told me a story of a Chinaman who was brought there as cook. He saw how people constantly came and went, staying half a week or longer, and as he could not see anything extraordinary about the tent village, he finally, at the end of his first week, asked the waiter what brought so many people to such an out-of-the-way place. The waiter promised to tell him after the dishes were washed; then he took him up the hill—only a minute's walk from the tent. Arriving at the brink, the Chinaman threw up his hands in astonishment and awe; he could not fathom the mystery, and the exclamation, "What for?" burst from his lips. Thereafter he daily sat there for an hour. Yet no one needs to envy the Chinaman his sublime surprise: though you have read a dozen descriptions of the Cañon, and seen a hundred photographs, your astonishment—I had almost said consternation—will not be less than his. I have read somewhere of two Englishmen, one of whom, on reaching this point, exclaimed, "Well, I'll be damned!" while the other sat down and wept like a child. Their emotion was the same; they merely had different ways of expressing it.

Lessing intimates in his 'Laokoön' that Homer gives one a more vivid idea of Helen's beauty by noting the effect it had on the Trojan elders than he could have done by a lengthy enumeration of her charms. I feel inclined to follow this Homeric example, and not attempt a description of the Grand Cañon, after noting its effect on the Chinaman and the Englishmen. If you will look at photographs of different parts of the Cañon, you will understand how utterly hopeless such a task must be. The best and largest photographs of these scenes appear blurred and wanting in perspective and details, the reason being that the distances and dimensions are so gigantic, and the details so infinite, that no camera can possibly condense them, unless you take one detail at a time and afterwards enlarge it, as the minute kodak portraits are sometimes enlarged to life-size. What the camera cannot do, it is useless for the pen to attempt. A few hints may nevertheless be given as to what visitors may expect.

Many persons, on arriving at the brink, are prepared to peep down between two dark, precipitous walls, only a few hundred feet apart, with the Colorado River flowing a mile or more below as far as eye can reach on either side. The Grand Cañon is no such thing, at least from this point of view; it is instead a stupendous abyss, almost circular in appearance, more than twelve miles across from where you stand to the opposite brink, and extending to the right and left indefinitely, according to the elevation of your point of view. Unlike the Yosemite Valley, this huge opening in the ground has no snow peaks, cliffs, or domes along its sides, but has a level brink as far as eyesight extends; nor are the vertical walls adorned with waterfalls, as at the Yosemite—except after showers. Instead of having its mountains and cliffs and other architectural ornaments along its rim, the Grand Cañon seems to have *swallowed them all;* and there they stand, rising from the level of the river, which is almost sea-level, to where you stand, more than 7,000 feet above the sea. This is one of the unique, the marvellous, the amazing aspects of the Grand Cañon—that it is a conglomeration of scenic features such as you *might* expect to see from a mountain top, while here you find them buried in a big hole in the ground, so that you have to come to the very brink before you see them.

No less unique and marvellous are the dimensions of all the individual factors in this scene, which dwarf everything the most experienced traveller can have beheld before. Yet what the eyes show us of this grandeur is but a fraction of the reality. We have no standard of measurement for such cyclopean scenes. So much, however, is obvious at a glance that if we should pile the Hudson River palisades on top of the precipitous wall opposite us, they would add no more to its apparent height than a single brick would add to the tallest building in New York. And Mr. Charles Dudley Warner did not exaggerate when he wrote of the mount[illegible]n lying in the foreground below us, that "the great San Francisco mountain, with its snowy crater, which we had passed on the way, might have been set down in the place of this one, and it would have been only one in a multitude of such forms that met the eye whichever way we looked"; or of the Yosemite, that, "dumped down into this wilderness of gorges and mountains, it would take a guide who knew of its existence a long time to find it." The river, too, aids our imagination in grasping the grandeur which our senses cannot measure un-

aided. Far off to the right we see two short streaks of it. They seem like sections of a trout brook, but we know that they are part of a big river, and those who have been on its bank say that it is here as rapid and wild as the Niagara whirlpool. These two streaks are all we see from this point of the Colorado, which, for the rest of its sinuous course, is either hidden between the Cañon mountains or sunk far out of sight in the bowels of the earth.

Curiously sloping, terraced, and pinnacled are these subterranean mountains, as one feels tempted to call them—for we have only to imagine a roof over the Cañon to convert it into the biggest cave in the world. Fortunately it is not a cave, else we should lose the *ensemble* view, the constant changes of aspect produced by the varying illumination of sun and moon, and the exquisite color effects which add the touch of beauty to all this sublimity. The different rock strata, which here reveal the secrets of earth-building, have each their own color—red, gray, brown, purplish, in streaks and layers diverse. Close by, to your left, is a patch of brilliant red rock, which for all the world looks like one of the picturesque beds of crowded flowers one sees on the California foothills in spring. The purplish or brown colors prevail in the upper layers, while the lower slopes seem covered with green moss; but this moss is really a forest of shrubs and trees of respectable size. As the hour of sunset approaches, a bluish mist, or atmosphere, is cast over the whole, and modifies all the tints to a more sombre aspect. The abysmal mountains to the left cast their long shadows, and their summits assume the fantastic forms of temples and houses and castles of a race of giants—pagodas and Walhallas so deceptive and complete that little is left for the imagination to add to what the eyes can see.

To the right the view is even more varied and imposing, with more mountains rising from the Cañon, more dizzy palisade walls, and the two streaks of the river before mentioned. Beyond the brink of the Cañon, too, there is here a sight which, just before sunset, rivets the attention and makes an indelible impression. Far off in the distance are the faint outlines of the Navajo Mountain, in the shape of a watermelon; to its left, nearer the Cañon, a range of mountains of almost a chalky white, and between this and the Cañon lies a streak of desert which any one who did not know to the contrary would swear was a large lake, and which gives one a good idea of what a lake mirage must be like. After the sun has set, these phantoms disappear, but a new rosy hue is diffused over everything, like the Swiss Alpine glow. With the sun, too, disappears a sight, only a hundred feet to your right, to which I have never seen any reference, but which is more remarkable than the profile in the White Mountains, or any other rock-portrait I have ever seen—the image of a long-bearded old man with a most kindly and thoughtful expression. Every feature is perfect, and the face strikingly resembles Michael Angelo's Moses.

No visitor to this region should fail to place himself for a day or two under the guidance of Mr. John Hance, who has for nine years made the Cañon his home, and knows every accessible part of it as well as you know your own house. He has asbestos, copper, and silver mines—fifty-eight in number—in various parts of it, has one cabin on the brink, another part way down, and another by the river, with plenty of burros for himself and those who intrust themselves to his care; some of these animals were born in the Cañon and have never been out of it. There are now two roads to the river, and though requiring firm muscles and a steady head, even ladies have been down them. In winter Mr. Hance makes the bottom his home, in summer the brink. Down there he has seen butterflies and lizards play about him in the warm air when a storm had just deposited a thick layer of snow on the rim, only a few stray flakes of which reached the bottom. Major Powell, on his daring expedition down the river in 1869, encountered a temperature as high as 115 degrees in this abyss; and on September 13, 1889, Dr. Merriam found 80 degrees at the bottom, while at the top of the Cañon thick ice formed on a bucket of water. "In descending from the plateau level to the bottom of the Cañon," says the same writer, in a Government publication, "a succession of temperature zones is encountered equivalent to those stretching from the coniferous forests of northern Canada to the cactus plains of Mexico." And of the interior of the Cañon he says :

"It has ledges, terraces, and mesas, barren crags and grassy slopes, lofty mountains and deep valleys, cool hillsides clad in forests of balsam firs, and hot bottoms filled with subtropical thickets; it has arid stretches of sand bearing a scattered growth of cactus and yucca, and marshes and springs that never become dry and are hidden by the verdure of a multitude of plants requiring a moisture-laden atmosphere for their existence. Its animal life is as sharply varied and contrasted."

If you lack time or strength to follow Mr. Hance into this strange abyss, you must not fail, at any rate, to go with him to Bissell's Point, five miles east of the camp, or, better still, a mile less, to a sort of isolated buttress or rocky projection, whence you see straight down the abrupt wall and get a much more vivid impression of the awful depth of the Cañon than from the point near the camp. On this rocky projection are still seen fragments of pottery and other evidences that it was used by the Indians as a habitation of some sort. It could hardly have been a fortress, isolated though it be, for where could the water have come from in case of a siege? Perhaps it was a place of "religious" resort—Mr. Hance has heard traditions of the Indians bringing their prisoners to this horrible precipice, swinging them over it, to gratify their love of torture, and then dropping them, to be dashed into a thousand pieces, like the rocks he threw over by way of illustration.

Mr. Hance is as proud of the Grand Cañon as if it were his own creation, and if he could write down his experiences, they would perhaps make as interesting a book as Major Powell's long-expected volume on the Cañon will doubtless prove. He rarely leaves it for more than a few days at a time, and then longs for it as an exiled Swiss does for his avalanches. Summer and winter it is equally attractive to him, but for visitors he recommends May and June, October and November, as the best months; for then all weather chances are eliminated, the sky is sure to be blue, and there is usually a brisk breeze. Yet midsummer has its advantages too, especially in the cloud phenomena in the Cañon, in the sand-whirls spinning across the adjoining desert like water-spouts, in the sight of rain in the heated air that never reaches the parched ground, and in the terrific rain-torrents that have been compared to volcanic eruptions. Oddly enough, whereas in neighboring California the rain almost always falls at night, here it rarely comes except in the daytime. Yet even in the rainy season the air is always dry, and meat left exposed to it does not spoil. Although the heat by day is greater than in the tropics, the nights are usually comfortable; there are no mosquitoes, and the large flies which are quite troublesome during the day, vanish instantly at sunset. Were it not for these flies, the Cañon camp would be an excellent sanitarium, except for those whose heart is affected by so great an altitude, causing palpitation and loss of sleep in a prolonged stay. Probably ere long there will be a railroad to the Cañon and a hotel. If they are not built obtrusively, there will be no harm in them, for they will appear like mere toys amid nature's mammoth phenomena. The lover of dry, bracing air and perfect repose will find this an ideal resort, where silence is never broken except by the arrow-like whiz of a passing swallow, or the cooing of amorous turtledoves mingling with the forest music. Nowhere is man less obtrusive. Go a hundred yards from camp, and you might wander about for weeks and never encounter human habitation. A student of the sublime can profitably spend a month here. He will never get over the surprise of going up that unpromising hill and finding himself suddenly on a mountain-top, and beneath him "the most sublime of all earthly spectacles." HENRY T. FINCK.

## VENETIAN PICTURES RE-VIEWED.

VENICE, July 28, 1893.

AFTER an absence of fifteen years, I am in Venice again, and have been industriously picture-hunting for two weeks. Perhaps I am now in a position to give some systematic account of my impressions of the pictures of Venice; and these impressions, as those of a painter seeing with his own eyes and using such knowledge as his training has given him, may not be without interest for some of the readers of the *Nation*. I give them for what they are worth, not supposing that they settle anything, and leave the reader to make his own allowances for "personal equation."

First of all, then, the earlier men, the Vivarini and the rest, and even Gentile Bellini and the much-lauded Carpaccio, may, by all but the historical student of art, be entirely neglected. Carpaccio's St. Ursula series is an entertaining picture-book, full of historical costumes and "documents" for the reconstruction of a past Venice, but they are quite artless and childlike in both composition and drawing, and not very remarkable in color; and the traveller who follows Mr. Ruskin's advice and spends much time in reverential study of them, is likely to hinder his growth in any real appreciation of what painting is. The first seriously considerable artist of the school is Giovanni Bellini, and he holds his own well. There is no lovelier piece of early Renaissance work, of the somewhat hard and thinly painted kind, than the Frari Madonna; and the steady, strong growth in breadth and power and fulness shown in his other two capital pieces here, the Madonna of San Zaccaria and the "Saints Jerome, Christopher, and Augustine" of San Giovanni Crisostomo, is truly wonderful. The first of these, which can be seen to advantage only in the late afternoon, when the westering sun floods the church and lights up its dark corners, I did not truly see when I was here before, and the second I did not see at all, and they have considerably modified my view of Bellini. They are noble works of art, and, for the moment, almost incline one to accept Dürer's dictum that Bellini was, in his old age, "still the best painter of them all." The quality of most of the Titians here aids one to feel this. But though Bellini

has assumed new dignity in my eyes, even here there are reservations to make, and it is distinctly *not* true that, as the Baedeker quotes Ruskin, "John Bellini . . . united in equal and magnificent measures justness of drawing, nobleness of coloring, and perfect manliness of treatment, with the purest religious feeling." "Justness of drawing," even at his best, he had not. His Madonnas' faces are still enthralled by the Byzantine ideal, and, if sweet, are feeble; but even his more portrait-like accessory heads are thoroughly well drawn only when in profile, and his attempts at foreshortening are distinctly bad, while his treatment of the nude, as in the St. Sebastian of the large picture in the Academy, or the St. Christopher in the picture mentioned above, is meagre and primitive. The numerous works by him in the Academy are nearly all second-rate, and need not detain us.

Destructive criticism is fast reducing Giorgione to a myth, and there is nothing here to help one to a belief in him. There is said to be a picture by him in the Palazzo Giovanelli, which is inaccessible, and there is an "Apollo and Daphne" in the Seminario Patriarcale which the guide-book pronounces "genuine but retouched," but which is certainly greatly inferior to many of the pictures now taken from him. For the rest there is nothing worth seeing in this little collection.

And now we come to the greatest name in Venetian art and to the greatest disappointment of Venice. In Venice one has to hold with both hands to the memory of the splendid portraits, the wonderful small canvases with single nude figures, that one has seen elsewhere, to retain one's respect and veneration for the name of Titian. He has only one great canvas in the Ducal Palace, for which I am humbly thankful, but the churches are full of his altar-pieces, and they are almost all of them pompous and uninteresting and (let me risk the word) mediocre. Many of the lesser men show better than he. Palma's "Santa Barbara" is better than almost any of the Titians here, and Bonifacio and Paris Bordone and Pordenone and even Lorenzo Lotto are often more interesting. His "Doge Grimani" not only shows "want of feeling and coarseness of conception," as Ruskin very justly remarks, but is badly composed and not well painted, and is quite unpleasant in color. His "Assumption," in the Belle Arti, is usually labelled his masterpiece. It is clumsy and posed in its arrangement, the figures are common in type and (several of them) badly drawn, the color is bright with the brightness of stained glass, thin and lacking in quality. Tintoretto's "Miracle of St. Mark," which hangs near it, eclipses it utterly. Some of the nude baby bodies are adorably painted, and in them only does Titian show himself. It is so with picture after picture. From the early "St. Mark" in the Salute, much bewhiskered and theatrical and surrounded by stumpy, big-headed saints, to the melancholy mouldiness of the Pietà in the Academy, his last work, of which the color and texture resemble nothing but old cheese, there is hardly a really fine work—hardly one that is *felt*—that seems painted with conviction. The "Peter Martyr," which was probably the best of the lot, is gone, but the "St. Lawrence" is here, and the "Annunciation" in San Salvatore, and the "Presentation of the Virgin," and "San Giovanni Elemosinario"; and the guide-books give long quotations about them from Crowe and Cavalcaselle, in which all the adjectives are exhausted in the effort to convey an idea of their transcendent grandeur and beauty. The tourist looks and wonders and tries to admire and doesn't, and imagines that art is a strange sealed book. The "Presentation" is flat and hard and commonplace, and the others are grimy and brown and woolly, and commonplace too.

One is almost tempted, finally, to wonder if it is not Titian's very mediocrity which has contributed to the universal acceptance of his work and the overwhelming dominance of his name. No; Titian was unquestionably a very great painter, and even in Venice one may see it occasionally. The "Pesaro Madonna" is a fine picture, and there is one other even finer. But the "Pesaro Madonna" might seem nearly as cold and pompous as some of the others were it not for the portraits, which save it; and when one's eye lights on the little head in the corner—is it a boy's or a young woman's, that fair head with its mild, steady glance and the white silk sleeve and shoulder telling so finely against the flesh?—one has surprised Titian's secret. He was purely a painter, and above all a portraitist, and his heart was not in these big canvases, painted because altar pieces were in demand. It is not lack of "religious feeling" that makes them inferior—he surely had as much as Veronese, who is superb—but lack of decorative feeling. Instead of regretting that Titian was employed so much in painting portraits of kings and emperors or easel-pictures for their cabinets, what we should regret is that he was ever employed at anything else. He was the greatest of portrait-painters and of the painters of the nude. Give him a limited space and a model, and he is unsurpassable. But his grand "machines," his *tableaux d'apparat*, are mostly failures. In the Scuola di San Rocco, on the staircase, high over a door and nearly invisible, is a little picture of two figures not over half life-size, an "Annunciation," which is the one Titian in Venice to which the much-abused word "masterpiece" might be fairly applied. It is badly dried in and somewhat browned, but, fortunately, has never attracted the attention of the restorer. It is a pity that it cannot be taken down and cautiously, *most* cautiously, cleaned and placed in a good light somewhere. It is one of the loveliest and most delightful pictures I know. I got up on a ladder and studied it, close to, at my leisure. This is Titian, Titian at his best, the absolute painter—as charming in sentiment as it is consummate in quiet mastery of execution, and nothing else in Venice seems quite as perfect as this.

Perhaps the strangest genius in the roll of great artists is Tintoretto. A great genius he unquestionably was, yet no other great painter sinks so low. If Titian is often mediocre, Tintoretto is often, perhaps most often, downright bad—bad with a thorough, uncompromising badness that is surprising. His bad pictures are at once vulgar in conception, sprawling and disorganized in composition, lumpy and exaggerated or actually feeble in drawing, insufferably careless in execution, and black, dirty, and unpleasant in color. And the very worst of his bad pictures are collected together in that museum of vast daubs where the faithful flock of Mr. Ruskin goes to worship, the Scuola di San Rocco. The public ought to be warned against that humbug, and the guide-books reformed. My Baedeker tells the tourist that the Tintorettos in San Giorgio Maggiore are "daubs redounding to the painter's everlasting shame"; why should it print, as approving, Mr. Ruskin's statement that the worse daubs of the Scuola make it "one of the three most precious buildings in Italy," bracketing it with the Sistine Chapel; and that "whatever . . . the traveller may miss in Venice" he should give *it* "unembarrassed attention and unbroken time"? I say, with due deliberation, that, with the exception of the little Titian mentioned above, there is not a picture in the Scuola di San Rocco that has any value other than as an awful warning, or that is worth five minutes of the time of any one but the professed critic and historian of art.

The first thing that strikes one about these pictures is that they are in the most wretched state of preservation—or rather of *un*preservation. The blues have faded to ashy whiteness, and the other tints have blackened, until any merit they may have possessed is lost for ever. They are mere wrecks. But they are not wrecks of great pictures. They never can have been anything but scrawled and sloppy sketches, without dignity or seriousness of any sort, and painted like the scenery of a small theatre. I have not my books at hand, and do not remember the story exactly, but they were painted for nothing or next to nothing, and in a prodigiously short space of time, and they show it. Neither do I find them more powerful or interesting in conception than in execution. The "Massacre of the Innocents" is, as my companion remarked, "about as interesting as an average Salon picture." The Madonna of the "Annunciation" is inconceivably coarse in type and careless in execution, and the cataract of cherubs rushing over the transom is theatrical rather than dramatic. As for the wonderful meanings which Mr. Ruskin has found in these pictures, one can account for them only on the ground that the pictures are so dim and black that one can fancy anything in them. He sees in the "Baptism" a second horizon opening under the river bank and the Spirit carrying away Christ to his temptation, where there is absolutely nothing on the canvas but the reflection of the sky in the water. But it is useless to go on. Only remark that I do not except even "The Crucifixion," Tintoretto's "masterpiece," from the indictment. It is slightly better than the others, but only slightly. It has all the faults of the *baroque* in architecture and sculpture, and one is puzzled to understand how that hater of the *baroque*, Mr. Ruskin, should admire it in painting.

There are many more bad Tintorettos in Venice, but we may pass them by and occupy ourselves with the good ones, which are in considerable numbers too, fortunately, and which are almost as astonishingly good as the bad ones are bad—so good as to leave one wondering how the painter who was capable of such work could ever have been guilty of the others. One is not only puzzled but exasperated by the man. Perhaps the best of them all is the "Pallas driving away Mars" in the Anticollegio of the Ducal Palace. Tintoretto has four smallish pictures in this room, which the guide-book does not even give a star to, yet these *are*, if you like, masterpieces. The "Bacchus and Ariadne" is the best known, and is, in part, superb, but the figure of Ariadne has faded and lost its glazes, and is clay-colored and cold. Her head can never have been anything but mean and characterless, and it is only the floating figure that is of Tintoretto's very best. How shall one describe the "Pallas and Mars"? Titian plus Correggio is as near to its formula as one can come, but there is much in it that is neither Titian nor Correggio, and which no one but Tintoretto could have done. The fulness and glow of color is Titian at his best, but Titian with a difference—Titian inclining to the blue and green of the scale and away from the red and yellow. The richness of light and shade, the glow of the lovely knees

and rounded arms, and the transparent depths of shadow, are like Correggio, but a Correggio of more daring invention and shorn of the affectations and prettinesses adored of schoolgirls. The lithe suppleness of full-muscled form, the adorable distinction of the delicately poised heads, with their shining braids of golden-brown hair, the firm hands, with their square-ended fingers—these are Tintoretto and none other; one of the first painters of all time when he took the time to be so.

There are two other Tintorettos in the Ducal Palace that no lover of painting should fail to see, "Saints Jerome and Andrew" and "Saints Lewis, Margaret, and George with the Dragon," in the ante-chamber of the Chapel. They are high up over doors, of the quiet, *gray* type of Tintoretto's work, and might pass unnoticed, but they are masterly in every touch, and show, perhaps, more colorist's power in their grayness than many a gorgeous Titian. This style of coloring in a subdued half-tint of grayish quality, neither golden nor silvery nor black, was one in which Tintoretto did much of his best work, witness the "Crucifixion" in San Cassiano—a noble picture and infinitely superior to the "Crucifixion" of the Scuola di San Rocco. The "Paradiso" is "the largest oil-painting in the world," and, for me, that is almost its only distinction. It is not very bad, but it is too big to be very good. Probably no one else could have done it as well, but *no one* could hold a picture of that size together, or paint that vast concourse of figures with more than occasional felicity. Of the other Tintorettos in the Ducal Palace the less said the better. They are of varying degrees of badness almost to the very worst.

At the Madonna dell' Orto are the two big and turbulent compositions of "The Last Judgment" and "The Golden Calf," wonderful in their way, but not beautiful; the "Presentation," of which one-half is magnificent and the other intolerable; and, smaller than these, but still a large picture, "The Miracle of St. Agnes." This, even more than the "Marriage of Cana" at the Salute, though that too is a superlatively fine picture, especially in its row of female heads, is an example of Tintoretto's marvellous power over light and shade. It is held together like a small Rembrandt, and has as much depth and luminosity and sense of values, with finer color. The composition is dignified and the types noble, and the only fault to be found in it is in its upper portion, where the flight of kicking, blue angels reminds us a little too much of the painter's capricious moments. Finally, there is the astonishing "Miracle of St. Mark" at the Academy, which is quite unlike any other Tintoretto or any other Italian picture that I know of. It is not without its faults; occasionally the drawing is careless and more often turgid; and, while the color is brilliant and gorgeous in the highest degree, the tone is not as perfect, the unity not quite as thorough, as in some of his quieter canvases. What distinguishes it particularly and places it among the world's great masterpieces is its amazing virtuosity. It seems to have been painted throughout *alla prima*—at one jet—with no under-painting and very little glazing, in a method more suggestive of Rubens or Hals than of any Italian work. The handling is less flowing and slippery than with Rubens, less abrupt and chippy than with Hals, the tone more full and transparent than with Velasquez; but the instantaneous touch, the economy of means, the marvellous precision, place him with these three as one of the unapproachable technicians—one of the few who have made the mere material endlessly delightful to the lover of painting. The broad modelling of the nude foreshortened body of the slave, with its impasted lights sliding imperceptibly into its thinly rubbed shadows; the extraordinarily living head of the old man at the left (said to be the master himself), painted with a few sharp countable yet liquid touches; the magnificent sweep of the brush as it places the lights in the mass of drapery on the back of the executioner and unerringly models the brawny forms beneath; the painting, with three or four flowing strokes apiece, of the broken implements in the foreground—these things, added to a feeling for style and grandeur of form truly Italian, and a color-sense as truly Venetian in its richness, make this picture a "miracle" indeed. How *could* its author have been guilty of the shameless scurrying of the Scuola?

Before leaving Tintoretto, let me record a small discovery of my own which may not be without interest. In the Museo Civico there are two small canvases, between two and three feet high, which are either sketches for or copies of "The Last Judgment" and "The Golden Calf," it doesn't matter which. Looking at these, I was struck with a curious identity between two figures, one in either picture. It was not at all the identity of two figures copied from the same drawing, but the identity of a statue seen from two different points of view. One figure is nearly upright, flying upward and seen from the back; the other is falling head first and strongly foreshortened; but the relative positions of the limbs, the turn of the head on the shoulders, the peculiar angle of the feet, are unmistakably the same. On further looking I found a third figure in which the same pose occurred, drawn from still a third point of view and with an alteration of the action of one arm. There is a well-known story of how Tintoretto studied foreshortening and light and shade by means of small wax models hung up by threads in different positions and in different lights. Here was the proof of the story, and I felt that I had caught the painter in the act. He had used the same *maquette* twice if not three times in composing these two pictures, and with a result so different, pictorially, that only accident disclosed the fact.

It seems to me that Veronese has hardly yet had full and complete justice done him. He is apt to be brought in a poor third or fourth after the other great Venetians are done with, and dismissed by the critic with a little grudging praise or a bare acknowledgment that he "shows as yet no trace of the approaching period of decline," or that he "maintains the best traditions of his school." When will the critics learn, what the painters have always known, that Paul Veronese was one of the most astonishing geniuses for painting—one is almost inclined to say *the* most astonishing genius—that ever lived? It is true he is not a good subject for writing about. The most ingenious inventor of meanings would have difficulty in finding any meaning in his splendid works. The "subject" is nothing to him, and he has no discoverable "thoughts" and no "sentiment" other than the sentiment of beauty. He is contented with painting, and he expresses only the glory of life and the beauty of the world, the pomp of color and the joy of light and air. Even his technical merits are difficult to write of, for his manner is so natural and simple that he seems to have none, his handling so quietly masterful as to be unnoticeable, his light and shade so perfect as to escape comment. He seems to me the most Greek of modern artists, without shade of morbidity, joyously serene, content as the Greeks were with the perfection of craftsmanship and the perfection of art. Considering the amount of his production, it is wonderfully even in quality. He is never commonplace—still less is he ever bad; he is only not quite at his best sometimes. Sometimes his opulence approaches confusion, sometimes his color is less ringingly true than at others. Some of his pictures have embrowned too much, and here and there there is a yellow or a pale blue that, one judges, has faded or has not changed with the gilding of the other tones, and so jars slightly; very rarely there is a doubtful bit of drawing or a weak head. A few of his pictures have a vinous tone that is not quite pleasant. But at his best what a magnificent *tempérament de peintre!* What mastery of composition, what perfection of tone, what thoroughness of draughtsmanship, what felicity of touch! He is a very giant among the painters. After him the Deluge; but with him, for a moment, the art of painting reached its apogee. To imitate him is fatal, but no one ever did or ever will paint so well. He is magnificent in the Louvre, superb in San Sebastiano, triumphant in the Ducal Palace, but, to my personal feeling, nowhere so glorious as in his "Martyrdom of St. George" in the Church of San Giorgio in Braida at Verona. It was a sensation to remember for a lifetime when the sacristan drew the curtains and the picture burst upon one. It was like a splendid hymn of victory—one wanted to shout aloud and sing. If painting can produce such an effect as this, it does indeed deserve its place among the foremost of the arts. There are a blue and a red in the picture almost pure from the tube, apparently, yet so exquisitely just in their relation to each other and to all the colors about them as to be worth a kingdom!

After 200 years a sort of bastard son was born to Veronese. Tiepolo is of the eighteenth century, is rococo; he is *coquet* rather than sumptuous, amusing and immensely clever rather than grand; but one feels that the blood of the great decorator is running in his veins. In the "Antony and Cleopatra" of the Palazzo Labia there is a more wilful resemblance to Veronese than elsewhere, an attempt at his pomp of arrangement, and an imitation of his costumes. It is remarkably able, but perhaps less individual and less charming than others of his works. The great ceilings of the Gesuiti and the Pietà are Tiepolo pure and simple. Nothing of the eighteenth century is so characteristic of the epoch, or, in its way, so fine. Tiepolo is as delightful as Watteau or Boucher, while enough of the old Venetian glory hangs about him to make him greatly their superior in power. His great breadths of sky, with masses of cool or dun-colored clouds, perfect in harmony of tone; his audaciously foreshortened angels, with their long, elegant legs hanging out of swathes of voluminous drapery; the creamy light of a naked breast or shoulder, and the floating half-tint that obscures a graceful arm; the pale coloring of the whole relieved by an occasional snapping black—these make up a ravishing operatic heaven, a sort of celestial ballet. In the ceilings of the Scuola dei Carmini he seems even more delightfully impudent. One imagines a conclave of devout Carmelite monks gazing aloft in spiritual meditation at decorations that seem made only for the boudoir of a powdered marquise of undoubtful reputation—at a St. Agnes, type of innocence, with her lamb, too innocent to know that her voluminous skirts cover neither her legs nor her breast—at rollicking she-angels soaring

overhead in complete carelessness of the laws of perspective—and one is lost in wonder and admiration at that preposterous century. Tiepolo had an enormous talent. His knowledge is prodigious, and his audacity equal to anything. He lacks only a certain gravity and largeness—the magnificent seriousness of the great painters—to rank among the greatest. He is the last of the old masters and the cleverest of the moderns. KENYON COX.

# Correspondence.

## THE NANTASKET POSTMASTERSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wish to call the attention of your readers and the public generally to what seems to me to be a flagrant case of removal for political reasons and a manifest inconsistency with the spirit of civil-service reform.

The Postmaster at Nantasket, Mass., a Republican, but in no sense an offensive partisan, was appointed by President Arthur, held his office through the whole of Mr. Cleveland's first term and through Mr. Harrison's term—in all, up to the present time, about nine years. When he was appointed to the office (a fourth-class postmastership), it was a small one, but it has increased during his term, in part through his efforts, until the number of letters is double what it was when he was appointed. He has conducted the office in a businesslike way, and that he has given general satisfaction to the patrons of the office is shown by the fact that nine-tenths of them then resident there, without regard to party considerations, signed a remonstrance against his removal as soon as it was understood that there was another applicant for the place. In addition to this remonstrance a number of well-known business men of Boston, Democrats and Republicans, who, as summer residents, are patrons of this post-office, wrote letters stating that he ought to be retained in office. He has just been removed to make way for a Democratic applicant, an Irish-American, in many respects a worthy man, but who, from lack of education, could not perform the duties himself, and is therefore unfit for the place, while he is so much engrossed in the business of stabling, teaming, ice, expressing, etc., that even if he were capable, by reason of education, of properly filling the position, he would not have time at certain seasons to do so, and must therefore get some one else to do it for him. His only object in applying for the place is ascribed by his neighbors to a personal feeling against the present incumbent, and a consequent desire for his removal. His application for the place was endorsed by the Democratic town committees of Hingham, Hull, and Cohasset—the three towns which are served by this post-office—and I am told by no one else, so that it seems to be a clear case of politics vs. fitness. Politics have prevailed, and as the Postmaster at Boston, to whom this matter would probably be referred, is now an Irish-American, it might be suggested, by one inclined to suspicion, that race and religion have had their part in it too.

Now it may be said that the person on whose head rests the responsibility for this removal was not informed of these facts, but the answer is that if he was not, every opportunity was offered him for being so, and that he ought to have informed himself. I am a Democrat myself, and a thorough believer in Mr. Cleveland and in his desire to promote the cause of civil-service reform, and it is for this very reason that I wish to give these facts publicity, so that the traitor in the camp, whoever he may be, may be found, if possible, or at all events his further career arrested. I may further say that my relations with the newly appointed Postmaster have always been pleasant, and are so still, and that I have no desire to injure him in any way, nor complaints to make about him, excepting his application for this place.

I think that everything that I have stated can be authenticated by proof such as would satisfy a court or jury. FIAT JUSTITIA.

BOSTON, September 8, 1893.

## THE BOOMERANG IN THE TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is of some importance to note the steady change of opinion that is going on among the business community in spite of all the efforts and assumptions offered by party leaders. Business men have a way of looking at facts that affect their interests which defies these efforts, although they appear at times to put up with a great deal of humbug when they consider the country and not themselves individually concerned.

The writer, in the course of his travels recently, has had one or two evidences of this change that is going on offered him which will bear mention. One was the case of a manufacturer of woollen goods who had a special line of trade which was controlled mainly by English manufacturers before the McKinley Bill went into effect. He admitted that, in making up that bill, a provision was inserted to protect his line of goods, so that he got a net benefit of 50 per cent. above the regular market price for the English product as it was being sold in this country. With this protection he calculated that he was able to control the trade, but it seems that the result proved otherwise, for before the benefits of the new tariff could be received, each manufacturer in this country who was to be benefited by this change in the tariff entered the market and took orders at a reduced figure, so that they forced their own competitors to do the same if they were to secure their share. The result was that the American manufacturers were filled up with orders for a long time at prices much below those which they could obtain safely under the perfect working of the McKinley tariff on their goods. Since that time, competition has increased by this forced protection and the encouragement offered the American manufacturer, until now the selling price for these goods is so far below what is profitable that the price is no longer an inducement for orders, and the manufacturer admits that he is in condition to get more desirable orders abroad than at home. In fact, he contemplates going into the English market to sell at the same price and find a market for his entire product, rather than to stay at home and be satisfied with the sale of half of his output, which is the only alternative now left him.

Almost the same experience was reported by another manufacturer of paper of a special grade heretofore furnished by English manufacturers. Under the McKinley Bill the provisions made to protect were sufficient to advance the price so that the American manufacturer found it an object for him to make this line of goods and undersell the English manufacturer in this market; but along with this capacity to furnish an equally good article came the necessary competition, until today the market price for the home product is so reduced that there is no longer any question in the mind of the manufacturer as to his ability to compete with his English neighbor without tariff restrictions. In fact, his home market has grown so undesirable, and his output is so restricted by the overproduction, that he, too, was forced to admit that the tariff had helped him in a wrong way by overdoing the business at home.

These two instances are the most recent ones that have come to my notice. They are fresh, and can be vouched for, and probably represent many others not so well known to me. They ought to be simple and conclusive evidence as to the working of an unfair protective tariff made for the exclusive benefit of a class who, after all, are unable to profit by the privilege extended to them. They prove that the tariff business has been advocated to a most unreasonable extent, and that no one has suffered in the end more severely from it than the protected manufacturer himself. We can well believe from these instances that many who advocate protection in such a wholesale way, do not realize the actual working of the system as it affects our home industries; otherwise, they would advise a much more moderate protection, to say the least, and would brand such high-tariff advocates as McKinley and the leaders of his party as frauds who do not fairly represent the best interests of the country. It is a well-known fact among paper-manufacturers of this country that the prices afforded by the American market today for ordinary grades of printed papers is so reduced, under a tariff that prevents the outside manufacturer from entering this market, that the American producer is no longer able to depend upon his own home market for the sale of his entire output, but is already compelled to go abroad for orders at better prices. Every large American manufacturer in these grades of paper also alleges his ability to make an article superior to foreign manufacture—for good and sufficient reasons—chiefly the almost limitless supply of raw material, at the lowest cost at which it can be produced, the item of labor comparing favorably with the same item in Europe.

Under these circumstances we are hearing less and less from the manufacturer about the horrors of European competition. The present condition of business has proved to the most ardent high-tariff man that the cost of labor could hardly suffer more serious reductions in this country than it has already sustained. It also suggests the fact that another element pertaining to the price for labor may lie in the ability of that labor to *earn more or less*, and that this, after all, may be the only difference between the wages paid in this country and in the lowest-paid sections of Europe. When this fact is established in the minds of many who have supported the McKinley tariff, that piece of foolishness will no longer have a supporter, and we shall see manufacturers in all lines of business advocate and sustain the policy of that party which will state things as they are, and give us the protection which comes from a freer market without the fear of being condemned as advocating "free trade," whatever that may mean. BENJ. SPAULDING.

BOSTON, September 8, 1893.

## GOLD AND SILVER IN BRAZIL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Here is a bit of the history of gold and silver in another country. The observations quoted below are from John Luccock's 'Notes

on Brazil,' one of the most trustworthy books ever published regarding that country for the period of which it treats. Luccock was an English merchant who lived and travelled in Brazil from 1808 to 1818; his book was published in London in 1820. On pages 583-584 he says:

"Silver is the only description of bullion which the Treasury finds itself obliged to purchase. Formerly the royal fifths of gold were much more than sufficient to supply both Brazil and Portugal with a circulating medium; but so soon as the native metal of Brazil bore a premium in the markets of Europe, the country was nearly drained of it, and silver, in the shape of dollars, was sought for to supply its place. These dollars had previously circulated, in small numbers as a foreign coin, at the rate of 750 reis each. The Treasury purchased them at that ratio, recoined them, and sent precisely the same quality and weight of silver into circulation, at the rate of 960 reis. This circumstance, as was indeed clearly foreseen, caused the Spanish dollar to advance to 915 reis, and the country has been inundated with them at the advanced price. Estimating the gold which the Treasury has exchanged for these dollars at the rate established by law, it appears that the country has paid a premium upon every million of dollars which it has received, not less than 21,120 contos of reis; in other words, the people have paid so much more for the silver than they can sell it for again. It may be said, indeed, that, during the same period, gold has borne a premium, and that, in consequence, the silver has not actually cost so much as, at first sight, appears to be the case; yet, even if we take this into consideration, it will be found that the Brazilian Treasury has very simply given what is intrinsically worth 22 for that which will produce to it no more than 17, thus making five-seventeenths of the whole transaction against the country. Yet, as these notes are designed to represent the state of things, rather than its attending evils and the cure for them, perhaps sufficient has been said upon a subject which relates almost exclusively to South America."

JOHN C. BRANNER.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, September 2, 1893.

## THE GENESIS OF A PANIC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Senator Teller is reported, in our press despatches, as stating in the Senate that, "during the three weeks of the session, he had not heard anybody suggest an intelligent reason for the present financial condition. Nobody had analyzed the question as to whether the cause was or was not the 'Sherman Act.' He challenged any Senator to tell him, and to tell the American people, that he believed the people had brought about a panic because they were afraid of their money"—and more to the same effect. I do not come within the category of persons so challenged, but as I recollect all the panics we have had, from and including that of 1837, and have watched the present one pretty closely, and, I may say, participated in it by anticipation, I should like to offer the Senator an explanation of its cause suggested by my own experience and apprehensions.

Some time since I held a lot of United States 4 per cent. bonds, for which I had paid a considerable premium. The interest was, by law, payable *in coin*, but, by unvarying practice of the Government, in *gold coin*. While the Bland-Allison Law was in force, I noticed that the receipts of the United States Treasury were in various sorts of money, but the outgo invariably in gold. Under this practice it was easy to see that the ultimate result must be the exhaustion of the gold in the Treasury, and I watched pretty attentively the newspaper reports of the diminishing balance. When it fell to twenty millions, above the hundred reserved for the greenbacks, I felt that we were within measurable distance of the time when, having no free gold for the purpose, the Government would be forced to pay the coupons in silver, and, knowing that as soon as that occurred, gold would go to a premium and bonds fall correspondingly, I thought it time to "stand from under," and so I sold my bonds.

At about the same time an estate of which I had charge held a lot of United States currency sixes. I did not at once realize that their value would follow the same rule as that of the others, and for a time retained them, but it did not take me many months to study out that result, and I sold them too. Time has proved that I was right in both instances. I cannot doubt that the same fear that impelled me to sell caused their subsequent fall in market value.

The habit of watching the Treasury statements, once formed, the practice continued. I saw the gold balance continually falling, even more rapidly under the so-called Sherman Act than under the Bland-Allison Law. How could it, in fact, be otherwise? We were buying 54,000,000 ounces of silver bullion per year, for which we had no use, and paying for it in silver certificates, which on presentation were redeemed in gold; and this on a steadily falling market. The process could not fail to speedily exhaust the gold in the Treasury, and it was clear that some fine day, and that quite soon, the Government would have to pay out silver for its coin obligations, with the inevitable results I have indicated above.

I only wondered that the people did not begin at once to hoard gold in view of the crisis so evidently approaching. I had occasion to make two or three long leases at that time. When the lessees would agree to it, I reserved the rent in ounces, pennyweights, and grains of gold. In one case where the tenant flinched from that, I reserved the right, in case the rent were paid or tendered in any other money than gold coin, to change the terms of the lease, and make it payable in pounds sterling. All this cost me some trouble which I would rather have dispensed with, but I did it because, to use Senator Teller's expression, I was "afraid of my money"—afraid, in other words, that silver was presently to become the money of the country instead of gold.

Finally, when the insane purchases of 4,500,000 ounces of silver per month brought the free gold in the Treasury down to zero, and even began to encroach on the greenback reserve, I perceived that great numbers of people had suddenly awakened to the same view of our financial situation that I had been taking as much as two years before, and they exhibited it by drawing their money out of the banks and locking it up in safe-deposit vaults. When a great many persons suddenly and simultaneously experience the same fear of evil near at hand, it assumes the form of a panic, and spreads as such among people who catch it without knowing what they fear. Here the fear evidently was that, by the mere ordinary progress of events in their existing course, we might any morning find gold at a premium and all dues collectible in depreciated money, with the financial convulsion that such a change would precipitate. A clique of unscrupulous fellows like those who rode the tempest on Black Friday, which we all remember, might at any moment force such a crisis. Hence the sudden haste to hoard money—gold, of course, primarily, but, as the Government is practically pledged to redeem all outstanding currency in gold, therefore currency as well. The bank in which I do my business had a safe-deposit department; it rented twenty-seven vaults on the first morning that the panic set in. Men drew their money up stairs and locked it up down in the cellar of the same building. It was well known that our banks with a single exception were sound, and that there was more money in the State than ever before, but the alarm became universal, and people got "afraid of their money," *i. e.*, afraid that silver was presently to become the measure of value instead of gold, and they wanted to call in all outstandings before the plunge was made.

The President's proclamation convening Congress, and the prospect of ceasing to purchase silver before being swamped by it, had a decided effect in allaying panic. The great majority given by the House in favor of simple repeal (which can scarcely fail to act on the doubters in the Senate) contributed to the same end, and I feel convinced that the moment the Senate concurs in that action, the *panic* will be at an end, and money will promptly begin to return to its old places of deposit and again fill the channels of trade. There will still be a scarcity of money, because we are at one of those periodical general settling times which a panic always brings about, and until accounts have all been squared and the weak houses weeded out, the effects of the panic will not cease; but the panic itself will end with the repeal of the Silver-Purchasing Act, for the world will thereby be assured that the standard of values will remain unchanged, and people may lend without fear of being repaid in depreciated currency. J. T. D.

MENLO PARK, CAL., Sept. 4, 1893.

## CRIME AND THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The figures of the statistics of pauperism and crime which the Rev. F. H. Wines has gathered, and upon which you commented briefly in the *Nation* of last week, are suggestive in many more directions than that indicated in your brief editorial. The results which Mr. Wines now gives to the public, covering a much wider area and embracing a more extended sphere of inquiry, are precisely accordant with results which the writer worked out in some private investigations begun several years ago covering three of the Northwestern States. Then, as now, it appeared that the general and widespread conviction that our criminals were gathered from the ranks of our immigrant foreign populations was wholly without foundation in fact. It is but one more of the cases where our customary self-appreciation has overreached itself.

Another interesting fact in connection with these figures is the part which the English language plays in the matter. It may, I presume, be assumed with perfect safety that the natives in the tabulation used, as a general practice, the English language. It may also be assumed that a large part of the foreign criminals used the same language. This is inferred from the fact that in at least one State the English-speaking population (foreign) furnished more than one-third of the inmates of penal and charitable institutions, though it constituted but 8 per cent. of the population. Hence by far the larger part of the criminals included in Mr. Wines's statistics were able to use and understand the English language.

Now it must be remembered that not a few students of the question of immigration have strenuously advocated the English language as a test for intending immigrants. The *Nation*, if I am not mistaken, advocated this

policy, though I remember it afterwards saying that the suggestion was "academic" and not "practical," whatever that may mean in such a connection. But here the utter absurdity of the use of English as a test is apparent to every one, and more so since it is based upon an inquiry of national dimensions. I have no hesitation in saying, after some years of careful investigation, that in this country particularly the amount of literature published which is calculated to provoke crime is something enormous. Most of it, too, is in the English language rather than in some other, as is frequently supposed. There seems to be not much reason for doubting that this has a great deal to do with the "native" preponderance of criminals—or, rather, we should say, the English-speaking preponderance.

Taken in connection with Prof. J. J. McCook's tramp census and other recent investigations, it seems to appear that the "dangerous" elements are not from the ranks of non-English-speaking foreigners or their children.—Yours truly, A. A. BERLE.

BRIGHTON CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH,
BOSTON, September 9, 1893.

## THE PARLIAMENT OF RELIGIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "H. W. S. C.," in the last number of the *Nation*, makes a most violent charge of bigotry against the Archbishop of Canterbury, based upon an entirely incorrect statement of a recent utterance of the Archbishop's touching the proposed "Parliament of Religions" to be held in Chicago in connection with the World's Fair. The Archbishop, as representing the Church of England, was requested to take part. His letter declining to do so was, therefore, not an intruded opinion, but one made necessary by the circumstances. This letter displays the opposite of anything approaching bigotry, as your readers may see for themselves if they care to refer to it in a recent number of the *Churchman*. The Archbishop spoke of the originators of the Parliament in the kindest terms, and was quite willing to attribute to them the most sincere motives; but, speaking for his own branch of the Church, he declined to participate because, in their opinion, Christianity could not consistently put itself in the position of one among other religions in such an assemblage. He furthermore expressed the opinion, which many share with him, that a great gathering, such as the World's Fair, is hardly the best field for valuable explorations into spiritual regions. I may add that the Episcopal Church in this country is taking no official part in the "Parliament" or "Congress," for much the same reasons.

Even if your correspondent is of a contrary opinion, it would seem, to say the least, in poor taste to fling mud at the guest who politely and conscientiously declines one's invitation. I am sure that those having the "Parliament" in charge would be quick to disavow such intolerance of mere difference of opinion. If the "Parliament" does accomplish good results, so much the better, but there is no excuse for hounding thoughtful and honest men with a cry of bigotry because they think the contrary.

I am, sir, etc., obediently yours,
ARTHUR RYERSON.

DARK HARBOR, ME., August 28, 1893.

## CAINE'S ANNALS OF YORK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Assured that you desire to be just in all critical remarks passed on books, I venture to ask you to grant me a few lines to make one or two brief statements *re* a recent criticism of 'The Martial Annals of the City of York' (*Nation*, p. 461).

(1.) I only refer to Ingulphus *in a note*, and only then with some indication that he is *not* wholly reliable.

(2.) I cite 'Monastici Anglicani, etc.,' and correctly so, for I desire to direct attention to a *particular edition* of the 'Monasticon,' viz., the first (1655–1673). The second volume of this edition (1661), from which I have copied my illustration, is titled as I describe it. This again is a footnote.

(3.) It was no part of my task to give an account of the Anglo-Saxon army or the feudal system. I only refer *en passant* to these matters, and quote a book known in military circles.

(4.) Thierry is surely not given as *the authority* on Norman matters, but, as is clear, chiefly because of the *aptness* of the extracts borrowed from him.—I am, sir, yours respectfully,

CÆSAR CAINE.

14 RADIPOLE ROAD, FULHAM, S. W., July 25, 1893.

[As an act of courtesy we violate our rule not to print replies to our reviews. We were entirely just to Mr. Caine on all the points to which he refers.

(1.) Errors remain errors whether made in a footnote or elsewhere. Mr. Caine uses Ingulph, on page 16, without any indication that this chronicler is unreliable. Here is the note in full: "The Jews appear to have settled in England as early as the ninth century. Witlaf of Mercia, about 833, granted by charter certain lands to the monks of Croyland. This charter distinguishes between possessions which had come to the monks through Christians and those which had been bestowed on them by Jews. *Ingulphus*, ed. Birch, *Lat.*, p. 16."

(2.) The title of the edition of 1655–1673 is 'Monasticon Anglicanum,' though 'Monastici Anglicani' is also used on the title-page of the second volume. The proper way to direct attention to this particular edition would be to give the date of publication. The use of the sub-title 'Monastici Anglicani' will not help any one in the British Museum or elsewhere to find or identify the edition cited by Mr. Caine.

(3.) What Mr. Caine's task was does not concern us. He gives some account of the Anglo-Saxon army and of the feudal system, and we have a right to pass judgment on this part of his work. We are still decidedly of the opinion that his crude account of these institutions is not based on the best authorities. Harrison's 'Volunteer, Militiaman, and Regular Soldier' may be "known in military circles," but that does not make it a trustworthy guide for the history of the Anglo Saxon army.

(4.) What we said of Mr. Caine's use of Thierry is quite correct; the reader may convince himself of this by glancing at pages 62–71. It is not at all clear that Thierry is cited "because of the aptness of the extracts."—ED NATION.]

# Notes.

THE New York Shakspere Society will issue directly in its Bankside Edition "The Tempest," as the initial one of the archaic texts of the seventeen plays first printed in the Heminges and Condell Folio of 1623. As in the case of the preceding twenty volumes, only 500 copies of the new (uniform) series will be printed.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, will publish during the autumn a volume of the speeches of William E. Russell, Governor of Massachusetts, edited by Charles Theodore Russell, jr., and prefaced by T. W. Higginson.

Stone & Kimball, Chicago, have in press 'Prairie Songs,' a first book of verse by Hamlin Garland, and 'The Holy Cross,' a story by Eugene Field.

'Old and New Lights on Columbus,' by Dr. Richard H. Clarke of this city, is to appear this month, the author being his own publisher.

The Scribners announce 'With Thackeray in America,' by Eyre Crowe, Thackeray's secretary and amanuensis on this six months' journey. Mr. Crowe also made numerous sketches of men and scenes by the way, and 121 of these will be reproduced with the volume.

Longmans, Green & Co.'s autumn list embraces 'Eskimo Life,' by Fridtjof Nansen; 'Madoc: An Essay on the Discovery of America by Madoc ap Owen Gwynedd in the 12th Century,' by Thomas Stephens; 'Discovery of Lakes Rudolf and Stephanie,' in Eastern Equatorial Africa in 1887–'88, by Lieut. Ludwig von Höhnet, companion of Count Samuel Teleki, with many illustrations; 'Politics in a Democracy,' by Daniel Greenleaf Thompson; 'Practical Essays on American Government,' by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart; 'Leonidas Polk, Bishop and General,' by William M. Polk, M.D., LL.D., in two volumes; 'Life of Edward Bouverie Pusey, D.D.,' by the late Cannon Liddon—the first two volumes of four; 'Side Lights on Church History,' by the Rev. William Bright, D.D.; 'St. Paul and His Missions,' by the Abbé Constant Fouard; 'Greek Vase Paintings: Select Examples,' edited by Jane E. Harrison; 'An Enchanted Castle, and Other Poems,' by Sarah Piatt, with 'Little New World Idyls' and 'Idyls and Lyrics of the Ohio Valley,' by John James Piatt; Björnson's drama, 'Pastor Sang,' translated by William Wilson; 'The Man from Blankley's,' by F. Anstey; 'The Diary of Col. Peter Hawker,' in two volumes; and 'A First History of France,' by Louise Creighton.

Macmillan & Co. have in preparation 'American Bookplates,' by Charles Dexter Allen; 'Synthetic Solid Geometry,' by Prof. N. F. Dupuis of Queen's College, Kingston, Canada; 'Pain, Pleasure, and Æsthetics,' by Henry Rutgers Marshall; and 'Chronological Outlines of American Literature.'

'Comic Tragedies,' the actual plays of Miss Alcott's "Little Women"; 'Helpful Words,' prose extracts from the writings of Edward Everett Hale; and poems by the same writer, 'Fifty Years,' are on the eve of appearing from the press of Roberts Bros.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have nearly ready 'Personal Recollections of John G. Whittier,' by Mrs. Mary B. Claflin.

A manual for the study of English versifica-

tion, to which an increasing attention appears to be given in collegiate courses, is furnished by R. F. Brewer under the title 'Orthometry: A Treatise on the Art of Versification and the Technicalities of Poetry,' with a new and complete Rhyming Dictionary (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The work is lumbering, and follows the established methods of analysis without originality of thought or treatment, but is exhaustive on the old lines. The subject is one that lends itself to an uninteresting manner with a facility seldom more fatal than in the present instance.

Dr. Lorimer's 'What I Know about Books and How to Use Them' (Boston: James H. Earle) is mainly directed to the clerical mind, and contains the usual advice, with references to the best-known books, good and bad, without distinguishing between the two classes. The persons who can profit by such counsel must be in that primary stage of inquiry with respect to literature in which exhortation can hardly direct them wrong, and this little volume may perhaps take the place of a publisher's circular for such minds.

"The Book-Lovers' Library" adds to its welcome volumes of curious lore one on 'Literary Blunders: A Chapter in the History of Human Error' (Armstrong & Son), under the capable editorship of Mr. Henry B. Wheatley. The topics treated are the blunders of authors, scholars, and translators, errata, misprints, schoolboys' blunders, and foreigners' English. Some of the anecdotes are well known, and few of the new ones are likely to become famous, but the collection as a whole is characteristic of the trials and temptations of the literary craft.

Mr. William Watson's 'Excursions in Criticism: Being Some Prose Recreations of a Rhymer' (Macmillan) collects in a small volume some very tenuous journalistic essays upon recent books or writers, for the most part, which are more remarkable as showing how a poet's style may be subdued to the thing it works in, such as the English weeklies, than as shedding light on Coleridge, Keats, or Lowell, or as displaying any acute penetration of Hardy, Hutton, or Dobson. The papers do not at all exceed the average of reviews in English critical organs, if indeed they reach such a level.

Students of Tennyson may well be grateful for so thorough and trustworthy a study of one of his principal works as is Prof. Harold Littledale's 'Essays on Lord Tennyson's Idylls of the King' (Macmillan). The main attention is given to an exhaustive account of the sources of the different idylls, with large extracts from the originals; but the allegory is closely followed, and there are many notes in detail upon words and phrases, and literary parallelisms, particularly with Spenser, Milton, and Shelley. The best authorities have been followed and are referred to, and good taste and sound judgment pervade the whole. The volume is indispensable to the close study of the poetic work with which it deals at once frankly and fairly.

The series of "Laurel-Crowned Letters," which is issued by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, and makes an excellent epistolary library, now includes 'The Best Letters of William Cowper,' edited and introduced by Anna B. McMahon. The material for selection was rich, and the resulting volume presents the amiable and humble temperament of Cowper with that charm which has won for that recluse spirit so long-continued and widespread a fame.

Volumes which undertake to comprise the cycles of all centuries in a little space are usually disappointing, and Mrs. Anna Swanwick's 'Poets the Interpreters of their Age' (London: Geo. Bell & Sons) is no exception to the rule. The author writes of literature in its entirety from the Aryans and the works of the late-found Accadians, through Hellas, Rome, and mediæval Christianity down to Tennyson, omitting (she regrets to say in her preface) America only. The result is a disjointed series of chapters, mainly outline and rhetoric, without a sufficient emphasis on the ideas that controlled and differentiated the successive epochs of literary history. A treatment so vague and blindly comprehensive is especially to be deplored if its purpose is to inform the minds of students but slightly acquainted with history and literature.

A wholly different work is Prof. Hugh Walker's 'Three Centuries of Scottish Literature' (Macmillan), in two volumes, which sets forth clearly and in order the nature of Scotch literary culture, the phases of society and politics through which it advances, and the character of its principal monuments. Scotch poetry often appears, in books of English literature, as a kind of temporary godsend when the stream shrank in its English bounds, and it is fairly to be said that the story of the Muse who spoke to Burns has never before been told for its own sake or with such close and honest attention. The substance of poetry and prose involved, especially in the earlier stages, may be differently valued by critics, but it is at least characteristic of a strong and peculiar genius in the people, and the struggles of the intellectual life beyond the Tweed, resulting in the most brilliant provincial literature ever known, form an episode engaging to the student on many accounts. The style and manner of treatment are excellent, and the work should become standard.

A second edition of Julia Cartwright's 'Sacharissa: Some Account of Dorothy Sidney, Countess of Sunderland, her family and her friends, 1617–1684' (Scribners) recounts the history of the Sidney family and its connections in an agreeable if somewhat lord-and-lady manner, and the entire work is a convenient repertory of relationships, family letters, etc., which are nowhere else so easily accessible. Unfortunately there are fewer letters than might be wished, so that the work has not the charm of Dorothy Osborne's letters, though it is meant to be a similar biography. Dorothy Sidney herself is often lost sight of, but the story continues with the lives of other members of her family, whose careers were all interesting, sometimes romantic, and constantly illustrative of the dark mixture of the Dudley, with the mild and intellectual Sidney, blood. The picture of the times is well given, especially on the social and official side, and the changes of family fortune dependent on the State are emphasized. Dorothy Sidney's personality remains vague, but her life itself was a meeting-point of so many important men and women as to serve well for a centre in such a narrative. Lord Halifax, her son-in-law, is presented more naturally as an honest gentleman than the world is accustomed to read of him, but of the other characters there is little to be said, their portraits being well known.

Mr. Francis H. Underwood's sketch, 'The Poet and the Man: Recollections and Appreciations of James Russell Lowell' (Boston: Lee & Shepard), is elaborated from an article in the *Contemporary Review*, and is not a reissue of the author's well-known biographical sketch published several years ago. It is partly biographical, partly critical, and, as a whole, may better be described as "a tribute" than otherwise. Mr. Underwood's relations with Lowell were those of a friend and literary associate, and his narrative is well informed as to facts and his eulogy well tempered with discretion. The volume contains little that is new.

The late Horatio Bridge, whose contributions to the biography of Hawthorne in *Harper's* we noticed on their appearance, made of these and other materials a book, 'Personal Recollections of Nathaniel Hawthorne' (Harpers), in which he recorded in a desultory way anecdotes of Hawthorne's younger days, and gave an impression of his family life by means of letters. The biography of Hawthorne, however, throws little light upon his genius, and must be read as that of a seemingly unliterary man if it is to be interesting. The present memoir is no more than a contribution, as has been said above, to a biography yet to be written that shall do justice equally to the manhood and to the genius of a peculiar New Englander.

We are sorry that we cannot more approve the late Mr. Symonds's 'Walt Whitman: A Study' (London: John C. Nimmo). The eulogy of Whitman, upon whose poetic genius Mr. Symonds explicitly stakes his reputation as a critic, was expected, and it is natural that the author should desire to spread the influence of one to whom he professes himself so much indebted. But he brings forward certain ideas, of which traces not to be mistaken were discernible in the last volume of essays by him, more openly and, as he admits, uselessly; and these ideas are a constituent of Whitman's poetry which, if it is needful for the student to comprehend, it is by no means necessary for him to make a covert evangel of. The morbidity often to be observed in Mr. Symonds's works is here given full play. We cannot see that his analysis and résumé of Whitman's ideas reveal anything of intellectual or moral power, or do much to clarify them or give them coherence; but the American mind labors under an incapacity on this subject, and we feel sure it will grow more dense in this respect in proportion as it penetrates what Mr. Symonds adumbrates in his most original chapter.

Mr. Frank Bolles's 'At the North of Bear-camp Water; Chronicles of a Stroller in New England from July to December' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is, in some sort, a sequel or companion volume to his 'Land of the Lingering Snow,' which we commented upon favorably at the time of its appearance. The second book is like unto the first, but with less freshness and more of the day-of-the-month and time-of-the-clock in it. The scene is the neighborhood of Chocorua, and the papers will be pleasant reminders of old, and possibly guides to new, fields for those acquainted with the region; for others there is monotony in the interest.

We have just received the prospectus of the new Anglo-Norman Record Society, which undertakes, in the first instance, to print monastic records from the manuscripts still subsisting in England and France. The charters and chartularies of religious houses contain much information which is not to be found in the chroniclers, and their publication will certainly be a great boon to historians. Many well-known scholars, such as the Bishop of Oxford, J. Horace Round, F. W. Maitland, and Maxwell Lyte, have already given their adhesion to the scheme. It also deserves support from historians and libraries on this side of the Atlantic. The annual subscription is two guineas, which should be sent to W. A. Lindsay, Carlton Club, Pall Mall, London, S. W.

'Das Deutsche Sprachgebiet in Europa,' by H. Nabert (Stuttgart), gives us a brief account

of the fortunes of the German language. The author begins with the history of the very varying limits in which it has been predominant, at one time as far east as the interior of Russia, at another only westward of the Elbe. He then describes the struggles for existence or supremacy which German is carrying on in several lands to-day; and, like most other writers on questions of nationality, he is violent, declamatory, and totally unable to grasp the principle that what is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander. Though his view of the future is rather gloomy, he would have been justified in making it gloomier still, for German is doomed to disappear at several points where it is now spoken. To offset what is going on in Belgium, Italy, Russia, and Austria-Hungary, Herr Nabert finds some consolation in Switzerland, but we have difficulty in reconciling this with the last Swiss census, according to which French is gaining ground. The second half of the pamphlet is philological.

Dr. Frank Zinkeisen's 'Anfänge der Lehngerichtsbarkeit in England' (Berlin: Sayffaerth) deals with the difficult subject of feudal jurisdiction, especially that of ecclesiastical lords. Such jurisdiction is first legally recognized by royal charter, not under Edward the Confessor, as Henry Adams asserts, but under Cnut; and grants of this sort become frequent under the Confessor. Probably the feudal judiciary developed rapidly under Ethelred the Unready. Dr. Zinkeisen also rejects Mr. Adams's definition of socn, and thinks that the term referred to jurisdiction as well as to revenue. After considering the extent and nature of the feudal judiciary in Anglo-Saxon times, the author follows its history to the end of the twelfth century, dwelling particularly upon the kinds of cases tried by the manor courts. The early history of manorial tribunals has been heretofore neglected, and hence Dr. Zinkeisen's valuable contribution to the subject is very welcome. His work exhibits much critical study, and is scholarly throughout.

—*McClure's Magazine* for September contains "Among the Gorillas: A Voice from the Wilderness," by Mr. R. L. Garner, now in Africa in pursuit of the speech of monkeys. Mr. Garner writes from his cage in the heart of the jungle, near a grove of plantains, about a mile from the mission Ste. Anne, Fernan Vaz, little more than a degree south of the equator, not far from the Gaboon River, in a locality of which he says: "Here the monkey revels in the plenitude of wild fruits, and the pheasant finds a safe retreat from crafty woodsmen, while birds of diverse kinds invoke the spirit of nature with the voice of song." Gorillas wander all around him and occasionally venture within a few yards of the cage, so that his opportunities are all that could be expected. What he has gathered will best be indicated by several items in his own words. "At this moment I hear one [a gorilla] tearing a plantain-stalk within about thirty yards of me. I can only hear one voice, but as they do not talk much when alone, I presume there are more of them not far away. He is uttering a low murmuring sound which seems to express pleasure, but I am not yet able to translate it into English. Time and patience, however, will accomplish that, and much more. It is a fact worthy of notice that some of the sounds uttered by the gorilla and chimpanzee are identical with certain sounds in the native language, and it is quite as easy to find letters to represent them. One word in N'Kami, meaning *yes* or *assent*, is exactly the same as one sound that is much used by the chimpanzee, but is not within the scope of any known system of phonetic symbols. The same is true of the word for *five* in one dialect of Kroo speech." "As far as it can be said that the gorilla has any form of government, it is strictly patriarchal, and there are reasons to justify the belief that they [*sic*] have some fixed ideas of order and justice." "I have had the pleasure this afternoon of hearing three others howling in different directions, one of which appears to be a very large one."

—Chimpanzees receive as much attention as gorillas. We are told that "the most novel and singular thing known of the chimpanzee" is that it has music and dances similar to those of the negroes. "The chimpanzees have a similar fête, and set to similar music." "The performer makes a peculiar humming vocal sound while he beats on his mysterious drum with great zeal, during which time all the others go through a series of frantic motions which resemble a dance." "When the music ceases, the dance ends for a time, and all the group join in a loud, wild shout." Mr. Garner has seen what he believes to be the chimpanzee drum. "It is a peculiar spot of sonorous earth, of irregular shape, but usually about two feet in diameter, and formed of clay superimposed upon a soil resembling peat." "I have examined one of these with much care, and I am inclined to believe it is artificial, as it is isolated from all similar clay, and appears to have been kneaded." The description applies to subsoils thrown up by burrowing animals. A large portion of the article is built on hearsay of the native gossips. Listening to the voices in the thickets, guessing at the subjects of conversation, and guessing at the identity of the talkers, we fear Mr. Garner will sit in his cage for a long time before he learns the language, whatever he might do with it if he got it.

—The correspondent of the London *Times* in Uganda, after an extended journey through the country, comes to the conclusion that the population "has been vastly overestimated." From the ravages of war, pestilence, and famine during the last few years a good four-fifths of the country is uninhabited. As the plague is still raging in certain places, this desert region seems likely to increase rather than diminish. Having visited the principal stations of both Catholic and Protestant missions, he is compelled to admit that the working system of the French priests, viewed from a practical standpoint, is much superior to that of the English clergymen. The difference appears to be that the latter put religious instruction before everything else, while the former impress upon their converts the dignity of labor, and, instead of teaching them to read, set them to work clearing and cultivating land, making roads and bridges, or train them to the various handicrafts. In regard to holding the country, he maintains that its abandonment would simply indefinitely postpone the suppression of the slave-traffic, now confined to the Sudan and the region west of Lake Tanganyika. Forty of the principal Protestant chiefs, we may add here, have just publicly proclaimed their intention of abolishing domestic slavery in their territories. This reform, if carried out extensively, will be of the greatest possible advantage to the country, which is now impoverished by the *corvée*, or the system under which the chiefs call upon the people to labor upon their lands without food or pay. While the present commercial prospects of Uganda are poor, the construction of a railway to the coast would vastly improve them, and eventually this district would become the centre of Equatorial African trade.

—The leading article in the last number of the *Historische Zeitschrift* is a very interesting study, by Prof. Pöhlmann of Erlangen, on "The Romantic Element in the Communism and Socialism of the Greeks." He notes that, after the Peloponnesian war, Greece, in the midst of a high material and intellectual civilization, exhibits a scene of hopeless social dissolution. The contrast between rich and poor becomes more marked, a proletariat comes into existence, and the developing commercial spirit gives rise to strong class feeling. This change took place in a century when philosophical thought was conspicuously active. It was inevitable that the increasing social inequalities and the consequent disorders should become the subject of speculation. In some respects the situation was strikingly like that of France in the later eighteenth century. As in France, so in Greece, thinkers sought a remedy in a return to nature, an ideal nature, which they described in detail, but whose existence they took little pains to verify. Man in this state of nature possesses virtues impossible, perhaps not even esteemed, in an artificial society. What the American Indian was to the French philosophers a hundred years ago, the Scythian became to the Greek philosopher—the natural, uncorrupted man living a plain life, animated by a lofty spirit of justice, in a society where all property was held in common. Early Greece, also, was idealized as early Germany was in the last generation. Isocrates pronounces the Sparta of Lycurgus an imitation of oldest Athens. This romantic tendency found abundant expression in political fiction, most of which is no longer extant, but in such forms it has been more or less familiar. Pöhlmann shows that it exerted a more subtle influence, permeating, in fact, no small portion of the historical literature of the third and fourth centuries B. C. Isocrates, in his memorial orations, idealized ancient Athens. Dicæarchus remarks that the theory of the state of nature developed to such a degree that the myths of the Golden Age, stripped of what seemed "too fabulous," were combined into a new history of early man.

—The most notable example is the abundant literature of that period on Lycurgus and Sparta. As a non-commercial State, Sparta was idealized by Athenian thinkers just as Jefferson and his followers idealized an agricultural society. The early history of Sparta, about which Herodotus and Thucydides say very little, for the good reason that they knew little, writers of the later period describe with great fulness. We get a pretty complete idea of the contents of these later works from Plutarch's life of Lycurgus, which was largely drawn from them. Plutarch candidly acknowledged that there was nothing certainly known of Lycurgus. The contents of his narrative bear many traces of the political romance. In this ideal Sparta, the moral and political theories of the third-century reformers become realities thrown back into a distant past, of which the present is a degeneration. The picture of the Sparta of Lycurgus, then, as drawn by Plutarch from his romantic authorities, is not based on genuine legends, but is a pure Utopia, an ancient 'Looking Backward.'

—The sixtieth birthday of the distinguished traveller, geographer, and geologist, Baron von Richthofen, has been made the occasion

for the publication, by a number of his former pupils, of several important dissertations on topics cognate to geography, each of which may be said to have been inspired by the broad learning and genius of the master. These papers, which are issued from the house of Dietrich Reimer of Berlin, as a *Festschrift*, are an exposition of German scholarship of a strikingly high and varied order, and eminently reflect the versatile mind of the scholar to whom they are dedicated. As a geographer, Richthofen's name will generally be associated with those of Klaproth and Alexander von Humboldt, for to these three, more than to any other investigators, are we indebted for that broad conception of structural detail which has permitted, even in the absence of some necessary data, of the construction of the modern map of East Central Asia. It is not surprising, therefore, to find among the fourteen essays here grouped together three which deal distinctively with the Asiatic continent, one, by Dr. Max Blanckenhorn of Erlangen, on the structural lines of Syria and the Red Sea, which recognizes Suess's *Senkungs-Theorie* in explanation of the trough of the Red Sea; a second, by Dr. Hans Fischer of Leipzig, on the map of eastern Asia; and a third, by Dr. Wegener of Berlin, on the geography of Central Tibet and the relationships of the Central Tibetan Mountains. Mr. Henry Yule Oldham, a son, we believe, of one of the late superintendents of the British East Indian Survey, contributes an essay on the "Discovery of the Cape Verde Islands," in which he establishes the claims of Cadamosto to be the true discoverer, and assigns July 25, 1456, as the probable exact date of the discovery. Among the other notices may be mentioned those of Drygalski (on the Greenland fjords), Dr. Hettner (on the influence of rainfall upon the vegetation of the tropical Andes), and Dr. Schott (on the dimensions of oceanic waves). The analyses of observations by the last-named investigator make it clear that the "mountain-high" waves of the tourist and average navigator fall into the dimensions of comparatively a few feet—from twenty to thirty, or thereabouts. A wave fifty feet in height is a very extraordinary occurrence, and approaches closely the extreme limit of magnitude; the *Challenger* expedition, in their long cruises across the Atlantic, Pacific, and Southern Oceans, met with no waves which measured more than twenty-three feet.

—The first part of volume iii. of Quain's 'Anatomy' (Longmans) deals with the central nervous system, and offers abundant evidence of the determination of its author (Prof. Schäfer) to make the tenth edition of this favorite manual surpass all previous editions and other English works upon the subject. The text has been largely rewritten, and there are numerous new and original figures. The important results attained by Ramón y Cajal and others by the Golgi method are quite fully set forth; special improvements relate to the subdivisions of the cerebellum, the cerebral fissures, and the blood-supply. The "Recent Literature" embraces hundreds of titles, and it is refreshing to note references to the observations of American anatomists, W. Browning, Dalton, Donaldson, Dwight, A. J. Parker, Spitzka, and Wilder. Detailed criticism must be reserved for another occasion, but two undesirable features may be noted. The explicit declaration on p. 124 as to the complete circumscription of the lateral ventricle is not borne out by any of the figures, and the student is more likely to be misled by the latter than set right by the text. The nomenclature is so much better than usual that the still numerous inconsistencies and redundancies impress one as particularly needless. If *insula* is adequate at all (as at the top of p. 155), why should the student be perplexed with *island*, *island of Reil*, and *central lobe* excepting as synonyms? Since *thoracic* is used (p. 10) and is unmistakable, why apply *dorsal* to that region of the body, and why retain for the nerve-roots the ambiguous, antiquated, and discredited *anterior* and *posterior*?

## COLERIDGE.

*The Poetical Works of Samuel Taylor Coleridge.* Edited with a biographical introduction by James Dykes Campbell. Macmillan & Co. 1893. 8vo, pp. cxxiv., 667. With portrait.

Mr. James Dykes Campbell thought that there were two things wanting: first, a complete collection of Coleridge's poems, printed according to his own latest revised text, and arranged in some settled order; and, secondly, a fairly complete and accurate narrative of the events of the poet's life. His attempt to supply these wants is the result, he tells us, of many years' labor of love. The life prefixed to the poems appears to us to evince the industry to which the author lays claim, and to be, moreover, very sensible and fair.

No man's character, moral and intellectual, was ever more distinctly written on his face than was that of Coleridge. His complexion, Hazlitt says, was clear and bright, his forehead was broad and high, as if built of ivory, with large projecting eyebrows, beneath which his eyes rolled like a sea with darkened lustre. His complexion Hazlitt compares to the pale, thoughtful complexions of Murillo and Velasquez. His mouth, according to the same observer, was gross, voluptuous, open, eloquent. His chin was good-humored and round. But his nose, the rudder of the face, the index of the will, was small, feeble, nothing—like what he has done. To this Carlyle adds: "He [Coleridge] shrinks from pain or labor in any of its shapes. His very attitude bespeaks this. He never straightens his knee-joints, he stoops with his fat, ill-shapen shoulders, and in walking he does not tread, but shuffle and slide." An observant lady said that Coleridge never could make up his mind on which side of the footpath he would walk.

No one, however mistrustful of metaphysical speculation, can question the philosophic genius betokened by the forehead; no one can question the poetic genius betokened by the eyes, the benevolence betokened by the chin; equally certain is the total want of will, of the power of self-direction and of perseverance, denoted by the nose. The life of the philosopher and the poet is a long record of plans dreamily formed, and either not completed or abandoned altogether. Over all hovered the idea of some philosophic work which was to be a grander counterpart of Bacon's 'Organum,' and to effect a greater revolution of thought, but which, unhappily, never attained the first stage of realization; and of an equally magnificent poem which remained in the same visionary state. It was said by some one that 'The Friend' was a long and desultory introduction to a work that was to come. Pretty much the same thing might be said of Coleridge's productions altogether, including his conversation. A field strewn with the fragments of stone which were to have formed a temple, is the happy simile of his biographer.

As to his life, it is a most unhappy record of weakness and of the faults which mere weakness produces—neglect of duties, including those of a husband, promises unperformed, failure to fulfil engagements, fits of abject indolence alternating with spasmodic activity, debt, disguised mendicancy, and indulgence in opium. The opium, Coleridge persuaded himself, was taken as an anodyne under the pressure of severe pain. Southey, his connection, and, it appears, the medical man to whom he made his confessions, took a less charitable view, and ascribed the habit not to ailments, but to inclination and indulgence. The man was at times conscious of his own weakness, and has given expression to it in the "Lines on a friend who died of a frenzy fever induced by calumnious reports":

> "To me hath Heaven with bounteous hand assigned
> Energic Reason and a shaping mind,
> The daring ken of Truth, the patriot's part,
> And Pity's sigh that breathes the gentle heart.
> Sloth-jaundiced all! and from my graspless hand
> Drop Friendship's precious pearls, like hour-glass sand.
> I weep, yet stoop not! the faint anguish flows,
> A dreamy pang in Morning's feverish doze."

We have said that Coleridge was conscious of his own weakness, but his genius devised a curious apology for it. In explanation of his having for some time persistently refused to write to his poor wife, he says: "The moral obligation is to me so very strong a stimulant that in nine cases out of ten it acts like a narcotic; the blow that should rouse stuns me." Thus the cause of his failure to perform his duty was his extraordinarily strong sense of it!

Coleridge had the misfortune, which in his case must have been great, to be, like most English boys of his time, too soon transplanted "ere his soul had fixed its first domestic loves." He was sent to a boarding-school when he was only nine, and when a character like his specially needed the support of domestic affection and guidance. Naturally he pined for his home; it would come back to him in his dreams, and he would wake weeping for it—so says Lamb, and we can well believe him. Lamb's picture of the inspired charity boy at Christ's Hospital "winning the casual passer through the cloister to stand still, entranced with admiration, to hear him unfold in deep and sweet intonations the mysteries of Jamblichus or Plotinus, or recite Homer or Pindar in Greek," we have always been inclined to class with the pictures of Alice W——n, Sarah Battle, and other charming figures in the fancy portrait-gallery of Elia. If we found it easy to believe that the boy spouted Jamblichus or Plotinus, we should find it difficult to believe that the casual passer-by stopped to listen to him. However, there is no doubt that Coleridge was a very precocious philosopher as well as a precocious poet. He has himself told us that he imbibed the scepticism of Voltaire, and drew a flogging upon himself by retailing it to his master. That he was already eccentric is also certain, since he wanted to be apprenticed to a cobbler, and actually induced the cobbler to apply to the head-master, who received the application with assault and battery.

We next have Coleridge at Cambridge, where he is found in company which indulges in draughts less philosophic than those of Jamblichus and Plotinus. As the party is on its way home from a carouse, two of them fall into a gutter, and one generously calls out to his companions to save the other man, as he himself can swim. Coleridge at the same time plunged into politics, heterodoxy, love, and debt. From debt it appears he tried to extricate himself by a lottery ticket. But the most extraordinary incident of this period of his life is his enlistment, under the name of Silas

Tomkins Cumberbatch, in the King's Regiment of Light Dragoons. This escapade appears to have been variously ascribed to love and debt; but it seems not unlikely to have been a freak of the same errant fancy as the proposal to be apprenticed to a cobbler. How S. T. C., alias Silas Tomkins Cumberbatch, got along as a light dragoon is still a mystery. We are told that he bribed his comrades to clean his horse and accoutrements for him by writing their love-letters. He could not bribe them to stick on his horse for him, though he might bribe them to clean it, nor could they take his place on parade, where he must have managed in some way to go through his drill. However, at the end of two months he was released. The college authorities only admonished him, and those of Christ's Hospital, from which he had an exhibition, were ignorant or kindly blind.

This was the period of the French Revolution, when all young men of genius and unencumbered by wealth were looking for the new heavens and the new earth. In Coleridge's ardent brain the general ferment took the form of "Pantisocracy." He pledged himself to evolve a scheme which should have "the tactical excellence of the mathematician with the enthusiasm of the poet." Twelve gentlemen of good education and liberal principles were to embark with twelve ladies, fixing themselves in some delightful part of the new back settlements of America. The labor of each man for two or three hours a day would suffice to provide for the colony. The fruits of their labor were to be common property; there was to be a good library, and ample leisure for study, discussion, and education. It was left an open question whether the marriage contract should be capable of dissolution if agreeable to one or both parties. There was, of course, to be perfect freedom of religious and political opinions. A contribution of £125 from every gentleman would suffice. The scene of the Pantisocratic Utopia was to be the valley of the Susquehanna, which had been recommended as suitable for the purpose from its "excessive beauty and its security from hostile Indians and bisons." "Literary characters," said this informant, "make money there, and the mosquitoes are not as bad as our gnats."

Southey was drawn into the scheme, and in probably a more practical sense than Coleridge, whose Pantisocracy, we may be sure, was the merest vision. The vision, however, had two serious and substantial consequences. In the first place, a rich aunt, hearing of it, turned Coleridge out of her house on a wet night, and never would see him again; in the second place, to provide himself with a partner, he married Miss Sarah Fricker, and this at a time when he was or fancied himself to be in love with Miss Mary Evans. The result was domestic unhappiness and bad conduct on Coleridge's part. The biographer tells us that the marriage was made in Bristol, not in heaven. That might be, but duty and right feeling exist in Bristol if seraphic harmony does not. The marriages of men of genius are notoriously rather a sad chapter in biography, and we are called upon to make all the allowance which justice will permit for the tendency of genius to idealize and the almost inevitable wreck of the ideal. Walter Scott, however, had been caught at a rebound, after disappointment in a first love, by a woman not suited to be his wife, and yet, being a man of sense and honor, he made her a very good husband.

The progress of the French Revolution destroyed the illusions alike of Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Southey. Coleridge's change of mind was avowed in that fine poem, the "Ode to France":

> "The Sensual and the Dark rebel in vain,
> Slaves by their own compulsion! In mad game
> They burst their manacles and wear the name
> Of Freedom, graven on a heavier chain!"

It does not seem, however, to have been so much by the atrocities, extravagances, and blasphemies of the Reign of Terror that these men were shocked and converted, as by the treatment received from Republican France by other nations which had thrown themselves into her arms, and especially by the Swiss Republic. They all remained true to liberty, but Southey became, perhaps, more of a Tory than the other two. In their allegiance to liberty they were confirmed, and saved from the danger of apostasy, by the turn which the Revolution took when it embodied itself in a military despot and oppressor of mankind. Even a Russian or German despot might be the object of Liberal sympathy when he was defending the independence of his nation; much more might the Spanish people in their uprising against a rapacious invader.

"The youthful enthusiasts," says Coleridge in his 'Biographia Literaria,' "who, flattered by the morning rainbow of the French Revolution, had made a boast of expatriating their hopes and fears, now, disciplined by the succeeding storms and sobered by increase of years, had been taught to prize and honor the spirit of nationality as the best safeguard of national independence, and this again as the absolute prerequisite and necessary basis of popular rights."

Coleridge changed his religion as well as his politics, and probably under much the same influence. He set out as a Unitarian, and a Unitarian preacher, in which capacity, it seems, he was great. Hazlitt, at least, describes him as "launching into his subject like an eagle dallying with the wind," his voice as "rising as the steam of rich distilled perfumes," and his concluding prayer as "floating in solemn silence through the universe." As a Nonconformist he was, of course, an advocate of the separation of Church and State. Afterwards he became a Trinitarian and a thorough-going believer in the Established Church. He tried to give Anglicanism a religious philosophy. This was pouring new wine not only into a very old but a very alien bottle, since the Anglican system was the creation of statesmanship, not of spiritual aspiration. Coleridge, however, shares with Bishop Butler an exceptional eminence among Anglican writers as a theologian in the proper sense of the term, in contradistinction to the preacher, commentator, or ecclesiologist, having essayed to explore philosophically the nature of God and the relations between God and man. It is impossible, in reading Coleridge's highly spiritual and even unctuous dissertations, not to be sometimes crossed by the recollection of the opium and of the neglected duties of life. But the man's conscience never was extinguished, while his interest in theological speculation was always profound and sincere. As his biographer says, "His will was congenitally weak, and his habits weakened it still further; but his conscience, which was never allowed to sleep, tortured him; and, after many days, its workings stimulated the paralyzed will, and he was saved."

We cannot here attempt to deal with the poems. There is plenty of evidence that had Coleridge chosen to dedicate himself, as Wordsworth did, to poetry, which was probably his highest mission, he would have been a very great poet. As it is, the fragmentary production falls lamentably short of the manifest power. We all admire the two poems on Genevieve, the "Ode to France," and, in a different style, the "Lines to a Young Ass," which shows what a poet can make of a very unpoetic subject. But high above all the rest rises "The Ancient Mariner," with "Christabel" and "Kubla Khan" in its train. We cannot help feeling that these three are of the sort of products of imagination which would be stimulated by opium, and the surmise is strengthened by Coleridge's inability to finish "Christabel," which he unquestionably tried hard to do. The burlesque epistle from Talleyrand to Lord Grenville, printed in the *Morning Post*, and the "Devil's Thoughts," of which a part was written by Coleridge, the rest by Southey, show that Coleridge possessed humor, which is seldom found apart from sense. We are, therefore, not surprised to be told that when he fitfully took to journalism for bread, he could lay aside his metaphysics and write practical editorials.

In the last years of his life Coleridge is described by Carlyle as "Sitting on the brow of Highgate Hill, looking down on London and its smoke-tumult like a sage escaped from the inanity of life's battle, attracting towards him the thoughts of innumerable brave souls engaged there." Under the care of Gillman, the propensity to opium, if it had not been eradicated, had been reduced. This seems to have been the great scene of Coleridge as a talker. Carlyle gibes at Coleridge's talk, its solemn iterations of "om-m-mject" and "sum-m-mject," its discursiveness, vagueness, and want of anything like practical wisdom. To the discursiveness Keats also is a witness.

"I walked with him," says Keats, "at his alderman-after-dinner pace, for near two miles, I suppose. In those two miles he broached a thousand things. Let me see if I can give you a list—nightingales, poetry, on poetical sensation, metaphysics, different genera and species of dreams, nightmare, a dream accompanied with a sense of touch, single and double touch, a dream related, first and second consciousness, the difference explained between will and volition, so many metaphysicians from a want of smoking, the second consciousness, monsters, the Kraken, mermaids, Southey believes in them, Southey's belief too much diluted, a ghost story, good morning. I heard his voice as he came towards me—I heard it as he moved away—I had heard it all the interval—if it may be called so."

Miss Martineau, in her dry, smart way, described the utterances of the great seer as "a survey of society from his own balloon in his own current," and as "involuntary speech from involuntary brain-action, like that of Babbage's calculating machine." Carlyle, however, admits, what nobody can deny, that Coleridge exercised an immense influence over minds so considerable as those of Hare, Sterling, and Frederick Maurice. It is probable that he did this largely as a talker. Unluckily, while he had many worshippers, he had no Boswell. Take away Johnson's Boswell, and, barring his Dictionary, he would be a second-rate author. To indolence like that of Coleridge the mere manual labor of writing is highly distasteful, and his thoughts would flow more freely and perhaps be better expressed in conversation. The excellence of his lectures is well attested, and he lectured best without notes. If we could be carried back for an hour to Gillman's parlor at Highgate, we should know better what Coleridge was.

## OHNEFALSCH-RICHTER'S KYPROS.—II.

*Kypros, the Bible, and Homer:* Oriental Civilization, Art, and Religion in Ancient Times Elucidated by the Author's own Researches and Excavations during Twelve Years' Work

in Cyprus. By Max Ohnefalsch-Richter, Ph.D. With a letter to the author from the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone. Two volumes. Vol. I.: Text; Vol. II.: Plates. London: Asher & Co. 1893. Folio, pp. ix, 530; 7, ccxviii.

RICHTER devotes more than half his book to an explanation of the transition from the lowest tree-worship to anthropomorphic image-worship. He adopts in general the conclusion of Voigt (in his 'Dionysus'), "that the god was first venerated as immanent in the fir-tree, and that then the erection, in the sanctuary, of felled fir-trees brought about the transition from dendromorphic to anthropomorphic form in the worship of the Spirit of Vegetation." Richter, however, would not confine the process to the fir-tree. His discussion, treating of the sacred tree on Cyprian antiquities, of Cyprian tree-worship as compared with that of other Eastern lands, of endendric and dendromorphic deities, and of the figures and cults of Tammuz and Adonis and other gods of vegetation, has a value independent of the theory it maintains. The facts are correctly stated, but his interpretation of them is doubtful. Out of the tree-fetish (in which dwelt the god), says Richter, came the plank-idol, more or less resembling the human form; or, from a little forked tree-trunk, we have a carved image, in which the legs are formed by the fork of the trunk, the knags become stumps of arms, and three twirling branches are so trained or pruned as to assume the form of a human head with two pierced ears, a nose, and holes for the eyes (p. 108); and in other cases we find gods growing out of trees, or half-dendric, half-human. There are also the myths in which gods are born out of trees.

That the early man would often choose wood to fashion idols out of is obvious, and it is not unlikely that accidental resemblances in trees to the human form might sometimes suggest anthropomorphic images; such a suggestion is made or adopted by Réville in his 'Prolégomènes.' But when we look at early idols the world over, and consider the development of religion on the psychological side, it seems obvious that this explanation is insufficient to account for the genesis of anthropomorphic images in general. Man, on emerging from the lowest stratum of culture, in which animism or fetishism is his natural religion, conceives his deities more and more in his own image, and necessarily tends to give them his own shape. Anthropomorphism of outward form is only a concomitant or a part of anthropomorphism of thought. Whether in wood or in clay, the savage tries to make his idol human, and utilizes the tree-forms that happen to resemble the human shape; they do not teach him anthropomorphism, but lend themselves to his natural anthropomorphic idea. Zoömorphic god-forms, in like manner, issue naturally out of totemistic zoölatry. If the god is animal, he takes an animal form, and if human, a human form. The immanence of the deity in the tree or other object is a part of the old animism which survives into much later stages of culture. The figures of gods issuing from trees are doubtless often representations of mythical stories, and suppose, as do the myths themselves, a more or less completely formed anthropomorphic conception.

Richter's theory inverts the true order of the ideas. A similar inversion is contained in his explanation of the amalgamation of tree-worship and fire-worship:

"The inflammability of trees," he says (p. 103), "the occurrence of forest fires, and the custom at religious festivals of deliberately setting fire to trees, early resulted, among the most widely different peoples, in a relation being established between Tree worship and Star or Fire-worship, or in the amalgamation of both. We need not, therefore, be surprised to find Tree-worship, Sun-worship, and Fire-worship interwelded in the case of the Sun-god Mithra, whose cultus, of Persian origin and already appearing on the cuneiform inscriptions of Artaxerxes II., was in later times so highly developed among the Romans, and played so particularly important a part in Roman military quarters on German soil."

It is unnecessary to point out the crudeness of this view. Richter, admirable as explorer and archæologist, is less happy in his theories of general religious development.

His classification of Cyprian archæological material is valuable, though it must for the present be regarded as tentative. The Græco-Phœnician period, he holds, begins not later (and perhaps a good deal earlier) than the time of Solomon, and to the preceding native period he would assign an age hardly less than that of the primitive culture of Babylonia and Egypt. The first of these dates rests on the votive inscriptions to Baal Libanon (found in Cyprus on Mount Muti Shinoas) in which occurs the name of a King Hiram, believed by Euting to be the contemporary of Solomon, but by the editors of the 'Corpus Inscriptionum Semiticarum' supposed to be a later king. However that may be, the general evidence goes to show that the Greeks were in Cyprus at an early date, and that they soon adopted Phœnician and Assyrian-Babylonian religious and artistic ideas. For the later Assyrian influence we have a mark of time in the statue of Sargon II. erected by him at Kition in the latter part of the eighth century B. C. But Babylon probably made itself felt in this region, through the Phœnicians, much earlier. The griffin and the cherub, apparently creations of the Mediterranean Valley, are found distributed over the Western world at an early date. Cyprus seems to have been the storehouse, not the laboratory, of these conceptions.

The classification of the immense mass of remains collected in the island must be the work of time, but Richter has begun the task in the right way. The cylinders he divides into archaic Cyprian cylinders with rude and realistic designs not traceable to any definite originals; Babylonio-Assyrian; Hittite; Cyprian cylinders copied from or affected by Babylonio-Assyrian originals. This arrangement is adopted by Dümmler and by Furtwängler (in his article "Gryps" in Roscher's Lexicon), and appears to be correct, though the details may be affected by future investigations. We unwillingly forbear further mention of these objects (which are satisfactorily treated in the explanations of the plates) in order to call attention to the relations between Cyprus and Homeric Greece.

Richter makes frequent comparisons between objects found at Hissarlik and Mycenæ and those found in Cyprus, for the purpose of showing that the three sets represent the same period and the same school of artistic decoration. The resemblances between them are so striking that some connection between the three places must be assumed, and most archæologists recognize therein a Semitic influence on early Greek art. It is unnecessary, indeed, to call in such influence to account for everything—there are some general features that may reasonably be regarded as independent originations in different centres; but there are particular points of identity that can hardly be explained except by the supposition of borrowing. Richter's special contention is that much of the artistic work of the Homeric time was actually produced in Cyprus.

Agamemnon's armor is said in the 'Iliad' to have been a present from King Kinyras of Cyprus, and was presumably thought of as fashioned by Greek workmen in the island. Richter then further suggests that the Gorgon-head was of Cyprian-Greek origin. "The Greek goldsmith working in Kypros in the seventh century B. C. used, combined, and transformed all kinds of heads of divinities, which he saw as ornaments of dress or on sun columns and stelæ, and derived from them the Gorgoneion" (p. 209). On this Mr. Gladstone remarks:

"It may be worthy of note, with reference to the Gorgoneion, that while the shield of Agamemnon associates it with Cyprus, the only other mention (if I remember right) of the Gorgon in Homer is in the Underworld of the Eleventh Odyssey, which is, as I conceive, altogether exotic, that is to say, Phœnician, in its character."

The probability of this origin for the Gorgoneion may be granted, the precise form being found nowhere else, though suggestions of it occur in Babylonian and Egyptian demon-heads. Richter goes on to say that, as Agamemnon's arms came from Cyprus, it may reasonably be concluded that the shield of Achilles, which is called the work of Hephaistos, came from the same place. True, no such shields have yet been found in Cyprus; the shields most like the Homeric description are those from the Zeus-grotto at Gortyna, Crete. But the subjects, composition, and arrangement of the shield of Achilles as described by Homer correspond more nearly to the designs on Cyprian Græco-Phœnician bowls than to any others. And, as Cyprian bowls have been found among Cretan votive offerings, the Cretan Zeus-shields, our author suggests, may at some future time be traced back to Cyprus as their place of manufacture, perhaps even to Tamassos and Amathus, in whose environs copper was cast from the ore. While there is a certain amount of conjecture in these combinations, it seems probable that we have to recognize a close relation between Cyprus and Homeric art. It cannot be doubted that the Greeks in Cyprus were affected by Babylonia, Phœnicia, and Egypt. But it is a delicate task to distinguish between Greek and other elements in works of art, and this is the task to which Cyprian archæology has now to address itself.

Another interesting remark of Richter's is that the dove-cups found at Ayia Paraskevi and elsewhere are the prototypes of Nestor's dove-cup (Il. xi. 632 ff.) and of the silver dove-cup found by Schliemann at Mycenæ (p. 275), in which the decorative has come to outweigh or replace the sacral character.

We have touched on a few only of the details given in this monumental work, which is a conscientious attempt to classify and interpret the Cyprian antiquities. A mere mention of the illustrations of the old Hebrew and Greek cults would more than fill the space at our command. In addition to his archæological work proper, the author helps to clothe the old religious forms with life. The spectacle of the shrines, altars, sacred trees, deities, and festivals of ancient Cyprus gives a new reality to the worlds of Homer and the Bible. The plates alone, with the attached explanations, are a great contribution to our knowledge of the subject. It is matter of congratulation that the author has found the means of bringing out the work in so satisfactory a form. Of his relations to other Cyprian explorers it is unnecessary to say anything except that he

seems anxious to do justice to all; he makes on the reader the impression of being scientifically and otherwise conscientious. We wish him success in his further prosecution of the work of exploration, and in his attempts to illustrate the religious and artistic life of Semitic and Greek antiquity.

## RECENT FICTION.

*Many Inventions.* By Rudyard Kipling. D. Appleton & Co.
*Made in France.* By H. C. Bunner. Keppler & Schwarzmann.
*The Refugees.* By A. Conan Doyle. Harper & Bros.
*A Border Leander.* By Howard Seely. D. Appleton & Co.
*Heather and Snow.* By George Macdonald. Harper & Bros.

MR. KIPLING'S latest volume, 'Many Inventions,' sustains his reputation as an excellent story-teller. His is the gift of presenting an incident with the positiveness and certainty which command and reward attention—the essential gift of all masters of the only art which, since the dawn of time, has been really popular. Never in any age or country has the story-teller lacked a legion eager to cry, Hail! and loath to say, Farewell! Therefore, if general admiration and applause have any significance, he is of all men most blessed, and should be, by way of civility, the most grateful. Mr. Kipling, seen through his works, is not grateful, and is preëminently discourteous. He goes out of his way to say nasty things which are not true about women, the most appreciative part of his public, about members of his own craft who have mostly given him unstinted praise, and in fact about all the world, except the British subaltern, in whose person he discovers the one man among ten thousand. His unpleasant remarks are usually quite aside from the matter of his tale, and unless he calmly regards them as gems of wise or beautiful thought, they must be taken as irrepressible outbursts of a disposition neither amiable nor gracious.

This lack of judgment or of self-control renders Mr. Kipling ineffective and unconvincing as a serious critic of life, for which reason the composition entitled "One Side of the Question" could be spared from the volume without diminution of his fame. With the stories the case is quite different. Excepting "Love of Women," of which the incidental amusement does not compensate for the coarseness of the cause, all add to his distinction. Every situation is vividly imagined and rendered with great force and precision. The pages are alive with those phrases and single epithets which can compel the dullest soul to make to himself a vast picture of horror or hilarity, of misery or riot. There is no compromise with the easy middle way of adventure or emotion, and no deference to a taste for the commonplace and a delight in the tamer virtues. There is, in a word, no feebleness in either idea or execution. Naturally the only insistent moral note is masculine and direct—the exaltation of courage, physical and moral, particularized in fervent patriotism. It is flippant to smile at a virtue held by ancient philosophers to have been of all virtues that least open to the reproach of self-interest, yet, when patriotism is given full and free expression, nothing can make a man appear more ridiculous—at least to other nations. Mr. Kipling's patriotism is so solemn that it is easy to imagine him taking the "Englishman" song in "Pinafore" as an admirably serious composition. However wrong the British nation may be in internal administration, as opposed to other nations it is always right. Especially wrong and sinful is that nation which is, or wishes to be, a Republic—witness the essay on democracy prefacing the story "Judson and the Empire." As for the United States, it is well known that Mr. Kipling has long been at odds with it, as a body, both politic and social. The United States had the misfortune to offend him, and he has ever since been calling names. It may be because the United States as a unit takes no notice, or because the exasperatingly good-natured people, heedless of his wrath, continue to buy his books, that he is goaded to observe in "His Private Honour," "Ortheris, being neither a menial, nor an American, but a free man, had no excuse for yelping." On the other hand, this may be only one of the nasty things which, as we remarked before, Mr. Kipling seems forced by the law of his being to utter.

The only story in an entirely new scene is "The Record of Badalia Herodsfoot." Here Mr. Kipling seizes the coster when he is vigorously "jumpin' on his mother" or wife, and when no joy is so remote from his intention as that of "lyin' barskin' in the sun." Badalia is a person of singularly direct vision and speech, and heroic according to her light. The story of her life and death resembles for brutality both of fact and language some passages in 'L'Assomoir,' but there is one vast difference: though the people are flagrantly immoral, they are not unclean, and though Mr. Kipling gives their depravity its worth, he does not linger lovingly upon lust. The fear of appearing to gloat, or to wish to make others gloat, over vice which is properly repulsive has probably much to do with our novelist's reluctance to recognize its existence. Mr. Kipling's art is fearless. In such case he does well to trust it, for it rests on a solid foundation of racial inheritance common to the coster and himself. In the practice of vice and crime, the one, because he is an Englishman, is brutal rather than bestial, and, in their delineation, the other, for the same reason, has no inclination to emphasize sensuality or to exaggerate its significance.

Another phase of this fundamental racial difference is noticeable in Mr. Bunner's 'Made in France,' which is a collection of ten stories adapted from the French of Guy de Maupassant. Somewhere in the volume just noticed Mr. Kipling tells about three men who, meeting on a ship, proceed to make acquaintance by telling the stories common to the human race, forty in number—thirty-nine that can't be told to ladies and one that can. If English people generally, outside of the literary class, have any strong conviction about De Maupassant, it is that he has told those thirty-nine stories over and over, told them with infinite variety of scene, circumstance, and character, and told nothing else. When they read Mr. Bunner's version, they will suspect that a good man has hitherto suffered great injustice. Mr. Bunner has selected ten situations; he describes them as ethical situations—which must be taken to mean that they are neither immoral nor indecent, without implying that, in order to see the point, one is obliged to reflect on any involved question of duty or conduct. By this judicious selection and by a careful repression of suggestions and jokes not permitted in modern English literature, Mr. Bunner presents a purged and purified De Maupassant—one whom an American father can confidently recommend to his daughter and by whom no Sunday-school would be disgraced. To say that he has presented the whole or the half, or the concentrated essence, of De Maupassant, would be to go very wide of the truth, and to create an impression as false in its way as is that of the French author's total depravity.

Mr. Bunner, in his prefatory essay, gives us to understand that there is some sort of connecting link, not quite capable of definition, between De Maupassant's tales or groups of tales which makes it necessary to read many before one can fairly judge any. The immediate object of his work is to present one such group and make clear what he calls the author's "inspiration" to those who cannot or will not read him in the original. De Maupassant, like any other prolific writer, cannot be measured by one story, and no sensible person would think of trying it, but there are few story-tellers whose attention seems for the moment to be so perfectly restricted to the matter in hand. The finality of each incident, the feeling given that it is all over, that there is nothing more to be done or said or thought about it, is the most obvious proof of the positiveness and completeness of his art. If he has any inspiration separable from a great talent of immense range, abundantly characterized by the qualities and defects of his nation, it is shrouded in mystery, nor does Mr. Bunner make it clear by his thorough and efficacious denationalization. A theory underlying French fiction is that there is nothing in life too indecent to be expressed, and that if you should have any doubts, you must at once get rid of them by expressing in one way or another all the indecencies which you have known, have heard, or can possibly conceive. This theory, as every one knows, is not the foundation of English fiction or of any form of English art worthy of the name. De Maupassant was far from being abandoned to indecency, but he wrote very few stories in which his wit, his invention, or his marvellously close observation were not used to illustrate the national theory. Mr. Bunner's adaptations are done on the English theory, which hampers him terribly in his proposed revelation. With the aid of De Maupassant's outline, he has written a very entertaining volume, but one through which the original author is not nearly so distinctly seen as in close translations, even if there something of the merely literary force be lost.

It is now easily possible to write an excellent novel without either a plot or a hero, but there still remains one kind to which both are essential—the novel of adventure. Of first importance in that is continued movement towards a climax, and one figure always in high relief. In Mr. Conan Doyle's novel 'The Refugees' there is a very serious breach of continuity, and through the first half the hero is quite cast in the shade by personages who, however great in reality, ought here at least, for the sake of art and interest, to be content with a more obscure position. What Mr. Doyle sets out to tell is the tale of the persecution of a Huguenot family resident in Paris during the last half of the seventeenth century, of their flight, and their subsequent adventures in Canada. What he really devotes most attention to for more than two hundred pages is the relation between Louis XVI. and Mmes. de Montespan and de Maintenon. The defence of Mme. de Maintenon against two centuries of more or less calumnious aspersion is very interesting—too interesting, for it detaches the mind from the sufferings of the Catinat family, and enfeebles curiosity about the subsequent perils of the fugitive Huguenots. Concerning Mme. de Maintenon, while wishing her to appear well, Mr. Doyle was hardly wise in

selecting for his strongest impressions scenes in which, to the modern intelligence, she could not but appear ill. We cannot quite believe in her wholesome influence on the King when we see her urging him to sign the revocation of the Edict of Nantes—an act by which his kingdom really lost more of solid advantage than it ever gained by his brilliant wars or astute diplomacy. Then, contrasting her with Mme. de Montespan, it is possible to think no better of a woman so fanatical, so unscrupulous about means to an end, than of one of laxer virtue disinclined to make trouble by meddling with affairs of state.

Having dropped the King, the court, and the courtesans, and packed the Huguenots off on the *Golden Rod*, Mr. Doyle launches into a series of romantic and exciting adventures, with the glory of leadership divided between a polished French soldier, Capt. de Catinat, and an ingenious son of the American wilderness, Amos Green. Many of the incidents and descriptions are derived almost literally from the Jesuit Relations. Mr. Doyle has made excellent selections from historical material well adapted for romance, overflowing as it is with picturesque contrast of race and condition, and with instances of rare individual heroism. He has so much to tell that this last half is a little hurried and breathless, thus further justifying complaint against occupying so much space in discussion of comparative irrelevancy.

In the short Texas story, 'A Border Leander,' the honor falls to a very active and ingenious heroine. It is the classic tale of love laughing at family feuds and ready to risk death for its own gratification. Fortunately for the issue, Miss Tanqueary's mind was eminently practical and her muscle invincible; though not averse to idle dalliance with the hereditary enemy of her folks, Ike Angevine, she distinctly recognized the frivolity of prolonged indulgence of sentiment within range of the Tanqueary shot-guns. The cleverness and promptness with which she removed herself and Ike from a dangerous neighborhood are much to be admired. Mr. Seely has narrated the adventure with appropriate dash. The rather grim humor of the characters is nicely marked, and the slight sketches of scene are touched with poetic grace.

The motive of 'Heather and Snow,' by the veteran novelist George Macdonald, is, like that of all his works, to illustrate the beauty of sound Christian faith and its value in the conduct of life. The Scotch farmer, Barclay, and his family, are well chosen for his purpose, because they exemplify the sweetness and gentleness of Christ's teaching, unimpaired by the interpretations of John Knox. So perfect a character as Kirsty Barclay is not exactly common, but, considering her inheritance and her surroundings, she is neither unnatural nor improbable. The picture of an absolutely unselfish character is well drawn, without pose or exaggeration, and repays one for reading a book in some respects dull and tedious.

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*The Story of my Life, from Childhood to Manhood.* By Georg Ebers. Translated by Mary J. Safford. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

It is a relief to know that Georg Ebers, for the time at least, has abandoned the archæological novel in order to write the history of his own life. For whatever doubts may be entertained as to the merits of his representations of Egyptian life in the time of the Pharaohs, he certainly knows how to write the life of a German of the nineteenth century. The first instalment of his autobiography, which lies before us, covers the period from 1837 to 1863, and is, apart from its personal interest, which is by no means small, a most remarkable record of some of the most remarkable events in German history of that time.

Probably the climax of the whole book is the account of the Berlin revolution of 1848, which Ebers, then a boy of eleven years, witnessed in all its fierce horror; and it is refreshing to hear a man of undoubted loyalty and conservatism, an enthusiastic admirer of the present German Empire, speak of this uprising with unreserved sympathy for the popular cause, and with a deep, though repressed, indignation at the part played in it by the monarchy. The account of the famous 18th of March is truly thrilling, and is illumined by a great many little touches which bring the events before us with wonderful vividness.

On the morning of the fatal day the King, as will be remembered, had at last granted the Constitution and promised freedom of the press. In the general rejoicing which followed the promulgation of this decree, little Ebers and his brother, too, were to have a part; they had been invited to a children's ball which was to take place in the afternoon. They were eagerly expecting the tailor, who was to bring some new blue jackets made for this occasion. At last, at three o'clock, he came:

"Our mother was present when he tried them on, and when she remarked that now all was well, the man shook his head, and declared that the concessions of the forenoon had no other object than to befool the people; that would appear before long. While I write, it seems as if I saw again that poor little bearer of the first evil tidings, and heard again the first shots which interrupted his prophecy with eloquent confirmation.

"My mother turned pale. The tailor folded up his cloth and hurried away. What did his words mean? What had happened? The answer was a rattle of musketry. We leaned out of the window, from which we could see as far as Potsdamerstrasse. What a rush there was towards the gate! Three or four men dashed down the middle of the quiet street. The tall, bearded fellow at the head we knew well. It was the upholsterer, Specht, who had often worked for us, a good and capable craftsman. But what a change! Instead of a neat little hammer, he was flourishing an axe, and he and his companions looked as furious as if they were going to revenge some terrible injury. He caught sight of us, and I remember distinctly the whites of his rolling eyes as he raised his axe higher and shouted hoarsely: 'They shall get it!'"

We regret that we cannot quote the description of the scene of battle itself, which the boy visited the morning after that terrible night, or the "procession of the dead" before the King, or the solemn funeral service in the Friedrichshain. But we must at least indicate Ebers's own judgment about these revolutionary struggles by inserting the words with which he closes this chapter:

"During those spring days, no matter by what hands—among them were the noblest and purest—were sown the seeds of the dignity and freedom of public life which we now enjoy. To me and, thank heaven, to the majority of Germans, life deprived of what was conquered in those days would seem unendurable."

As this volume ends with the publication of the author's first novel, 'An Egyptian Princess,' we may look forward to another equally interesting part, dealing with his subsequent literary career and with the impressions produced upon him by the great events of 1866 and 1870.

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*The Wilderness Hunter.* By Theodore Roosevelt. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Probably no American is better qualified than Mr. Roosevelt to write on such a subject as this, for he has himself hunted and killed every variety of game native to the United States, has lived on our so-called frontier, has known the peculiar life, thought, and action of its people, and, above all, possesses a true appreciation of nature, animate and inanimate, and the literary ability to relate what he has seen. He has studied the habits of the game while hunting it; at the same time he has noted with interest and intelligence all the sights and sounds peculiar to the wilderness, and, having the eye of a naturalist, has not allowed the habits of the smaller birds and animals to escape unnoticed in his pursuit of a larger quarry. So many books on hunting have been written which fail to show anything but the natural Anglo-Saxon blood-thirstiness, that it is refreshing to have a writer pause to cover his sinister motives with the cloak of a fine cloud effect, or glorify them with the splendor of a flaming sunset. Time and opportunity come to few men, engaged in the active work of life, to see and do what our author has seen and done. Our country still has the unexplored places, the peculiar life, and strange characters, not to be found in the earth's older regions, which belong to a nation's youth and are so dear to romance and adventure, and Mr. Roosevelt has seen and written of these things in a straightforward style, without either coldness or sentimentality, devoting most of his time to action, and leaving the romance to others.

Yet herein lies one of the faults of his book. It is egoistic. He has a great deal to say of the country, of its wild life and its beauties, but, except in a general way, he tells little of the men. In a hunting trip he is the central figure, and his opinions are always exact and perhaps a little intolerant. He draws the line too closely between what is sportsmanlike and unsportsmanlike. No one who possesses any of the instincts of a sportsman for a moment defends indiscriminate slaughter of game, for the mere sake of killing, and such sport as is obtained by being paddled up to a deer in the water to shoot it with a shotgun, or by running the poor beast down on the crust, is universally condemned. Yet the man who has chased a moose on the snow, alone, for three days, would be surprised to find that his feat was not as sportsmanlike as the half-hour's stalk of an elk; and one who loves the shotgun better than the rifle may resent being told that he is not as manly and as much of a true sportsman as he who hunts only larger game.

It is unfortunate that the illustrations of this book are not better. Few of them are good, and some are very bad. In a picture of two elk fighting, another looks on, which seems like the spectral restoration of some long extinct species. In another, of "A Cowboy and Bear Fight," not only is the horse ill-drawn, but the bear looks like a large, fat Newfound land dog without a tail. This is particularly unworthy the excellence of its surroundings, for the chapter "In Cowboy Land" is one of the most delightful in the book, ranking with that on "Hunting Lore," and, like that, reserved for the close of the narrative.

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*Lake St. Louis, Old and New, Illustrated; and Cavelier de la Salle.* By Désiré Girouard. Translated from the French by D. H. Girouard. Montreal. 1893.

M. Girouard is author of several pamphlets of local research, 'Le Vieux Lachine et le Massacre du 5 Août, 1689,' 'Les Anciens Forts de Lachine et Cavelier de la Salle,' and 'Les Anciennes Côtes du Lac Saint-Louis.' The substance of these pamphlets is incorporated

in the present book, which is throughout local in character, being the result of very extensive and varied research concerning the neighborhood of the author's residence, near La Chine, a few miles above Montreal. Old and new are mixed in a rather promiscuous manner, from learned discussions as to the exact location of La Salle's house or cabin to accounts of modern buildings entirely void of historic interest. The illustrations are numerous and good, though equally heterogeneous, consisting of portraits of early colonial celebrities, of ancient buildings or their ruins, and of modern churches, new post-offices, dwellings, etc., totally uninteresting to any but those immediately concerned. M. Girouard very candidly and very justly doubts the genuineness of any of the so-called portraits of La Salle. As to the question of the origin of the name of La Chine, he shows plainly that it is not of earlier date than 1669, when La Salle made his first attempt to find a western path to China, and incurred ridicule in consequence.

M. Girouard has been untiring in research into notarial papers, deeds, and other documents, and he is minute to a fault, filling whole pages with the names of the *habitants*, or peasants, of La Chine and other places, sometimes to the exclusion of more important matter. The translation leaves much to be desired, and is occasionally misleading, while the mechanical execution of the volume is excellent.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barrow, Sir John C. The Seven Cities of the Dead, and Other Poems. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Bowen, H. W. De Genere Humano. Boston: J. G. Cupples & Co.
Brisbane, Redella. Albert Brisbane: A Mental Biography. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Brontë, Charlotte. The Professor. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Carlisle, Dr. R. J. An Account of Bellevue Hospital. Bellevue Hospital. $3.
Collar, W. C. The Seventh Book of Vergil's Æneid. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Crooker, J. H. The New Bible and its New Uses. Boston: G. H. Ellis. $1.
Das Akademische Berlin. Sommer-Halbjahr, 1893. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Davies, William. The Literary Works of James Smetham. Macmillan. $1.50.
Dawson, M. M. Elements of Life Insurance. Chicago: Independent Printing and Publishing Co. $2.
De Vere, Meta. All or Nothing. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.25.
Dutt, Romesh Chunder. Ancient India. [Epochs of Indian History.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Easter-Henderson, Mrs. Eliza. A Guide to Palmistry. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Emerson, R. W. The American Scholar. American Book Co. 20 cents.
Eschstruth, Nataly von. A Priestess of Comedy. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.25.
Gayley, Prof. C. M. The Classic Myths in English Literature. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.65.
Girouard, Désiré. Lake St. Louis, Old and New, and Cavelier de La Salle. Columbian ed. Montreal: Poirier, Bessette & Co.
Graham, Dr. Douglas. Recent Developments in Massage. 2d ed. Detroit: G. S. Davis. 25 cents.
Grafl, Stephen. The Nameless City. Harpers. 50 cents.
Grant, Robert. Jack Hall; or, The Schooldays of an American Boy. Scribners. $1.25.
Harper, Prof. W. R., and Castle, Prof. C. F. Exercises in Greek Prose Composition. American Book Co. 75 cents.
Hawkins, C. C., and Wallis, F. The Dynamo: its Theory, Design and Manufacture. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Henderson, Prof. C. R. An Introduction to the Study of the Dependent, Defective, and Delinquent Classes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.50.
Higgins, Godfrey. Horæ Sabbaticæ. Peter Eckler.
Higginson, T. W., and Channing, Prof. Edward. English History for American Readers. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.20.
Hope, Anthony. Half a Hero. Harpers. 50 cents.
Horsford, E. N., and Cornelia. Leif's House in Vineland, and Graves of the Northmen. Boston: Damrell & Upham. $1.50.
Howard, B. D. Life with Trans-Siberian Savages. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Hyde, Mary F. Practical Lessons in the Use of English. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 65 cents.
Jahn, Ulrich. Schwänke und Schnurren aus Bauern Mund. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Jäschke, Richard. English-German Conversation Dictionary. Boston: Carl Schoenhof. 90 cents.
Law, J. D. Dreams o' Hame, and Other Scotch Poems. London: Alexander Gardner; Camden, N. J.: The Author. $1.50.
Le Gallienne, Richard. Poems of Arthur Henry Hallam. London: Elkin Matthews & John Lane; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Leyton, Frank. Skeleton Leaves. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Moureau, Adrien. Les Moreau. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: *L'Art*; New York: Macmillan.
Newton, Alfred, and Gadow, Hans. A Dictionary of Birds. Part I. (A—Ga). London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.60.
Novaro, Mario. Die Philosophie des Nicolaus Malebranche. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Parr, Mrs. Can This be Love? Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Patmore, Coventry. Religio Poetæ, etc. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Paul, Dr. F. T. A Text-Book of Domestic Economy. Longmans, Green & Co. 75 cents.
Penniman, J. H. Prose Dictation Exercises from the English Classics. Philadelphia: The Author.
Petavel, Rev. E. The Problem of Immortality. London: Elliot Stock: New York: Macmillan.
Poems of Charlotte, Emily and Anne Brontë. London: J. M. Dent & Co.: New York: Macmillan. $1.
Pool, Miss Maria L. Dally. Harpers. 50 cents.
Ransom, J. U. Longman's German Grammar. Longmans, Green & Co. 90 cents.
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[*Educational continued on page vi.*]

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 21, 1893.*

## The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND, with characteristic bluntness and force, held the obstructionists of the Senate up to public view in their true light in the following passage of his address at the Capitol centennial exercises on Monday:

"If representatives who here assemble to make laws for their fellow-countrymen forget the duty of broad and disinterested patriotism, and legislate in prejudice and passion, or in behalf of sectional or selfish interests, the time when the corner-stone of our Capitol was laid and the circumstances surrounding it will not be worth commemorating."

There is nothing behind the delay in the Senate except "sectional and selfish interests," and the whole country understands that fact perfectly. The President speaks in this instance, as he has spoken in so many others, for the whole people, and it will not be many days before the partisans of various kinds who are vainly opposing the inevitable accomplishment of repeal will find this out.

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The anti repealers are still filling the air in Washington with rumors of difficulties in the way of unconditional repeal. They are sure that there will have to be a compromise of some sort, and they are finding great comfort in the partisan disturbance which has been precipitated, quite foolishly, in the House over the Federal election laws. Why any Democratic member of the House should think that the present was a favorable or necessary time to raise this bitterly partisan issue, we are unable to comprehend. Nothing but a traditional propensity to blunder can account for Mr. Tucker's proceedings. But at the same time we are not prepared to believe that there is in the Senate any Republican who will be capable of the ludicrous conduct of changing his intention to vote for repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law because the Democrats of the House are proposing to repeal the Federal election laws. He would have a nice time explaining his vote to his constituents were he to do so.

---

It will be wise for the business world to view with equanimity the noisy demonstrations which will be kept up in Washington till the Senate is brought to a vote, for there is nothing in them but the bluster of despair. There are at least forty-eight Senators, the Philadelphia *Ledger's* Washington correspondent declares, who will vote down all amendments and compromises and insist upon unconditional repeal. That is a clear majority of eleven, and the *Evening Post's* correspondent's estimate, which is similar to that of the President, puts the majority in favor of repeal on the final vote at from 20 to 25. Under these circumstances all talk about the obstacles in the way of repeal, whether the source be the silver attorneys on the floor of the Senate or in the lobby, or the high-tariff fanatics who would rather see the repeal defeated than have the tariff reformed, or the Democratic Cleveland haters who care for nothing in the world so much as the failure of any policy that he advocates, or the champions of the defunct Force Bill—all such talk is equally inconsequential. There is nothing within the power of the opponents of repeal except delay, and they are exhausting that power with every day's use of it. It is a great pity that they cannot be brought up with a round turn at once, but that their doom is sealed cannot for a moment be questioned.

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The desperate condition of the cause of bimetallism is indicated by the proposal of Senator Faulkner. So far as we know, this is about the only intelligible plan that has been presented for the use of both metals as actual currency, and it has the merit—although this will not recommend it to the advocates of free-silver coinage—of not being dishonest. But regarded as a practical scheme, it is astonishing. In the first place, it proposes to change the customs of the vast majority of our people by compelling them to carry coin in their pockets instead of paper money. It is true that other peoples are accustomed to carry about an assortment of precious metals, but the American people is not used to this practice, and it is a serious matter to face the sentiment expressed in the classical *Nolumus leges Anglicæ mutari*. In the second place, his proposal would bring on the dreadful evils which so affect the imagination of bimetallists, arising from there not being enough gold to go around. By the withdrawal of all paper money except the old greenbacks of denominations under $10 from circulation, gold coins of the denomination of half-eagles and quarter-eagles would be forced into use. No one would carry in his pocket five pounds of silver when a quarter of a pound of gold would do the work just as well, and the result would be a sharp demand for gold. But this is the very bugbear of the bimetallists converted into a dire reality. There is no very fierce struggle for gold at present, but if we are actually going to use it in place of our five-dollar and two-dollar and one-dollar notes, there may be something of a scramble. This, of course, is upon the supposition that the "parity of the metals" is to be maintained; that is, that any one tendering the United States Treasury a silver dollar will be able to get a gold dollar in exchange, or at least that all dues to the Government may be paid in silver. Otherwise Mr. Faulkner's proposal means the silver standard. Again, we see that this measure provides no revenue for the purchase of silver, nor does it provide any means for putting in circulation $200,000,000 more silver dollars. It really amounts to nothing but the Bland Act of 1878, with an added provision intended to make people carry silver dollars in their pockets, and with a promise of the termination of the folly after a few years. But as the country is sick to death of it now, this promise has little cheer.

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A proposition well worth considering is that introduced in the House last week providing for the annexation of the Territory of Utah to the State of Nevada. The present condition of Nevada is a reproach to our system of government. It has two members of the United States Senate, and one of the House of Representatives, although its population has been dwindling for years, and had sunk as low as only 45,761 souls in 1890. Utah, on the other hand, is growing steadily and rapidly, the increase in population between 1880 and 1890 having been almost 50 per cent., and the total in 1890 having been 207,905, or more than four times Nevada's. Probably by this time the number of inhabitants is not far short of a quarter of a million. The time is rapidly approaching when Utah must cease to be a Territory, and there could be no better way of its gaining the advantages of Statehood than through a union with Nevada. There would then be one commonwealth which would always be sure of a population large enough to justify the prerogatives of a State, while the scandal of Nevada's condition grows worse year by year.

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We regret to observe that there is a disagreement between Mr. McKinley and the *Tribune* as to the desirability of "cheapness." The former stands manfully by his original position, first proclaimed in 1890, that "cheap and nasty go together," that "cheap merchandise means cheap men, and cheap men mean a cheap country," for he said in his speech last week at Akron:

"They [the people] have had quite enough of the 'cheap' era which was ushered in by the Democratic victory. They will soon discover, if they have not done so already, that 'cheapness' is not the highest aim of American citizenship."

The *Tribune*, with that catholicity in editing which distinguishes it, commends the speech as a whole in one extremely able and luminous leading article, and in another leading article, equally able and luminous, only a column's distance away from the first, claims that McKinley pro-

tection has given us the very "cheapness" that McKinley denounces, saying:

"When Mr. Cobden was advocating free trade in England fifty years ago, his great argument was that prices would be cheapened, and that the working classes would be fully employed at higher wages. The tariff hearings are demonstrating that both of these objects have been secured in the United States under protection."

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It is very plain from Mr. McKinley's latest statement of his silver position that he has changed it very little from what it was in February, 1891, when he said in a speech at Toledo: "During all of his [Cleveland's] years at the head of the Government he was dishonoring one of our precious metals, one of our own great products, discrediting silver and enhancing the price of gold." Last week he said:

"We do not want to strike down either gold or silver. We want to use both metals; but we insist now, as we have always insisted, that the one shall be at a parity with the other, to the end that we may have the use of both; that each shall be the equal of the other intrinsically, as well as in legal-tender and in debt-paying power. The silver product of the country, one of the most important we have, *should not be discriminated against*, but some plan should be devised for its utilization as a money which will insure, not the displacement of gold, but the safe and *full use of both*, as exchanges among the people."

There is very little difference between that kind of twaddle and the "defence of silver" which Peffer, Stewart, Teller, Jones, and Wolcott are making in the Senate. McKinley has weakened the force of his indictment somewhat by changing "dishonoring" to "discriminating against," but otherwise he is unshakably for silver.

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What civil war is doing in the way of cutting off our coffee supplies from Brazil, Mr. Harrison's proclamation of retaliatory duties against Colombia, Venezuela, and Hayti has been doing all along. If those countries were free to send us the coffee they would like to, the present blockade in Brazil would afford them a fine chance to make extra large shipments and make good the Brazilian shortage. But we have deliberately shut ourselves off from that mode of relief. Coffee-consumers feel the Brazilian war very keenly, and are hoping that it will soon be over, so that they can get their coffee as cheap as before; but we have never seen any considerable indignation on their part on account of the arbitrary tax which did what they now lament to see war doing. The whole thing is a rather neat reminder of the way customs duties act, and are designed by protectionists to act, precisely like war. Indeed, it is a well-settled principle with protectionist expounders of economic history that there are only two possible explanations of an era of prosperity—protective taxes or war-taxes. Mr. Blaine was the pioneer here, and his discovery that the Mexican war was all that kept the country from going to ruin under the revenue tariff of 1846 had a great run. Since then it has become axiomatic that, if the country was prosperous at any given time, the cause was a protective tariff, or, if that did not exist, then the equivalent blessing of a bloody and long-continued war.

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It is pleasant to remember, in reading the account of the "Cherokee boom," that this must be the last of these chapters of mingled childishness and savagery. The public lands are now all opened to settlement, and there will, therefore, be no more rushes into new territory. The historian of the future, who will know that land has been a drug in the market on this continent for two hundred years, and can be had almost for the asking in all but a few favored localities, will be sorely puzzled by the Oklahoma and Cherokee "booms," unless he is familiar with the American passion for speculation—that is, for getting hold of something to be unloaded rapidly on somebody else. If he imagines the boomers to be intending cultivators of the soil, how absurd the sneer at the slowness and conservatism of the agricultural mind, with which our literature is filled, will seem to him. How different the mounted boomer, galloping to the scene of his projected toil, will seem from the dull, plodding farmer of contemporary fiction and journalism.

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There is something very startling in the increase of that form of lawlessness known as lynching in the South. It has three distinguishing features: (1) the victims are always negroes; (2) the murderers are never punished; (3) simple murder often fails to satisfy the lynching parties, and they resort to torture and such forms of mutilation as would be expected only of our most savage Indians. Last Friday morning we had the account of the lynching of two men and two women, negroes, in Mississippi. A white man's family had, it was charged, been poisoned. Suspicion pointing to one negro, he was arrested, but was lynched by hanging before the inquest was concluded. The two women were discharged by the Coroner's jury, but were hanged at once. A second negro man, against whom there was suspicion, was found hanging to a tree the next morning. Monday's story, which comes from Louisiana, tells of four negroes killed by a mob because they would not disclose, if they could, the hiding-place of a negro murderer. There is the less excuse for these murders in the Southern States because in all of them the machinery of the law is in the hands of white men, and if the accused negroes are guilty, the law furnishes an adequate means for their punishment. There remains, however, in the South a feeling that punishment under due process of law is too dignified for a negro accused of a crime committed against a white man. A Southern correspondent of the *Evening Post*, discussing a few weeks ago the reasons why the Southern States attract so few immigrants, placed the frequency of lynching at the head of the list of causes. It may be that not until the South learns that lawlessness is a pecuniary loss, will public sentiment suffice to put an end to this form of it.

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The brutality of our system of dismissing officials in the civil service receives another signal illustration in the treatment of Henry A. Thomas, Superintendent of Mails in the Boston Post-office. Mr. Thomas entered the office as a clerk in 1873, at the age of seventeen, was promoted to the Superintendency of Mails in 1889, and soon afterwards was offered the position of Superintendent of Foreign Mails at Washington, which he declined. No complaint has ever been made that he was not an efficient officer, but it is asserted that he has been so offensive in his political activity outside of the office as to forfeit any claim to retention. We do not enter upon this phase of the case. Indeed, for our present purpose, it may be admitted that there was ground for not continuing him permanently in the place. What we call attention to now is the manner of his dismissal, which was in this form, the notice being received on a Friday, to take effect on the following Sunday:

"POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT,
OFFICE GENERAL SUPERINTENDENT
RAILWAY MAIL SERVICE,
WASHINGTON, D. C., Sept. 14, 1893.

"*Henry A. Thomas, Superintendent of Mails:*

"SIR: An order has been issued discontinuing your pay and services as Superintendent of Mails in the Boston, Mass., Post-office. To take effect September 17, 1893.

"Very respectfully, JAMES E. WHITE,
General Superintendent."

It would be a gross outrage for a private employer to turn into the street, with only two days' notice, a man who had served him faithfully for twenty years, even if he had come to the conclusion that the interests of his business would be promoted by a change in the place. The outrage is no less gross when the employer is the Federal Government.

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The sessions of the "Parliament of Religions" at Chicago last week have undoubtedly served as a great object-lesson in toleration, and have also brought out, to some extent, the fact that the essential unity of all Christian sects, and of so-called heathen religions as well, is to be found in an ideal of humanity which all praise and all confess they do not realize. More than this we do not see that the Parliament has accomplished or could accomplish. It was thought that valuable statements of different beliefs would be made by the gathered representatives of different faiths and nationalities, but it was evident that this could not be done under the rule that nothing should be said by any speaker to injure the sensibilities of any other. With the polemic element thus perforce left out, there was little else for the various delegates to do than to echo Cardinal Gibbons's remark that, though they differed in faith, they could all stand on the platform of charity and benevolence. The very willingness to

make such a colorless and tolerant statement of irreconcilable theological views might easily be taken as a sign of decaying vitality, as well as of increasing good-nature and regard for the opinions of others. It is impossible to imagine John Knox toning down his views in any presence, least of all in that of theological opponents. To him the Chicago Parliament would have been a splendid opportunity to bear his "testimony," which he could never have forgiven himself for not embracing.

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According to latest advices it appears that the costly undertaking of turning Manchester into a seaport is rapidly approaching completion. Five miles of quay are already laid; the ship-canal, thirty-five miles long, connecting the city with the tideway of the Mersey, is expected to be open for traffic early next year. One-third of the distance is already open to shipping This gigantic undertaking was begun in 1887. The cost has amounted to £15,000,000—some £300,000 was sunk in Parliamentary expenses. The canal is capable of passing through vessels of as large tonnage as the Suez Canal. To carry the four important lines of railway which intersected its course over it, has necessitated the construction of viaducts seventy feet high. Six swing-bridges and a high-level cantilever bear main roads over its waters. Elaborate arrangements have had to be made for its intersection by the Bridgewater Canal. The original plan was to level it through on the high-water line of the Mersey; but that was abandoned, and a series of locks now bring the canal at Manchester up to the level of the city, sixty feet over Liverpool. The locks and bridges are opened and shut by hydraulic power. Vessels by the aid of electric light will be passed through by night as easily as by day. Mr. E. Leader Williams is the engineer of this new wonder of the world. There has been considerable jealousy between Liverpool and Manchester with regard to the canal; but, as in most such cases, it is more likely to promote the advancement of both cities than lead to the decadence of one. In any event, Liverpool may have the satisfaction of knowing that, so much has the cost exceeded the first estimate, that not one penny are the original Manchester shareholders likely to get back out of the enterprise.

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The city of Paris with its environs boasts nearly one-twelfth of the total population of France, yet it does not escape the charge, which lies against so many other great cities, of being a huge maw into which the best of the national life is sucked. Only in the slightest degree is it the parent of the energy and distinction which it displays on so great a scale. In the political field, scarcely one of the distinguished men of the time is Paris-born. The President of the Republic is not, nor is the President of the Senate or of the Chamber; not one of the ten Cabinet Ministers, neither of the Chief Justices nor of the Attorney-Generals of the higher courts, reckons Paris as his birthplace, nor does the Governor of the Bank of France. Somewhat similar results are obtained by scanning the lists of distinguished scholars, artists, journalists, soldiers. From the provinces have come a disproportionate majority of the men whose success in life makes Paris famous. Such facts are more striking in the case of the French capital, whose preponderance over the rest of the country has been so long established, than they would be in a newer country, where the headlong rush to the cities is a comparatively recent thing.

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That M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu was defeated as a candidate for the French Legislature at Lodève in the Department of Hérault, and that too by a Radical Socialist, is not a cause for rejoicing, but there are some encouraging features in the vote. The successful candidate obtained 7,250 votes, but M. Leroy-Beaulieu had 6,302. When it is considered that he stands for orthodoxy in political economy, for free trade, for freedom of contract, for the right to work, and against protection, socialism, labor monopolies, and governmental meddling in general, it must be admitted that he ran surprisingly well. As was said of John Mill when he stood for Westminster upon a full and frank declaration of all his views, the Almighty himself couldn't be elected upon such a platform, and M. Leroy-Beaulieu has come nearer to success than we supposed possible. The political future of France is certainly covered with a dark cloud, but if the principles represented by this distinguished statesman and economist really command the support of nearly half the population, as would be indicated by this vote, there is no need to despair of the Republic.

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The expulsion of Italian laborers to the number of 800 or 1,000 from the region of Aigues-Mortes has had consequences which might have been foreseen. There has been no rush of French laborers to take the places left vacant, and the operations in the salt-pits have been brought to a standstill. It seems to be the case in France, as it is in this country, that certain kinds of work must be done by imported laborers or they will not be done at all. There is other work of a preferable character sufficient to occupy all the inhabitants, and even high wages will not tempt them to relinquish their usual occupations. Moreover, it is frequently the case that certain kinds of work are extremely fatal to some races, while others can engage in them with impunity. The cultivation of rice in the Carolina swamps cannot be carried on by white men, but the negroes appear to be unaffected by the malarial poison so deadly to the whites. It has often been said that the Central Pacific Railroad could not have been built but for the aid of the Chinese, and most of our present enterprises requiring large forces of strong manual laborers would be greatly hampered if the Italians were not available. It now appears that the Italians employed in the vineyards in the southern part of the Department of the Gard, which are surrounded with marshes, have fled in terror at the reports of the treatment applied to their fellow-countrymen at Aigues-Mortes, and that no substitutes have been found. The Italians are said to be exempt from the fever which prevails about these marshes, while the French are not. However, the chauvinistic view is that it is better to let the salt-pits be closed and the vineyards be abandoned, provided France be preserved for Frenchmen.

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Brazil has been a sore trial during the past four years to those enthusiastic souls who thought that all that was needed to make a country a republic was to call it so. There was great rejoicing in this country in 1889 when a military intriguer bundled the Emperor out of Brazil and set himself up as an autocrat under the name of a President. We had to listen to much effusive talk about the disappearance of the last remnant of tyranny from the sacred soil of America, and the reception of Brazil into the "sisterhood of freedom." But it was not long before the truth appeared, that the Brazilians had simply exchanged a cultured and mild-mannered and progressive Emperor for a rough and lawless soldier; and when he in turn fell before new intriguers, it was with some difficulty that the pæans in praise of Brazilian republicanism were again lifted. Now that the time has come around for a new "President" to be elected by the biggest guns in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro, the illusion has pretty much vanished, and we hear little about the blessings of a military oligarchy masquerading as a republic. It would be hard for any one to point out what Brazil has gained by the fall of Dom Pedro except an enormous increase in public expenditures, a condition of sporadic anarchy, and great harm to the real republican movement. There was such a movement in Brazil, directed by intelligent and law-abiding men, and it doubtless would, in time, have brought about a republic by peaceable means. The Emperor himself freely recognized this, and used to say that when the country was ripe for a republic, he would not stand in the way of it. But in an evil day the agitation was taken up by a set of military adventurers, who have made republican institutions synonymous with force and trickery, and so have put back the real progress of the country in the idea and practice of self-government. The experience has been a calamitous one for Brazil, but it will not be entirely fruitless if it leads men to learn once more the old lesson that liberty and self-government are not to be found in names and forms.

### *THE TARIFF HEARINGS.*

THOSE who had doubts of the necessity or wisdom of the tariff hearings granted by the Committee on Ways and Means must have given them up by this time. It has been a very useful exhibition, on the whole, which the protected manufacturers have made before the Committee, and one which forms a fitting preliminary to the preparation of a tariff bill such as was ordered by the people last November in the teeth of the manufacturers.

The comic view of the hearings it has been left for the *Tribune* to take. With admirable gravity that waggish journal has kept up the pretence that the interested manufacturers were dispassionate students of economics, who had gone to Washington solely in the interests of truth and for the good of the whole country. Following up their "testimony" from day to day, it has kept its readers holding their sides while it has pictured the astonishment and dismay of the Democratic members of the Committee at the novel and powerful arguments which they were compelled to listen to, so it humorously chose to assume, for the first time in their lives. It was, indeed, delicious to conceive of the Committee as a lot of novices who had never before heard of the doctrine that it is the foreigner who pays tariff taxes, that protection is the great system of thaumaturgy which guards against the evils of low prices by making them still lower, and who were just the men to be bowled over and left speechless by the ratiocination of John Jarrett and W. C. Cronemeyer.

We are not able ourselves to treat the hearings with such levity. Upon us the impression made by them has rather been one of melancholy. To see such fatuity, such political and economic blindness, such undisguised selfishness, persisted in and put on exhibition and urged as a rational basis for the fiscal policy of the nation, is as depressing as it is to see proofs of the vitality of any other form of ignorance and superstition. At the very moment when negotiations are closing for putting the Lake Superior iron-ore mines into the hands of a gigantic Trust, and when the negotiators are boasting that they will be in a position to make a profit of more than one dollar a ton, Mr. Ely, their representative, goes to Washington to inform the Committee that if the duty of seventy-five cents a ton is removed, the mines will all be closed and general ruin ensue. Democritus himself could not see anything in that to laugh at. Nor could he in the bearing and arguments of almost all the men who appeared before the Committee. They came forward, one after another, with their unsupported assertions, with their undigested figures respecting the cost of production and the wages of labor, and with their gratuitous prophecies, and seemed to expect that the Committee and the country would never suspect them of prejudice or self-interest.

It seems inconceivable that intelligent men, even if warped by private interest, could any longer imagine that a tariff bill was to be drawn up in that old-fashioned, simple-minded way. For McKinley it was enough, as he privately assured the friends who wondered at his credulity in 1890, that the manufacturers asked for a duty, to prove that they could not get along without it. But we have had three years of education in human nature since then, and that pastoral simplicity is possible no more for ever. The changed standpoint from which the whole question is now to be discussed was very well brought out in the hearing of September 8. A manufacturer of cotton-bagging and binding-twine was arguing against putting any of his products on the free list and was asked about the Cordage Trust. He admitted that combination to be a bad thing, but thought the difficulty might be met by the Committee's making a loud threat to put bagging on the free list if the Trust did not immediately dissolve. Anyhow, he said, he was as much entitled to protection as were the manufacturers of woollen goods or any other articles. Asked if it was fair to compel the farmer to pay higher rates for his bagging when he had to sell his products in the markets of the world, the manufacturer replied that such a query "opened up the whole question of protection," and that he must decline to discuss.

This "testimony" very happily put side by side the old way of looking at the tariff and the new. If a tariff bill is to be a general setting forth of food in a trough, there is, indeed, no reason why one pig should be favored above another, and it is impossible to say that a porker in the shape of a Trust must be shoved aside just because he has not limited himself to his snout and forefeet, but has insisted upon getting into the trough bodily. But if the wisdom of the whole process is once admitted to be doubtful, if "the whole question of protection," which Mr. Stevens, the bagging manufacturer, fought so shy of, is really to be discussed in connection with tariff taxes, then the affair is wholly different. In such case the determining factors are the good of the people as a whole, the needs of the Treasury, and the encouragement of commerce in its broadest sense. A tariff bill based on such factors is precisely what the Committee on Ways and Means has to prepare, and we repeat that the hearings which they have given the men whose only idea of a tariff is of a law for their special benefit, have had their value as exemplifying the way the thing used to be done, in contrast with the way in which the country has now decided that the thing shall be done.

### *A FORETASTE OF SOCIALISM.*

WHATEVER differences may exist among persons of socialistic leanings, there is one fundamental assumption which they agree in making. They must hold that our legislators and administrative officers are somehow endowed with a kind of collective or corporate wisdom by virtue of which they can determine what individual men should do with better results than if the determination were left to the individual men themselves. Government, or the forcible control of men by their fellows, is not, upon this theory, intrinsically undesirable and to be defended only because we are not yet sufficiently developed to regard one another's rights without compulsion. It is rather something good in itself and to be extended, to the diminution of individual freedom and to the increase of the dominion of the majority. It is difficult to see how this theory can find support in the experience of the past; monetary history at least is certainly not in favor of it. From the earliest times men agreed to measure the values of the goods and services which they exchanged in the precious metals, which they weighed out in small pieces for that purpose. Partly for convenience, partly from greed, governments came to undertake the business of stamping the weight upon these pieces, and very soon proceeded to defraud their subjects in the operation. They falsified both weight and quality, and there is scarcely a government in operation that has not at some time engaged in this sort of stealing.

In the course of time the dealings of merchants upon credit developed bills of exchange and promissory notes into money, and their governments proceeded to borrow the idea with even more fraudulent results. They had stamped false representations upon coins which yet had some intrinsic value, but now they were able to put the same stamp upon pieces of paper that had no intrinsic value at all. The history of the inflation and repudiation that governments were able to practise through this device is a long and dismal one, and the chapter is far from being closed. Many governments are insolvent now, and it is highly probable that several more will be added to the number before this generation has passed away, perhaps even before this century is ended. So far from regulating the contracts of their subjects with greater wisdom than the subjects could manifest, governments have not only meddled disastrously with those contracts, but have shamefully and notoriously dishonored their own.

We do not see how any one can find any better support for the assumptions of socialism in our present financial experience than in the financial history of the past. Had they been left to themselves, the people who are engaged in business would have had no trouble about a standard of value. They would have based their contracts upon definite weights of gold or silver as they preferred, and would have accepted paper in place of metal only in so far as it commended itself

to the judgment of each individual as a satisfactory equivalent. But the assumed superior wisdom of the Government did not let them do this. It compelled them by force first to accept paper as equal to coin, and then to accept a certain weight of silver as equal to a certain weight of gold. This was embarrassing enough, but for a time the natural loyalty of the people gave effect to these arbitrary decrees, and the dollars of paper, of silver, and of gold were practically equivalent. But this did not satisfy the Government, and it enacted a law which presently satisfied the people that this artificial parity could not be maintained, and that the intrinsic value of the silver dollar must become the standard of all exchanges. So soon as this opinion came to prevail we know what happened; and the people are now imploring their Government to terminate this exhibition of its superior wisdom, and allow them a portion of that freedom of contract which both natural rights and constitutional law pronounce theirs. They have succeeded in bringing a portion of their rulers to yield to their arguments and entreaties; but the Senate so far refuses to be moved, and stands squarely upon the socialistic assumption that it knows what is good for the people better than they know themselves.

If the assumption of the superior wisdom of rulers finds little support in their financial practice, it finds less in their theories. Whoever will be at the pains to read the speeches now in course of delivery in the Senate will be amazed at the pure folly of most of them. They are not only disfigured by ignorance of history and disregard of logic which would disgrace an intelligent schoolboy, but they are filled with talk which would be thought to indicate want of mental balance in Bedlam. Their authors babble of colossal crimes and universal conspiracies, and seem wild with nightmare terrors at the thought of allowing people, the most enterprising as well as the most conservative, to make contracts on a gold basis even if they are unanimous in desiring it. Their credulity, if they are sincere, about the plots and purposes of the bankers and capitalists of the world would make Cotton Mather blush for his scepticism, and their visions of the woes that will follow the repeal of the Sherman Act are scarcely less dreadful than those of the Apocalypse. Meanwhile, the gentle Socialist, with this spectacle before him, talks glibly of the necessity of committing our railroads to the care of the Government.

It is idle to think of getting the control of the standard of value away from the Government. It is there, and there it will stay. But it is absurd to maintain that Government has displayed superior wisdom either in regulating our money or in talking about its regulation. It is impossible to deny that if the matter had been left to be settled by the free agreement of men they would long before this have worked out a sound system of currency, just as they have worked out sound systems in other departments of business. They would not have got themselves into such a scrape as they are now in, and if they had they would have got themselves out of it a great deal quicker than Congress can do it. Be this as it may, it seems strange for any one to deny that it is a terrible thing to have the very basis of all credit at the mercy of such men as are now delivering speeches in the Senate of the United States. Doubtless many people are drawn towards socialism as an ideal, thinking perhaps more of regulating the affairs of others than of having their affairs regulated by others; but if they look at the practical working of the theory as illustrated today in our own Government, they may experience some revulsion of feeling.

## *LORDS VS. COMMONS.*

THE division in the House of Lords on September 8 closed for the present the Home-Rule episode in British politics. The majority against the bill was, of course, very large, but one of the most curious features of the crisis was the eagerness of the Gladstonians to have the adverse majority as large as possible, so as to make the Peers, as a body, a more conspicuous mark for Radical indignation. There could, in fact, hardly be a better justification of the attacks made on them than has been afforded by the debate and division on the Home-Rule Bill. Six months' work of the Commons has been nullified in two nights by men for whose opinions nobody in England cares "tuppence," and who make no pretence of understanding the question.

Some anti-Gladstonians who do not attempt to defend the competence of the Lords to pass final judgment on a measure like the Home-Rule Bill, say that in throwing it out the Lords are performing their real function under the Constitution —that is, the function of making delay and compelling the Ministry to submit the measure to the country by a dissolution. Even if they admit that the principle of home rule was approved of by the constituencies last year — which they try to avoid — they maintain that the public knew nothing of the details of the bill, which in a measure of this sort are all-important, and the Lords, therefore, in compelling the Ministers to submit the bill itself as passed by the Commons for popular approval, are doing their appointed duty. This has a very plausible sound, but its untenableness from a constitutional point of view was very fully exposed by Lord Playfair. This view of the function of the Lords assumes that the Swiss referendum has a place in the British Constitution, and that Parliament is a body not of legislators, but of delegates with a "mandate" to draft bills and submit them to the popular judgment. It would be difficult to fish out of the various amendments proposed for the British Constitution by reformers during the past hundred years, one more opposed than this is to the theory of the powers of Parliament, and of the relations of Parliament to the voters, hitherto held by all English politicians since 1688. Nothing more democratic and more democratizing, as Lord Playfair pointed out, has ever emanated even from the Tories in the days of their greatest distress. Suffice it to say that in England Parliament has for two hundred years been "omnipotent"; that no bill has ever been submitted to the people for approval after passage by the House of Commons; that it is the principle of a measure which, under the British Constitution, the voters are called on to adopt or reject, and that the embodiment of the principle in legislation has always been left to the majority in both houses.

The idea that the House of Lords has any power to compel the Ministry of the day to dissolve and go to the country, or has, in fact, anything whatever to say about dissolution, is equally novel. The one function which usage has left to the Lords since the passage of the Reform Bill is the function of imposing further consideration in the Commons by refusing to pass a bill sent up to them. The notion that besides the imposing this further consideration they could insist on the Ministers submitting a bill to the constituencies by a general election was never heard of till now, and, if adopted, would introduce one of the most startling and far reaching changes ever made in the machinery of the British Government; for, of course, nobody of ordinary intelligence can doubt that the submission of the Home-Rule Bill to the popular vote would become a precedent, and that a similar demand would be made in the case of all important measures. Thus the "mother of parliaments" would be speedily converted into a mere drafter of propositions for plébiscites, and the destruction of representative institutions which this would involve would be very rapid.

Apropos of this, Lord Rosebery, in his shrewd and amusing remarks, drew attention to the large part the Lords play in democratizing English institutions, while persuading the country squires and the old ladies that they are the great bulwarks against the assaults of democracy, and he instanced their passage of the extension of the suffrage in 1867 and of the County Councils Bill two years ago—measures to which, as levellers, the Irish Home-Rule Bill cannot even approach. No Irish Parliament could hold a candle to the London County Council alone as an engine for the upheaval of the ancient Constitution of the realm in Church and State. It is not as yet quite in working order, but when it is, it must, as the concentration of the hopes and fears, greed and illusions, of 5,000,000 of the most powerful bit of the English democracy, speedily make Mr. Gladstone himself seem "a stern and unbending Tory."

Lord Herschel met the constitutional objections to the passage of the bill with unanswerable force. There was nothing finer in Chatham than his turning on the Opposition, when they cheered his statement that the majority in Ireland was "disloyal." "Ah, you cheer that," he said in substance, "you are pleased with it, proud of it—pleased that, after ninety years of your rule, the majority of a community at your own doors detest it, and would fain be rid of it." It was a happy catch, of which he made brilliant use. Lord Rosebery was equally fortunate in his retort to Lord Muskerry, one of that deplorable class, the Irish "representative Peers," who go about the world abusing and deriding the majority of their countrymen, and yet, though discussing Irish affairs as Irishmen, have little more connection with the Irish people than with the Bretons, and just as little authority to speak in their behalf. "Lord Muskerry," said Lord Rosebery, "says he knows all about Ireland, but what does Ireland know about Lord Muskerry?" These two remarks, few words as they contain, go almost to the heart of the Irish question.

## THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION—VIII.

### BOTANY—MINERALOGY—GEOLOGY.

CHICAGO, September, 1893.

THE Forestry Building at Jackson Park contains much that appeals to the scientific botanist as well as to the economist or commercial man. In the matter of woods it is probable that a wholly unrivalled collection of woods of the world might be gathered from the exhibits in the various State and national buildings, together with those in the division of Forestry. Apart from their botanic and economic interest, these specimens appeal strongly to the æsthetic sense. No natural product can exceed in intrinsic beauty some of the fine slabs cut from burls of redwood, maple, walnut, and the like, which are to be seen in the Forestry and California Buildings especially, as well as in numerous other places. Many of the sections of large trees retain a notable proportion of the dignity which characterized them on their native mountain side, and no more impressive central object could have been chosen for the Government Building than the massive Sequoian pillar which is erected there. The exhibit of living plants in the greenhouses and Horticultural Building seems somewhat disappointing, though containing much that is good. There is a grievous lack of good labels; and if there are rare and interesting plants not common to the average large greenhouse, no means have been taken to direct public attention to them. Like every assemblage of ornamental plants, the collection is attractive, but, so far as I have observed, in no way particularly distinguished.

The chief deficiency felt by every visitor to the Fair who has special interests is the lack of any general subject-catalogue or directory. The presence of so many State and national buildings, most of which contain a more or less synoptic exhibit, has resulted in the scattering of small local collections in all parts of the grounds, so that the botanist, for instance, must visit thirty buildings before he can assure himself that nothing of importance in his specialty remains unseen, and even then unexpected discoveries are constantly being made. A few countries or States have adopted the plan of posting, with each division of their exhibits, an announcement as to where all the other divisions are located. If this plan had been generally followed, and a small handbook with a subject-index prepared from the posters, for visitors, much good would have been done and many disappointments avoided.

Systematic botany is poorly represented outside of the Government bureaus and experiment stations. In the Woman's Building a few dried plants are shown, and small herbaria compose part of several State exhibits. A few fossil plants may be found in the collection shown by the United States Geological Survey, and I noticed some, unlabelled, in the miscellaneous collection contained in the Costa Rica Building. To descend to the more humble forms, of which so much has been said of late, edible and poisonous fungi are exhibited by the Division of Microscopy, Agricultural Department, and a large series of cultures of bacteria by the Bureau of Animal Industry and the Marine Hospital Service. These are well displayed and attract much attention. The illustrations of the vertical or zonal distribution of plant and animal life made by the Division of Ornithology and Mammalology, Agricultural Department, are instructive and interesting, and the same may be said of the exhibit of the Division of Vegetable Pathology, in which the fungoid diseases of plants, their nature, area of distribution, and remedy, are fully exemplified.

In the present Exposition for the first time the mining industries have been recognized as a group of the first importance by the devotion to their uses of one of the principal buildings. This recognition is sufficiently just, not only because the group is a natural one, but on account of the great prominence it attains in the United States, the first mining country in the world. That it has been duly appreciated is obvious from the excellent manner in which the exhibits have been classified and labelled, and the ingenious devices which have been adopted by many of the exhibitors to illustrate their respective industries.

Many of the State buildings contain collections illustrating their mineral resources and geology, but the most satisfactory display is made by those who exhibit in the Mining Building. A few notes on the more striking features of these localized collections may be of use to the visitor. Arizona displays a remarkable series of azurites and other copper ores, and fine sections of agatized wood. Her material is well labelled and neatly arranged. In the Colorado collection specimens of crystallized gold are particularly noteworthy. The Mexican exhibit is poorly labelled. It contains attractive specimens of rose garnet from Xalostoc, beautiful in color and unusual in size. Montana has a fine display of ores and the notorious silver statue, which has more artistic merit than one would have expected from a production represented as making a pile of buzzard dollars equal in weight to the same number of gold double-eagles. In the collection from Utah the display of Gilsonite asphalt is worth attention. Among the riches of California are displayed semi-transparent sheets of the so-called "onyx" marble, of exquisite beauty, a delicate gray infiltration resulting in the most tender landscape effects, like the melting mists of Japanese artists. They come from San Luis Obispo County, and are not equalled by any of the other exhibits of this material which I have examined. South Dakota shows some beautiful agatized wood, phosphate of uranium in particularly pretty crystals, and fine calcite crystals from the Black Hills. Some handsome red freestone and quartzites appear among the building stones. The Harney Peak tin mines are in evidence by large masses of ore, though for some occult reason the owners of these mines go on spending fabulous sums upon them without producing anything very remarkable in the way of tin.

Missouri has a noteworthy collection of zinc ores, as well as the metallic product, illustrated by an excellent relief map of the State. The State Geological Survey coöperates with an excellent synoptic collection well arranged and labelled. From Michigan, as one would expect, comes a grand series of iron and copper minerals. Specimens of a green serpentine from Ishpeming are handsome, but the rock seems too faulty to prove of commercial importance in decorative work. The exhibit of British Columbia is noticeable for its excellent system and clear labelling. Brazil, on the other hand, offers the most complete illustration imaginable of how not to do it. She has a large, well-situated space, plenty of case room, and an extensive and, apparently, well selected and neatly trimmed series of minerals. These must have cost great labor and much time to prepare. They are put in trays with badly written Portuguese labels, *the labels under the specimens*, where they cannot possibly be read even by those who might understand them. The cases are dusty and forlorn; the time and expense devoted to this exhibit have been almost absolutely wasted for want of a little common sense.

Canada offers an excellent, well-displayed collection, in which the apatite minerals, micas and asbestos are especially fine and the gold noteworthy. New South Wales has an admirably systematic exhibit of her mineral resources, presented in the best manner. Ohio has a neat and well-arranged display, and the New York exhibit by the State Museum is very creditable in contents, arrangement, and labelling. Kentucky has a good exhibit with a creditable relief-map of the State. West Virginia has a really grand display of coal, coke, and mineral oils, well labelled. The exhibit of Pennsylvania is admirable and illustrated by many excellent relief-maps.

The use of the relief-map is becoming very general as a self-explanatory guide to the character of the country represented, and one notes with pleasure the gradual abandonment of the exaggerated vertical scale which gave rise to so many false ideas. The most satisfactory maps of the Exposition are those in which the vertical scale is to the horizontal as not more than three or four to one, and the few old-style maps which appear among the many give, in comparison, the impression of caricatures. Other means of illustrating the geology of mining operations and the ramifications of mines are shown by various devices. In one form the excavations are represented by solid bars of wood of small size built up upon one another like a puzzle, and supported by strips of a different color. The most ingenious method observed consists in recording in color, on separate thin sheets of glass, the position of the excavations in the section the particular sheet refers to; and also indicating on each the surface contour of the ground. These sheets are placed side by side in a frame, and the view obtained by looking through them impresses one as the most satisfactory way of grasping the scheme of subterranean works which has yet been invented. In the Michigan exhibit the Cleveland Cliffs Iron Mining Company

gives an instructive geological section of one of its mines, in which the native materials proper to the separate strata are used, and the timbering of the excavations is shown in miniature. A very suggestive exhibit is a monument, about thirty feet high, composed of different mineral substances in cubes, the larger below, with a gradual diminution upward, designed to portray the average amount of each particular mineral mined in each second of time during the year in the United States. The size of the cubes depends upon calculations made from records of the mineral product collected by the United States Geological Survey, and presumably refers to the latest figures.

Considering the Exposition as a whole, the most prominent feature in which it differs from that of 1876, in this department, apart from mass of material and style of presentation, is in the superior utilization of decorative minerals. The agatized woods of the West are now sliced into thin sections of varied color and sometimes of remarkable beauty, to be utilized in ways which twenty years ago would have been quite impracticable. The travertine marble, or "Mexican onyx," has become an important decorative material; and as no two pieces are alike, it offers a constant and agreeable variety. A very pretty form of this mineral, cloudy-white with rosy veins, is shown in the gallery from newly opened mines in Lower California. The variety from California has been already mentioned, and the best-known form, from Mexico, combines the most delicate cloudy greens and browns with translucent white. The excessively hard quartzite or jasper rock, of varied reds and browns, is now cut into polished columns suited to the most luxurious interior decoration. The increase in the facilities for working hard materials may be noted in every cemetery, where granite is rapidly supplanting the softer marbles and sandstones formerly almost universal.

In the department of Geology, properly speaking, the Fair is not especially rich. Several of the State surveys make creditable exhibits, among which New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Missouri are noteworthy. In the Government Building the United States Geological Survey shows a representative series of rocks and fossils of the United States, a restoration of the skeleton of *Dinoceras*, and an important series of relief-maps, illustrations, photographs, and transparencies of geological scenery. A collection from the mines of Alaska, which is unfortunately obscured by its position in the gallery where very few visitors go, would probably repay more study than it is likely to receive. In the department of crystalline minerals and gems, the National Museum makes a small but typical display, with the addition of series illustrative of vulcanology, glacial phenomena, and the features associated with the limestone caverns which are so extensively distributed in the United States.

One of the most interesting exhibits to the average visitor is that of the De Beers Diamond Mining Company of South Africa. A large quantity of the diamantiferous rock has been brought to the Exposition, and daily a portion of it is crushed, washed, and worked over, while in the same division of the building a number of Tiffany's diamond-cutters are at work on the rough gems, of which a fine series is shown. In this connection it may be mentioned that the Tiffany exhibit in the Liberal Arts Building contains a number of fine specimens of precious and semi-precious stones, in various conditions, including both the rough and the fully cut gems. These are well worth examination. With them is Col. Hamlin's celebrated necklace of cut tourmalines, lent for the occasion, and to our mind a far more beautiful and desirable object than the large yellow diamond which may be seen close by, and which has become the property of a Chicago magnate, at the cost of a small fortune. The Hamlin tourmalines are nearly all derived from New England, near the town of Paris, Maine, and embrace nearly every tint which that beautiful and variable gem assumes. The carefully cut and beautifully set stones which compose the necklace are the gleanings of thirty years or so, and, both as gems and as American gems, they form an entirely unique collection.

Lovers of the unusual may be interested to know that in the building devoted to the State of Washington is the largest single block of coal ever mined, if the claims of its owners be correct. It is to be regretted that its quality is not as exceptional as its size, as it belongs to the group of semilignitic bituminous coals so widely distributed west of the Rocky Mountains. W. H. D.

## THE HOME-RULE BILL.

LONDON, September 2, 1893.

THE Government of Ireland Bill was introduced by Mr. Gladstone into the House of Commons on the 13th of February amid wintry frosts and fogs. It was with us through a lovely spring, as the trees burst forth into leaf and the rhododendrons gladdened our eyes in the parks. It was with us throughout an all too glorious summer; and now the curtain falls on the last act of the drama while autumn is in the air and skies, and dead leaves are thick under foot in Kensington Gardens. The third reading was passed this morning by a majority of 34, and the bill was at once committed to the House of Lords, where it will be rejected next week by an overwhelming majority.

To dwell here on the details of the measure would be needless and inappropriate. It is an honest effort to separate, as to government in Ireland, what is exclusively Irish from what appertains to the Empire—relegating the former to legislative assemblies in Ireland, chosen by the Irish people, retaining the latter under the immediate control of the Imperial Parliament. Regarding both internal and external affairs there are many restrictions which are to a certain extent galling, evincing as they do a want of confidence in the Irish people. These have, however, been frankly accepted by the Irish members, nor would the Irish people desire to transgress the assigned limits. Their action will, it is believed, belie the necessity for such restrictions, which, indeed, must be regarded more as a politic concession to Conservative prejudice and opposition than as an indication of mistrust on the part of Mr. Gladstone and his followers. Theoretically this new charter is sadly circumscribed compared with that of Grattan's Parliament of 1782–1800. But practically it would be far freer. The ambiguities of the relations between Great Britain and Ireland under that constitution would be now impossible. The world is smaller and compacter than it was one hundred years ago, political life is more definite, while thought has widened. The *Esto perpetua* of 1782 sank in the suspicions, bloodshed, venality, and intrigues of eighteen years later. The consummation of the establishment of a constitution such as has now been offered us by the House of Commons, might not be hailed in the dramatic spirit prevalent before the Terror had sobered Liberalism; but there is every reason to anticipate that that constitution would be what is termed enduring. By 72 of the 103 Irish members it has been formally accepted as a closing of the strife of 700 years. From nine others, the Redmondite wing, the assent has been less complete.

Regarding general principles and structure the bill comes out unimpaired. A few immaterial amendments proposed by the Opposition were accepted. By the Government itself extensive alterations were made on three points. The rights of the present civil service in Ireland, upon being relegated to an Irish Government, to continuance in office or to sufficient pension, were more clearly defined, established, and provided for. The "in and out"* clause was abandoned with the substitution of the continued presence of eighty Irish members in the Imperial Parliament for all purposes. Thirdly, the financial arrangements were altered. As the bill originally stood, the internal Irish taxes (in round numbers £4,500,000) were left to be collected by Ireland for her benefit, while the impost or customs taxes (some £2,250,000) were to be handed over to the Imperial Government as Ireland's contribution to Imperial charges. Under this scheme, it was estimated that Ireland would have a surplus of £500,000 over her present income. But a mistake in the calculations of the Government officials was detected: Ireland's internal revenue had been overestimated by £350,000, which would by so much diminish her anticipated surplus of £500,000. It was also seen that there would be considerable complications of accounts between the Imperial and Irish treasuries, and perhaps the determined threats in Ulster of refusing to pay taxes to an Irish exchequer had something to do with the arrangement ultimately embodied in the bill. This was that the Imperial Government should collect all general taxes relating to Ireland, calculated at £6,786,000; that it should retain one-third of this amount (£2,267,000) as Ireland's share of Imperial charges, and return the balance (£4,524,000) to Ireland, as her revenue. These calculations are based upon the revenue returns of the past four years, which show that the gross revenue of the United Kingdom has been £95,000,000, and the net for Imperial purposes £63,000,000. It will be observed how exceedingly small is Ireland's present estimated capacity to bear taxation in proportion to Great Britain's. In the matter of income tax on trades and professions, Great Britain is assessed on a return of £300,000,000, Ireland on but £9,000,000. For death-rates Great Britain is assessed on £207,000,000, Ireland on £12,000,000.

There was no fiercer contention than over these money clauses. The Government maintained they were fair. Mr. Chamberlain and his followers declared the taxpayers of Great Britain were about to be fleeced for Ireland's as well as their own destruction to the extent of fully £500,000 per annum. The Irish stated that, while prepared to buy home rule at almost any price, they considered £2,250,000 per annum as an Imperial contribution quite beyond the bounds of reason—indeed, they questioned whether, considering the past relations of the countries, a substantial annual subsidy was not due to them. They were in the end appeased by the promise of a committee to inquire into the financial relations of the coun-

*The original arrangement under which the Irish members should be retained in Parliament for Imperial, while precluded from interfering in British, affairs, has been styled the "in and out" proposal.

tries, with, moreover, after a stated period, if found necessary, a modification of the terms now proposed.

The bill has taken 82 days to pass—nearly twice as long as any previous measure, and that before the introduction of closure. The passing of the Constitution of 1782 for Ireland occupied 2 days; that of the Union, 13 days; the Reform Bill of 1832, 47 days; the Land Bill of 1881, 46 days. This Government of Ireland Bill occupied as much time as collectively the passage of the Union, the great Reform Bill, the repeal of the Corn Laws, the disestablishment of the Irish Church, and the establishment of the Dominion of Canada. There were 182 divisions, the time spent in which amounted to eight working days of eight hours each without meal hours, and in which members walked some ten miles. The more days elapsed, the bulkier grew the amendment papers. The discussion, proceeding unchecked at the same rate, would have terminated probably in time for the Christmas holidays of 1894. In Committee on the Bill there were 459 speeches favoring the measure, occupying 57 hours, and 936 speeches against it, occupying 153 hours. Upon clauses 3 and 4 alone there were put down 326 amendments.

The avowed object of the Opposition was not fairly to discuss, but, in the words of one of their own spokesmen, "to make the bill detestable." On the 10th of July the Opposition voted for the retention of 103 Irish members for Imperial purposes only. The same evening, in another division, it voted for their total exclusion. Next day the same party voted that forty should be retained for all purposes—on another division forty-eight; two days later, for the retention of the "in and out" clause and eighty members, and again for 103 Irish representatives. As was well said this morning by Mr. Morley, if, according to their convictions, it was the patriotic duty of the Opposition to obstruct, it was, according to our convictions, the patriotic duty of the Government to closure.

"In order," says the *Times*, "that our readers may better appreciate the effect of Mr. Gladstone's 'gagging' policy, we print below the text of the Government of Ireland Bill as amended in Committee, in such a fashion as to show at a glance how large a portion of the measure has been forced through without the shadow of debate. The only clauses or parts of clauses which the House of Commons has had an opportunity of discussing are those printed in italics."

The contrast presented by the seven columns which follow is, to the uninitiated, striking enough, the italics forming but a small proportion of the whole. But we must consider the relative importance of the several clauses, and the days subsequently spent on the report stage. Many minor details were unquestionably passed without debate, but the following, comprising the main principles involved, were amply discussed: the establishment of an Irish legislature; its powers, exemptions from powers, and disabilities; the Irish Executive; representation in Imperial Parliament; financial relations; status and future of judges and civil servants; the police. This is, however, only one of the many questions connected with the passage of the bill which can be much better understood by those who have heard the debates than by the outside public. It is especially one of those upon which it will be easier to prejudice than assure the electors of the United Kingdom.

So much for the manner in which the bill has been carried. The consideration of its prospects I propose postponing to another letter. Yet, before concluding, I feel impelled to quote two passages from this final debate which appear to me to go to the root of the whole controversy. One from Mr. Gladstone's speech:

"Are we, then, bound to admit that, after the seven hundred years of the British connection with Ireland, after England, during the whole of that time, has occupied a dominant, and Ireland a subsidiary position—that, after all that, with all the responsibilities of superiority upon us, the result of our treatment of Ireland is this—that we have brought her to a state in which she cannot undertake without danger and ruin the very responsibilities which, in every other country, have been found to be within the capacity of the people and to be fraught with the richest benefits to them?"

The other from Mr. Morley. Speaking of Mr. Balfour, on the opposite side of the table, and of himself, he said that both had, he believed, endeavored to regard the situation in Ireland with a "clear and steady gaze." In their diagnosis of Irish maladies there was considerable agreement. It was only when they came to remedies that they differed:

"Our disagreement can be stated in a sentence. The right honorable gentleman is for a persistence in the conditions which have produced that state of things now baffling and confounding us. I, and those with whom I have the honor to act, are in favor of a resort to those conditions, those maxims, and those principles of government which the English-speaking race have tried all over the globe, and have never tried without finding in them healing and virtue."

Mr. Morley is, of all the actors in this great drama, the one that has inspired me with feelings of the profoundest respect and admiration. He would not be human if, occupying the position he does, and burdened with its responsibilities, he had not been, as I believe he has been, to an appreciable degree "captured" by the permanent officials in Dublin Castle. But his grasp and power of exposition of great principles, his balanced fairness, his administrative ability, are beyond all praise. I can think of no instance in our time of a man who had won such a position in the serene atmosphere of literature and philosophic thought, stepping down, from overflowing desire to serve his kind, into the arena, too often alternately dusty and muddy, of politics. Men say he can never be regarded as a politician in the "highest" sense of the term. So much the worse for politics. It is said that the march of democracy will tend more and more to eliminate such men from public life. So much the worse for democracy. D. B.

## THE MEMOIRS OF GEN. BIGARRÉ.—II.

PARIS, August 30, 1893.

WE left Gen. Bigarré when, in a fit of anger with Napoleon, after Austerlitz, he asked permission to enter the service of King Joseph Bonaparte. I had first resolved to abandon him and not to follow him to Naples and Spain; but, on reading over this second part of the Memoirs, it seemed to me interesting to study the work of Napoleon and the French Revolution outside of France, and to note what were the sentiments of the peoples which had been disturbed by the French armies. I had always heard from the men whom I had known as survivors of Napoleon's time, that the French became, on the whole, popular wherever they went; but I took such declarations with many grains of allowance. The testimony of Bigarré, attached to one of Napoleon's brothers, has some value in this question of French influence outside of France, especially as he writes without any partisan spirit, and does not give himself out as the representative of the ideas of the Revolution.

Let us follow him first to Naples. He crossed the Alps, and arrived in Milan on the 10th of November, 1806. Prince Eugène Beauharnais was Viceroy, and Milan was his capital. "The Royal Guard of Italy was at least as fine as the guard of the Emperor Napoleon. The luxury of the court and of the city enriched commerce and agriculture. The Lombards regret now [this was written after the Restoration] sincerely the good time of the splendid reign of a viceroy who was always a good ruler to them." This is confirmed by all the notes, letters, and writings of Henri Beyle. Bigarré saw Joseph at Milan, who gave him a letter to carry to Pope Pio VII. At Naples he found the high nobility quite loyal to King Joseph. "This nobility, which owned all the territory of the kingdom, showed itself very devoted to the new sovereign, and inspired him with the greatest confidence; he admitted it to the head of his Cabinet, of his council, of his armies, and to all the offices of his household." By Napoleon's order, all the aides-de-camp of Joseph were French; but he had only two Frenchmen in his household. Bigarré was appointed colonel and aide-de-camp to the King; he commanded the first Neapolitan regiment of the line. His regiment was quartered at Capua; the officers belonged to the poorest families of the nobility. "It was not rare to see in a Neapolitan regiment of two battalions more than thirty married officers, who were followed from garrison to garrison by their wives and children. This life absorbed their meagre salary, and the chiefs had no scruple in robbing their companies so as to find the means to satisfy their own needs." Bigarré, who had strict notions on finance, found it very difficult to extirpate these habits.

He had to make a few expeditions against the brigands, and to take his part in a popular movement in Naples. A Marquis Palmieri had attempted to assassinate the King, and on the day of his execution a Capuchin told the people from the scaffold that Palmieri was a martyr, and promised indulgences to those who should follow his example. At the same moment, some soldiers who were around the scaffold were stabbed with poniards. Palmieri, who already had the rope round his neck, contrived to escape. He was, however, seized again, but the Capuchin was never found. Forty-two lazzaroni, taken with poniards in their hands, were summarily executed. King Joseph "wished to reign over the Neapolitans only by justice. It cost him much to be forced to employ rigorous means, but English malevolence and the perfidy of Queen Caroline were so active and sanguinary that several times he was obliged to stop the effusion of blood by sacrificing a few brigands armed for assassination." Bigarré speaks in glowing terms of the character and the intellect of Joseph; he confesses "that he had all the *galanterie* of Henri IV.; but it is not true that he ever lost in the society of the *beau sexe* a single hour claimed by the Council of State or the Cabinet."

When Joseph was made King of Spain, he ordered Bigarré to join him at Madrid, and to take, on his way, Napoleon's orders at Bayonne. The capitulation of Gen. Dupont at Baylen had forced Napoleon to take the field himself in Spain. The Emperor left Bayonne for Toulouse, where Bigarré witnessed a reception which Napoleon gave to a deputation of monks. "Irate with these monks, who passed for the instigators in Spain of the insurrection against the French, he said to them

very dryly and with an air of ill humor: '*Messieurs les moines*, if you dare to meddle with our military affairs, I promise you that I will have your ears cut off.'" Joseph Bonaparte was denounced by the priests, all over Spain, "as a sovereign without any religious principles and of bad conduct. He was represented in many caricatures with a red face, a fat body, having a bottle in each hand and a crucifix under his feet." It was Bigarré's belief that "Joseph suited very well the great masses of the cultured Spanish proprietors, but the priests saw in him a second edition of his brother Napoleon, and dreaded the system of government adopted in France."

Napoleon conducted the campaign with his usual rapidity. From Astorga, he ordered Marshal Soult to pursue the English army, under Sir John Moore, and to prevent, if possible, its embarking at Corunna. Bigarré was sent to Marshal Soult by King Joseph, and made the journey from Madrid to Astorga, with two soldiers only and his valet, at a time when all Spain was in insurrection. "I met everywhere burned villages, bodies of dead men and horses, broken carriages; not a man was seen in the villages. The English retreat was so rapid that all the luggage was abandoned on the road to Corunna. I am sure I saw at least four thousand of their horses with bobtails, which they had hamstrung." Bigarré heard at Santiago the details of the affair of Corunna and of the death of the English general. Who does not know the fine poem:

> "Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,
> As his corse to the rampart we hurried"?

Bigarré, who was in constant danger from guerillas on his way to Soult, says that he would rather have fought a battle every day than to ride as he did from Madrid to Santiago. As a volunteer on the staff of the vanguard and of Marshal Soult, he participated in the campaign in Portugal. Soult attacked the formidable line which defended Oporto, the second town of Portugal, situated on the Douro. The storming of Oporto was a terrible affair; the bridge over the Douro was the scene of a horrible carnage. Marshal Soult succeeded, by a few acts of great severity, in saving the town from pillage. He remained in Oporto forty-two days, entered into communication with the Bishop of Braga and some Portuguese of distinction, and made them understand that Napoleon did not wish to annex Portugal to Spain; Portugal was to remain independent.

"He advised them to exercise some pressure on the Emperor, so as to obtain from him the authorization to throw off the yoke of the family of Braganza; and as the Bishop of Braga, very influential in the country, saw nothing to hinder Marshal Soult from himself becoming the sovereign of this rich country, he invited Gen. Ricard to throw money to the people of Oporto, and to incite it to cry, 'Viva el Rey Nicolas.'" Soult's projects did not, however, please some of his subordinates; two colonels were even accused of being in communication with the English General, Arthur Wellesley.

One day Soult sent for Bigarré and said to him:

"I am in the most embarrassing position. I have before me twenty thousand Englishmen who are in want of nothing. A Portuguese corps of as many men is on its way to cross the Douro. Gen. Silveira, with twenty-five thousand men, is behind me; the whole Portuguese population waits only for a signal to join all these armies. I am without communication with Spain, and, if I credit the rumors in circulation, the French Army has been obliged to evacuate the Peninsula. In this state of things, not being able to remain at Oporto, I have determined to retreat to Spain."

The retreat was difficult. Soult fortunately met Marshal Ney at Luzo. At Madrid, Bigarré saw Joseph Bonaparte, who everybody believed had been killed, and resumed his duties of aide-de-camp. Marshal Victor, by his victory of Medellin, had given a new lease of power to Joseph, whom Bigarré found holding a magnificent court. He accompanied him to Andalusia, and says that "the noble Andalusians exhausted their invention to manifest their love and devotion to the new King of Spain; some sent him a dozen magnificent horses, others placed at the disposal of his Majesty their wives, their daughters, and their homes." We are obliged to think that Bigarré had but a poor knowledge of the Spanish language, and did not understand the true meaning of the expression, so commonly used, "á la disposición de Usted." He adds: "The people, quite as effusive as the clergy and the noblemen, was beside itself for joy when it gazed upon the King every moment of the day. *Il se vautrait devant lui* as soon as it saw him on horseback in the streets, or at the balcony of the palace of the Alcazar." Nevertheless, Bigarré could not help seeing a vague disquietude on the faces of the priests and the monks. They sang the "Te deum," but said with a low voice, "Paciencia."

Joseph visited Cadiz, Malaga, Granada, and, in this military promenade, he encountered everywhere the same enthusiasm. Meanwhile the guerilla war continued in all the provinces of the north. "The guerillas did more harm to the French troops than the regular armies throughout the Spanish war; it is certain that they assassinated no less than a hundred men a day. In five years they thus killed 180,000 Frenchmen without having lost more than 25,000 men, for these undisciplined bands never fought in the open field unless they were more than five to one." The guerillas attacked chiefly the soldiers who came back from the hospitals and the sick soldiers who lagged behind the columns. Joseph often felt the uncertainty of his position. One evening he had, on his uniform, his hat, his sword, his orders, at least eight millions' worth of diamonds. "You see all this?" said he to Bigarré. "Well, I would willingly abandon it, leave this fine palace and all its treasures, to go and live at Morfontaine as a French prince, with my wife and children, rather than be a King of Spain without independence."

Independence was the dream of Joseph; he meant by it independence of his brother Napoleon. The Emperor was willing to give crowns to his brothers, but he never ceased to treat them as subordinates, as his lieutenants; their armies were to be his armies, their treasury his treasury. The correspondence of Napoleon is extremely instructive on this point. On the whole, Napoleon was right: Joseph, Louis, were nothing without him; they were mere satellites; their power could not survive his power. They were but *figurants* in the great drama in which Napoleon was the supreme actor. Posterity will care less for them than for the marshals who surrounded the Emperor, who fought with him a hundred battles, and were to him what the *preux* were to Charlemagne.

# Correspondence.

## TALLEYRAND AND RANDOLPH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On my return to England to-day, after two months' absence, I read for the first time two interesting paragraphs in the *Nation*, June 29, concerning a MS. of Talleyrand discovered among the Hamilton papers—a diplomatic opinion on the Fauchet despatch No. 10, which "certainly," says one paragraph, "makes short work with the skilfully woven but inadequate defence of Randolph made by Mr. Conway." To pronounce a defence inadequate does not prove it so, and on that score I might be content to await still some argument against my position, as I have waited five years since its publication. As, however, your justice will no doubt allow me space to plead against the summary sentence, I avail myself of the opportunity because the Fauchet-Randolph affair is invested with fresh historical interest by the Talleyrand MS., an interest likely to be increased by other documents (unpublished) discovered since the publication of my Life of Randolph.

With regard to the Talleyrand MS., the *Nation* conjectures: "If this opinion reached Washington, it is not strange that he should have cut loose from Randolph." But permit me to remind you, as Washington reminded Randolph, that it was Randolph who cut loose from the President. Let me also call your attention to a letter, cited in my chapter on "Mr. Wolcott," of July 30, 1795. It was written by Wolcott, Secretary of the Treasury, to Hamilton in New York, and proves that Hamilton was kept in ignorance of the existence of the intercepted despatch until after the explosion; consequently he could not have submitted the despatch to Talleyrand until too late for any opinion of the latter to affect the case. Another letter of Wolcott to Hamilton, of November 16, 1795, enclosed a copy of the Fauchet despatch, which was probably not in Hamilton's possession until then.

It is said in the *Nation* of Talleyrand's opinion that "there is no reason for supposing that it was biassed against Randolph." But it may be seen in my Life of Randolph (p. 233) that Talleyrand had strong grounds for animosity towards Randolph. Talleyrand had brought from London a letter of introduction to the Secretary of State (Randolph), apparently from Jay (though Jay denied having written it). Knowing that any attentions paid to Talleyrand would be offensive to France, Randolph did not honor the introduction, and by his advice the President declined to receive Talleyrand, who seems, indeed, not to have met any member of the Government in Philadelphia. A letter in the Duc de Broglie's Memoirs of Talleyrand proves his expectation of meeting the President, and the disappointment could not fail to be humiliating. He was fully informed that his exclusion was due to Randolph's advice. It was while still smarting under this humiliation that Talleyrand wrote the critique on the Minister who had been the means of that humiliation. Randolph had acted from purely public motives, and a magnanimous man would not allow any personal grievance to influence his criticism; but Talleyrand was without magnanimity; he is rightly pronounced in the *Nation* (July 6, p. 16) an adept in duplicity, coldly relentless, despicable in meanness.

According to your abstract of Talleyrand's critique on Fauchet's despatch, there are traceable in it the characteristics ascribed to him in the succeeding number of the *Nation*, just quoted. In my Life of Randolph, documentary evidence is given that Hamilton's honor was not admitted to the secret of those who in Philadelphia were hunting down Randolph. His submission of the despatch to Talleyrand suggests that he was not satisfied about the treat-

ment of Randolph (who had done Hamilton a great personal service). Unfortunately Hamilton did not understand French, and Talleyrand was able to pay off the fallen Secretary, who had humiliated him, by reading into the Fauchet despatch just what would turn a man of honor completely against Randolph. Assuming your résumé of Talleyrand's manuscript to be correct, he boldly falsifies Fauchet's despatch, making it incriminate Randolph on a point where it does not refer to Randolph at all. Talleyrand is thus summarized in the *Nation* on the point referred to: "What these confessions [of Randolph] were, Fauchet does not directly state; but he says they were of such a nature that they could not be made to Randolph's colleagues, who had a known bias for the Government and passions and interests with its chief. Is there a country on earth, says Talleyrand, where such confessions would not be regarded as a ministerial crime (*délit*) of the first order, etc." One can imagine the horror of Hamilton at this evidence of a Cabinet Minister concealing things from his colleagues because of their loyalty to his and their chief (Washington) and to the Administration in which he holds high office! But there is not the shade of a shadow of any such statement in Fauchet's despatch (which is printed verbatim in my Life of Randolph, in the original French). There is not a sentence that by any interpretation could suggest that Randolph had concealed, or was concealing, anything from his colleagues. The statement of Talleyrand is a travesty of what Fauchet says about his own colleagues in the French Embassy, of whom there were two. He explains to his Government at Paris that he had not communicated Randolph's confidences to his (Fauchet's) colleagues ("Je ne les ai point communiqués encore à mes collègues"), because of their bias, etc. Nothing is said of Randolph's colleagues, or of his or their "chief." On this pure falsification of Fauchet's despatch is based Talleyrand's only substantial charge of treachery against Randolph, and, having given credit to it, I do not wonder that the *Nation* finds it making short work with my defence of Randolph.

As for what Talleyrand says about the "overtures," alleged by Fauchet to have been made to him by Randolph, there appears nothing at all which affects my statements on that point. Granting that they were made (preposterous as the supposition seems), it is mere assumption to call them "corrupt propositions." That begs the question. They would not necessarily be any more corrupt than the overtures made by our patriotic fathers to France for money to defeat the English.

I hope, in the near future, to bring all question of Randolph, based on Fauchet's despatch, to an end, by the publication of extracts from the documents already alluded to as discovered since my 'Life of Randolph' appeared. There are other despatches of Fauchet, the most important being those intercepted along with No. 10, for which Randolph inquired so anxiously, and for which many have searched. I could not, even if prepared, deal with these documents at the close of a letter already needing your indulgence, but add my conviction that had they not been suppressed by Randolph's pursuers (who had them in Philadelphia), their whole case against him would have been quashed. Fauchet bitterly confessed his discovery that Randolph's "précieuses confessions" were all pretended.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

LONDON, August 29, 1893.

[It would require more space than we can now afford to show that we spoke advisedly.—ED. NATION.]

## THE "RUINS" OF JAMESTOWN, VA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A gentleman formerly of Dayton, Ohio, now a resident on the banks of James River, has become the owner of the site of James City, the first port in English North America. With commendable energy he has built a new steamboat wharf, improved the old Ambler plantation house, and given the old graveyard to an Antiquarian Society. Last month a newspaper writer possessing the peculiar gift of Capt. John Smith of seeing what no one else ever saw, reported that there had recently been discovered several long and narrow brick passageways under the earth, supposed to be used by the early colonists as hiding-places from the Indians. The manager of improvements at Jamestown, contradicting this Munchausen story in the Virginia *Gazette*, printed at Williamsburg, writes: "Let us have the truth regarding Jamestown and nothing but the truth."

The truth is, there are no ruins of old Jamestown visible. The ruins seen by the traveller as he ascends the James River are of a fortification that was above the town. An old earthen fort in the town was demolished more than two hundred years ago. Francis Moryson (also written Morrison), as agent for Virginia in the days of Gov. Berkeley, went to England and applied for aid to build a fort, but was unsuccessful. After the attack by Dutch ships-of-war an association was formed and a contract made with Drummond and Howe to build a defence. On the 27th of May, 1673, in consequence of a complaint made to the General Court, the contractors mentioned that they had brought bricks to the site, but had not commenced the work. Clayton, the Rector of Jamestown, as late as 1686 refers to the new defences in a letter to Robert Boyle, the philosopher. He writes that "they have built a silly sort of fort, that is a brick wall in the shape of a half moon, that seems little better than to shoot wild ducks or geese."

Additions were made by Gov. Andros; and James Blair, who, after Clayton's return to England, became Rector, and whose name is inseparably associated with the founding of William and Mary College in 1697, wrote that the fortifications were above the town. His words alluding to Andros were:

"He has thrown away a great deal of money in raising an old fort at Jamestown, and in building a powder-house, and in making a platform for great guns. I never heard one man that pretended to understand anything of fortifications, that upon sight of these works did not ridicule or condemn them as good for nothing, but to spend money. The guns are so placed that they are no defence of the town, which, *being much lower in the river*, might be taken by the enemy's shipping without receiving the least assistance."

EDWARD D. NEILL.

ST. PAUL, MINN., September 4, 1893.

## NILE CORVÉE AND EGYPTIAN PRISONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On July 16, the *Pall Mall Gazette* published an interview with Sir C. Scott-Moncrieff, in reference to that question of the Nile *corvée* which was discussed in the *Nation* of April 21 and November 17 of last year. It challenged me to show that this forced, unfed, and unpaid labor existed, at any rate in a form which was in any sense a hardship. "Mr. Cope Whitehouse claims that we have in no wise abolished the *corvée;* but he will find it hard to get round Sir Colin Moncrieff's evidence." To this I responded that I had no intention of trying to "get round" the statement of the former Under-Secretary of State for Public Works in Egypt, and said, quoting verbatim the summary given by Sir C. Scott-Moncrieff:

"It is absolutely false to say that, 'distinct from the *corvée* and entirely independent of it, there obtains in Egypt a system of voluntary State labor, organized entirely by the villagers themselves, who do their work ungrudgingly and in a patriotic spirit'; the whole subject is regulated by the Khedivial decree of August 6, 1885, passed on the demand of Sir C. Scott-Moncrieff himself."

Now, could there be more conclusive proof of the shameless effrontery and impudent falsehood of the assertion that the Nile *corvée* is a form of voluntary and patriotic service, gladly rendered in true fraternal spirit, than the following quotations from the English organ in Cairo, the *Egyptian Gazette*, August 16, 1893?

"The *corvée* labor for watching the Nile banks was called out yesterday." "We hear that the prisons are now full again. An additional strain on the resources of the prisons has been furnished *in former years* by the men who are sentenced to imprisonment for refusing to conform to the regulations in force for providing labor for watching the Nile banks. These men have been sent in, *from fifty to one hundred at a time*, to the Mooderiyeh [provincial] prisons. Provision for the contravention cases [misdemeanors] in connection with the *corvée* will have to be made this year independently of the Mooderiyeh prisons, which are incapable of accommodating *the extra numbers resulting from this cause.*"

As the result of my efforts, payment of half wages (10 cents a day) is to be made in two districts. Let no one be deceived. Out of one hundred thousand "free" inhabitants of Egypt compelled to work for three months, not two thousand will get any wages at all. Apply this text to a score of other pretended reforms, and the value of an Englishman's evidence as to what he claims to have done in Egypt will be treated with the scorn it deserves. England wishes to be deceived, *decipiatur;* but that does not apply to America.

COPE WHITEHOUSE.

LONDON, September 4, 1893.

# Notes.

FORDS, HOWARD & HULBERT will shortly issue 'The Pilgrim in Old England: Being a Review of the History, Present Condition, and Outlook of the Independent (Congregational) Churches in England,' by the Rev. Amory H. Bradford, D.D.

'The Speeches and Addresses of William McKinley' is in the press of D. Appleton & Co., who announce also 'The Gilded Man (El Dorado), and Other Pictures of the Spanish Occupancy of America,' by A. F. Bandelier; 'General Johnston,' by Robert M. Hughes, in the "Great Commanders" series; 'The Personal Recollections of Werner von Siemens'; 'The Brontë Family in Ireland,' by Dr. William Wright; 'The Development of Mind in the Child,' by Prof. W. Preyer, of Jena; 'The Credentials of Science the Warrant of Faith,' by Prof. Josiah P. Cooke; 'Miniatures from Balzac's Masterpieces,' selected by F. T. Hill and S. P. Griffin; and 'Duffels,' a new story by Edward Eggleston.

Pegasus in harness is perhaps too violent a metaphor, but a delicate talent engaged upon

piece-work—that is the impression one receives from the dainty little volume, called 'Picture and Text,' in which the Harpers have reprinted some half-dozen short essays by Henry James. With two exceptions, they are strictly of the obligato sort—magazine articles on artists, intended as accompaniments to a selection of their works or to an engraved portrait, an introduction to the catalogue of a special exhibition, etc. It has never been Mr. James's method to say bluntly what he thinks, and here we have again the leisurely circumlocution, the unfinished hints at meanings, the maze of parentheses, the pretty choice of words, that mark the master's technic. The danger of this habit of writing around a subject—of the art of not saying it—to the writer himself is obvious. How far it may lead him even from grammar is shown in a remarkable sentence on page 49, where, in the labyrinth of clauses, Mr. James absolutely forgets that his subject is "the eighteenth century," and couples with it the verb "are."

'Clear Round' (London: S. Low, Marston & Co.), by E. A. Gordon, consists apparently of letters written by a mother to her children during a journey around the world. They are marred by the constant endeavor to enforce some religious truth in connection with the descriptions of strange scenes. The information, too, is sometimes very queer. For instance, writing of the muskrat, Mrs. Gordon says: "Chicago, on the south of Lake Michigan, means the 'city of the skunk,' and there the rats are so powerful that they have tunnelled through the marble wainscots and floors of the City Hall" (p. 33). The water of Lake Superior is "so intensely cold that if a ship founders the passengers have little chance of life, for they are instantly benumbed" (p. 28). The "firewater" with which the Americans have "killed off thousands" of Indians, is a "mixture of rum, tobacco, vitriol, and bluestone" (p. 37). The chief advantage of the projected railway from Winnipeg to Hudson Bay is that by this route it is "fifteen thousand miles nearer Liverpool than by New York" (p. 54). Grizzly and cinnamon "bears' forelegs being shorter than their hind, they escape pursuit by turning somersaults down hill and rolling themselves into a ball" (p. 81). The account of Japan, though not so entertaining as that of this country, is well written, and offers many attractive pictures of out-of-door life in that land. The chapters on China, India, and Egypt tell an old story and will hardly awaken much interest. There are a few fair illustrations, and an inserted map of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

'Round the Black Man's Garden' (Edinburgh: W. Blackwood & Sons), by Zélie Colvile, F.R.G.S., is a bright, chatty account of an unusual journey. Starting from Suez, this lady went as far as Zanzibar in coasting steamers which touched at various ports in Asia and Africa. Suakin was being besieged by Osman Digna, and this made the two or three days' stay there somewhat exciting. From Zanzibar Mrs. Colvile sailed to the east coast of Madagascar and crossed the island by way of the capital. The description of this part of the journey forms by far the most interesting chapter of the book. The peculiar scenery, the methods of travelling, the paths, the natives, are delineated with great vivacity, as is also a strange ceremony in the palace, the Feast of the Bath, during which the Queen is supposed to bathe in the presence of her people. Mrs. Colvile lays much stress on the peculiar mixture of civilization and barbarity among the Hovas, the ruling race in Madagascar. When she gets upon the more familiar ground of Kimberley and Pretoria, the interest of her narrative naturally slackens, but it revives again when she reaches the west coast of the continent. Here she visited some of the most interesting ports, going as far south as the Gaboon River. As was to be expected, her account, especially of Liberia, contains little that is encouraging, so far as the negroes are concerned. There is an excellent route-map and one of Central Madagascar.

The Librairies-Imprimeries Réunies (Paris) have brought out another volume of Victor Hugo's 'Toute la Lyre,' not a very happy title. Happily this is the last of the series, though by no means, it is to be feared, the last of the posthumous volumes, the poet's literary executors having apparently resolved to publish every line of Hugo's manuscript they can find. There is nothing in the present volume that adds to our knowledge of Hugo as a man or that presents him in any new aspect as a poet. There is not even anything equal to some of the second-best pieces in 'Les Contemplations'; and since nothing will be added to the poet's fame by the verses here collected, their publication can be accounted for only by the mania which Brunetière has named "la fureur de l'inédit."

The publishing house of Charpentier started, two or three years ago, a series of novels intended to be so absolutely pure that they might be read even by young girls. Some very charming volumes have appeared in this series, and its success has apparently stirred rival publishers to emulation. It is now thought desirable to have a home literature which shall rival the rich literature of England—if possible. The "if" is significant, as the perusal of 'Cœur Fermé,' by C. Troussart, in Armand Colin & Cie.'s collection for young unmarried women, will prove. It is the ordinary French novel of married life toned down so far that the heroine is actually pure and entertains merely a platonic affection for another gentleman than her husband. But scenes and incidents are much the same as in the ordinary romance of the day, and the morality of the book is not easily discernible. Possibly it lurks somewhere, deftly concealed by art.

A "History of Elections in the American Colonies" is contributed to the Columbia College series of studies by Mr. Cortlandt F. Bishop. The subject is sufficiently technical, but Mr. Bishop has collected many details which have color as well as significance for the student of our political development.

The study of the Basque language has not yet obtained recognition at any of the universities either abroad or on this continent. Some scholars have taken it up in connection with other linguistic work; very few have given it concentrated or continuous attention. One of these few is Mr. E. S. Dodgson, who has recently published at Alençon a small pamphlet, 'The Basque Verb Found and Defined.' The whole work, of which this is but a small portion—another portion appeared in the *Revue de Linguistique* for 1890 and 1891—is a concordance of the forms of the Basque verb occurring in the New Testament of Jean de Leiçarraga, printed at La Rochelle in 1571. The present pamphlet confines itself to the three Epistles of St. John. Other portions will follow as Mr. Dodgson proceeds with his work. The citations from the text are accompanied by the corresponding words of Calvin's French version of 1565, on which Leiçarraga based his translation. The great complexity of the verb in Basque makes it, in a way, the open-sesame to the language. Mr. Dodgson's work, when completed, will be of no little value to the Basque student.

In the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for September, first number of the second volume, the most notable paper is President Walker's Phi Beta Kappa address of June last, on College Athletics. It takes what we may call a soldier's view of the advantages of the peculiar physical and moral discipline of our college sports, while curiously belittling the college ideals of Gen. Walker's own generation which fought with him in the civil war. These men are generally held to have acquitted themselves pretty well without the aid of tournaments and "records," and it is not just to say that with them "speech-making, debating, or fine writing were [was] the be-all and the end-all of college training." Their object in going to college was the cultivation of the intellect, primarily for its own sake, and this is still the noblest excuse for the existence of colleges. Such an aim was not due to the "transcendentalism" or "sentimentalism" of this or the preceding century, but was the wholesome unbroken tradition from the beginning of our colleges. It is athletics which have reversed the natural order of things, so that, by Gen. Walker's own confession, "it will soon be fairly a question whether the letters B.A. in the college degree stand more for Bachelor of Arts or for Bachelor of Athletics." Gen. Walker points out two evils to be abolished: organized cheering, and the further pursuit of athletics (*i. e.*, of "glory") by members of the professional schools.

The Henry M. Phillips prize of $500 will be awarded by the American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia in 1895 to essays handed in before January 1, 1895, on the following subjects: (1) The sources, formation, and development of what is generally designated the Common Law of England; (2) the theory of the State, treated historically and upon principles, with a discussion of the various schools of classical, mediæval, and modern thought upon the subject; (3) the historical and doctrinal relations of the Roman law and the English law, illustrated by parallels and contrasts. The essays must be sent, with motto and sealed envelope containing the writer's name, to Frederick Fraley, President of the Society, at No. 104 South Fifth Street, Philadelphia. They may be written in English, French, German, Dutch, Italian, Spanish, or Latin; but an English translation must be appended to the foreign writing.

—Virginia and half of the States in the Union combined show no more cities of over 20,000 inhabitants than are to be found in Massachusetts. This fact is not readily apparent from the census bulletins thus far issued, as in none of them are cities having a less population than 25,000 ranged according to their populational rank. The fact is also so surprising that few persons will believe it without proof. But there is no place at all with so many inhabitants as 20,000 in nine States, viz., Vermont, Florida, Mississippi, Nevada, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, North Dakota, and South Dakota. Nine States again have each no more than one town numbering over 20,000 people. Those States are New Hampshire, Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Oregon. Four other States, viz., Maine, Nebraska, Colorado, and Washington, count each only two cities that have passed the 20,000 limit. These three classes of States amount to twenty-two, that is, to half the whole number of the United States, and seventeen is the total of their cities

with each a census upwards of 20,000. Twenty such cities, however, are in the roll of Massachusetts. These are Boston, Worcester, Lowell, Fall River, Cambridge, Lynn, Lawrence, Springfield, New Bedford, Somerville, Holyoke, Salem, Chelsea, Haverhill, Brockton, Taunton, Gloucester, Newton, Malden, Fitchburg. Three cities of this size, and no more, appear in the census of Virginia, viz., Richmond, Norfolk, and Petersburg.

—This comparison is too suggestive to need any remark concerning the strange distribution of our people, and the modern trend to urban residence, preëminently in manufacturing, free, commercial States and those long settled. It is further worth notice that the twenty cities just mentioned in Massachusetts are a larger number than can be discovered in any other State, though five States have a larger census. While the population of Massachusetts is three-fourths of a million less than half that of New York, her cities of the 20,000 class are more by two; those in Pennsylvania are only sixteen, those in Ohio ten, in Illinois seven, in Missouri four. Bulletin No. 116, in which cities are set down according to population, stops at No. 124, La Crosse, the smallest over 25,000. If continued to the smallest over 20,000, like that of 1880, it would have enabled us to compare the growth of the decade much more easily. To know the *relative* size of cities is most important. Every town likes to think itself equal to its superiors and superior to its equals, and no vulgar error is more rife. The most effectual cure for such "thinking of ourselves more highly than we ought to think," is to ascertain how many towns in the country are larger than our own, and what town is next smaller and next larger than that.

—The Training School for Nurses in Kyoto, Japan, is one of the best enterprises instituted and maintained by the American missionaries. Its seventh annual report has lately reached us, and we see at once that the work has passed beyond the stage of experiment. The text of thirty pages is reinforced by nine full-page reproductions of photographs showing the grounds, edifices, floor plans, the front page of the *Doshisha Hospital Messenger*, and, in one group, the Committee, staff, pupils, and employees. The veteran medical missionary of nearly twenty years of service, and profound student of Buddhism, John C. Berry, is in charge, but the best work in training the Japanese women is done by Miss Eliza Talcott. Abandoning the old and visionary idea of quickly converting the Japanese nation *en masse*, the purpose is now to thoroughly transform the individual. In the hospital connected with the Doshisha University patients are treated (and the medical and surgical statistics are here given); but, besides the influence that may be exerted upon them while in the wards, the various alumni of nurses and nursed are kept in unity of purpose (*doshisha*) by the *Hospital Messenger*. This newspaper is devoted to hygiene, practical nursing in the home, hospital news, religious instruction, temperance, whereabouts of the nurses, etc. Candidates for the School of Nurses must be at least twenty-two years of age, measured by Western style, which means from the day of birth, and not from January 1, or New Year's day. After a month of probation and examination in the fundamentals of a plain education, the candidate, if quick in perception and careful in observation, is matriculated. The curriculum is one that satisfies very rigid requirements. The students take solemnly a modified form of the Hippocratic oath. Of the thirty-six graduates of the school, some have married or died, but twenty-six are still active nurses, unable to supply fully the demand for their services. A study of the twenty or more faces of the young women in the present classes, arrayed in their snowy caps, aprons, and dresses, is very suggestive, and helps to confirm the almost impregnable optimism of those who have been educationally connected with the Japanese. A class of ten was graduated in June. The hospital treated over a thousand more cases than in the previous year. We notice that except two missionary clergymen on the Advisory Committee, and two American ladies, all the members of the staff, employees, and committee, are Japanese, among whom are several graduates of American universities. Besides the voluntary work of the nurses in district and village evangelization, it is becoming a feature of some of the native Christian churches to employ a district nurse as part of the organized work of the congregation in practical religion.

—The question of an elevated stage in the early Greek theatre cannot be considered settled by the completed report of the excavations at Megalopolis which have lately appeared in an elaborately illustrated quarto. This theatre is interesting for various reasons, and particularly because it was supposed to afford evidence of a fourth-century stage, elevated four or five feet above the level of the orchestra. No remains of such a stage are found; but its existence, or at least the use of a temporary wooden platform, was inferred from the architectural conditions. Mr. Ernest Gardner still adheres to this opinion, but his coadjutor, Mr. Loring, adds a final note in which he declares that the technical evidence for a fourth-century stage derived from marks of tooling in the various structures of the building, does not seem to him so conclusive as he had supposed when he signed the report. Since, therefore, the two experts who are most familiar with the technical evidence disagree, the matter remains *sub lite*. A curious exception is found in the later proscenium at Megalopolis (which the excavators have called the "proscenium of Vitruvius") to the ordinary rule in Greek theatres. The proscenium here has no central door, no exit upon the orchestra, and is the solitary instance known in which this deficiency occurs. Dr. Dörpfeld has hitherto maintained that the central door in the proscenium clearly served as an exit for the actors upon the level of the orchestra, and that the object of the proscenium wall was therefore simply as a scenic background, not, as Mr. Haigh and many others suppose, to support an elevated stage. The English excavators point to the proscenium at Megalopolis as an important exception, tending to show that Vitruvius was correct in his surprising statement that the Greek stage, or λογεῖον, was not less than ten or twelve feet high.

—A small pamphlet by Mr. Edward Capps of the Chicago University gives a very clear résumé of the many opinions which have been advanced in connection with the Greek stage, and discusses a new interpretation which Mr. Louis Dyer has lately given to this much vexed passage of Vitruvius. Mr. Dyer quotes the commentary of Fra Giocondo, a Florentine architect, writing about the year 1500 A. D., and deduces from his diagrams and from the language of the Roman architect the conclusion that Vitruvius conceived of the Greek theatre as having a long narrow proscenium or masked front, from the centre of which projected a narrow movable platform for actors (the pulpitum, or λογεῖον), to which he wrongly gave the same height as the proscenium. Such a platform of a moderate height has been suggested by many scholars, and would be a convenient solution of a perplexing problem. Mr. Capps holds, however, that Mr. Dyer's understanding of Giocondo is strained and improbable, and one cannot help agreeing with him in this belief. Mr. Capps concludes that there is no other way of understanding Vitruvius than as meaning what Mr. Haigh and most scholars have actually taken him to mean, viz., that the Greek stage was ten or twelve feet high, and consequently that the actors performed on a perilous ledge, varying from six to twelve feet in width. Mr. Capps dares to call this "a discreditable blunder." From so irreverent an accusation Vitruvius may, perhaps, shield himself behind the proscenium at Megalopolis.

## A TEXT-BOOK OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

*English History for American Readers.* By Thomas Wentworth Higginson, author of 'Young Folks' History of the United States,' and Edward Channing, Assistant Professor of History in Harvard University. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

Mr. John Fiske has already contributed no little towards making the general public understand the significance for universal history of the great political experiment in which this country is engaged; and it is as an attempt to propegate another great idea—the continuity of English and American history—that the book which has just appeared from Col. Higginson and Prof. Channing calls most loudly for our attention. The authors justly remark in their preface that since "it is not the practice of American readers, old or young, to give to English history more than a very limited portion of their hours of study," "such readers will use their time to the best advantage if they devote it mainly to those events in English annals which have had the most direct influence on the history and institutions of our own land." Accordingly they "have boldly ventured to modify in their narrative the accustomed scale of proportion." They have done wisely. We may go further and add that the very fact that they are not themselves Englishmen gives them a certain aloofness, a certain independence in their view of recent events, such as those who are connected with either of the great English political parties find it hard to maintain. The book may therefore be of value to Englishmen, as well as to Americans, as expressing the opinion of intelligent outsiders. The gift is here given them of seeing themselves as others see them—for instance, in regard to the Irish Land Laws.

Excellent, however, as the work is in conception, one could wish that the execution had been such as to arouse more enthusiasm. One could wish that the style were more vigorous: that there were more glow, more movement, more consecutive interest in the pages. As the elimination of the unimportant has gone so far, one could wish that it had gone further—that no fact had been mentioned simply because it was important, unless the context showed *why* it was important. Yet the merits of the work are so considerable, the reputation of its authors so high, the mechanical execution of the book, and especially the illustrations, so attractive, that it is certain to be widely used. Not that it is quite evident for whom it is intended. The preface speaks of "readers old or young"; and there are occasional reflections above the youthful mind,

But the scanty space given to the explanation of principles, and the simplicity of the language, which occasionally even condescends to the phraseology of the nursery, lead one to conclude that, like the earlier work of one of its authors, it is addressed to "young folks." It would, indeed, be a pity if it should prevent the use among those at all capable of benefiting by them of either Gardiner's 'Student's History' or Green's 'Short History.' The first of these is the thoughtful journeywork of a man who, in his own period, the seventeenth century, is a really great historian; the second is at any rate literature. Neither contains much that the intelligent young man about to enter college ought to find unintelligible; and he will have no difficulty himself in adapting what he finds there to the needs of an American.

This history, however, of Messrs. Higginson and Channing will doubtless find its way into the hands of thousands of young folks; and as that is so, and the publisher will certainly be bringing out further editions, it will be well to call the attention of the authors to a number of blemishes which in an ordinary school-book one would pass over without notice. And first—to get over the most distasteful part of the task—concerning a certain number of mistakes in unessential matters of fact. "The head"—we must understand the *ecclesiastical* head, for the sovereign is *the* head—"the head of the Church of England" has not "ever since" Augustine's time "had a palace" at Canterbury (p. 16); his palace is at Lambeth. If the Conqueror "inscribed the names of the Norman knights who fought" at Hastings "*on*" Battle Abbey (p. 25), that is a fact quite unknown to Mr. Freeman. To state that Edward I. "confirmed the charters" at Ghent "with the additional promise that he would not *lay a tax* without the common consent of the nation" (p. 54), makes the King concede more than he did, and ignores the distinction which Dr. Stubbs has dwelt on between the language of the real *Confirmatio* and that of the document known as *De tallagio non concedendo*. It is inacurate to say that "the English navy has been powerful and famous ever since" Henry V. (p. 81), and inconsistent with the truer statement (p. 132) that at the time of the Armada "England had nothing properly to be called a navy." Cranmer was not appointed archbishop of Canterbury after Warham "resigned" (p. 104), but upon Warham's death. "Six statutes, called the Six Acts, passed in 1539" (p. 108) instead of the "act of the Six Articles"—already corrected in the index—should not be allowed to remain in the text. Rogers, one of the Marian martyrs, was not a bishop (p. 117), but a canon of St. Paul's.

Then there are a few passages which, defensible in themselves, are pretty sure to lead the average young reader astray. The first would perhaps hardly matter. In telling the story of Alfred and the cakes our authors say:

"She said to him, according to an old ballad—

> 'There, don't you see the cakes on fire!
> Then wherefore turn them not,'" etc. (p. 18).

The youthful mind will be apt to think that these are the actual words of an old ballad, while, as a matter of fact, they are Mr. Freeman's own verse translation of a Latin distich which he conjectures to be based upon a ballad. He will be a clever boy, also, who understands the statement that each gild "took full charge of all goods made by its members" (p. 75) in a correct sense. Sadly mistaken would the reader be who drew from the words "Nor would Elizabeth consent to the marriage of the clergy" (p. 123) the natural conclusion that during her reign it was not allowed. "Parliament still has the substantial control of Canada in its own hands, and by merely passing an act can any day alter this whole arrangement," *i. e.*, the present self-government (p. 299), is true in much the same sense as it would be to say that the Electoral College could exercise freedom in choosing a President, or that the Queen could employ her power of veto. And, to fall back once more on trifles, to describe army purchase as "the system of allowing officers to choose their own rank by purchasing a commission" (p. 320) will call up the picture of ensigns leaping into majorities, and lieutenants suddenly becoming colonels; and the miserable system was not quite so bad as that.

From these we pass to a number of statements which are perfectly clear in themselves, and for which some sort of ground can be shown, but which we may not be without hope that the authors will see their way to modify on further consideration. As before, we will take them in the order in which they occur, without regard to their relative importance. That the ancient "Britons were good farmers and raised large crops of grain" (p. 4) would seem, to put it moderately, a somewhat too general statement, when we remember the contrast which Cæsar expressly draws between the inhabitants of "the maritime part" and the rest of the population. We must not quarrel with the statement that, when the English tribes settled down, "the affairs of the township were arranged at a meeting of the male freeholders" (p. 13), for that delightfully simple view of constitutional and social antiquities has of late become the accepted creed of the text-book writers, and still occupies the field; but we may criticise the further statement that, "after Christianity was introduced, this 'town-moot' or 'town-meeting' *took charge of* the religious affairs too, and did this under the name of 'parish'" (p. 14). Probably the township area became for ecclesiastical purposes the parish, but it is not till very long "after Christianity was introduced" that there is any evidence of the town-meeting "taking charge" of "religious affairs." To lay down that "at first the freemen had a right to attend the meetings of the Witenagemot" (p. 15), though loyal to Freeman, is in the teeth of Stubbs, in whose judgment most scholars certainly now acquiesce. Then, the balance-of-trade idea seems a little antedated (p. 74), and the distinction between the earlier and later Middle Ages in that respect not sufficiently borne in mind.

"Henry IV. was really a usurper, and ruled *merely* as being the King elected by Parliament" (p. 77), and "the Duke of York's right to the English crown was better than that of the reigning king" (p. 84), are surprisingly Legitimist utterances, and will puzzle the young folks who have duly perpended the dictum that, by the manner of Richard the Second's fall, "it was established that the nation might depose the King if it wished" (p. 72). The evils of "maintenance" and "livery," closely connected as they were, should not be absolutely identified with one another (as on p. 78). The account given (p. 85) of the significance of the restriction in the reign of Henry VI. of the right of suffrage to forty-shilling freeholders follows Green with fidelity; but it might be well to reconsider it in the light of Stubbs's discussion of the point. The explanation of Puritanism (p. 125) dwells only on the Vestiarian Controversy, and hardly brings into sufficient prominence the question of church government. From the reference to the "disregarding" of the Petition of Right (p. 157), and the use of the word "tax" without explanation (p. 154), we gather that our authors have failed to follow Mr. Gardiner's argument as to the adroit but scarcely justifiable contention of the parliamentary opposition concerning tunnage and poundage. The Resolution of 1629 as to religion our authors limit to a declaration against the introducers of "new ceremonies" (p. 157), and of course the sturdy common sense of American young folks will sympathize with the opposition; but the persons actually condemned were "whosoever shall bring in *innovation* in religion, or by favour seek to extend or introduce Popery or *Arminianism* or other *opinions* disagreeing from the true and orthodox church," and no narrative approaches completeness which does not explain the extent to which the church movement which the Puritans opposed was, with all its faults, a movement towards greater intellectual freedom. The second word italicized may be especially commended to the attention of Methodist readers.

Two paragraphs which need more than a word of criticism we have kept to the last. To state the characteristics of the reign of Elizabeth is a crucial test for an historian, and Messrs. Higginson and Channing have not been notably successful. The passage runs:

> "Elizabeth gave to England a long period of comparative peace, at a time when *great inventions and discoveries were coming into common use*, and while England's *commercial rivals were engaged in the most destructive of all wars*, those for religion. . . . This period of growth also enabled England to take that *lead in commerce* and the arts of peace *which she has ever since maintained*. Elizabeth's reign, too, is renowned as the time of Shakespeare and the other writers of the Golden Age of English literature. *More important, perhaps, than the progress in these various directions* [*i. e.*, including literature] *were the reforms in the administration* of the Government" (p. 121).

One would like to know what the "great inventions" were. Can gunpowder and the printing-press be meant? If so, the chronology is somewhat at fault. The implied contrast between war and commerce is current with modern radicals; but, as Mr. Seeley has shown, it is historically untrue. In Elizabeth's time Spain, indeed, suffered, but France soon recovered; and it was to the wars of religion, which enabled it to conquer the Portuguese East Indies, that Holland owed in great measure its commercial greatness. That England did not "take and retain" a lead in commerce is sufficiently proved by Adam Smith's celebrated observation with regard to the position of the Dutch at the date of the Navigation Act. And it would be interesting to hear what were the reforms in the administration that can be compared for importance with the glorious new birth of English literature.

The other sentences to which we referred are among the last in the book, and occur in a paragraph wherein the authors are laboring, very properly, no doubt, to impress upon their young readers that while England ought to be *most* interesting to Americans, other countries ought to be interesting also:

> "At present our commerce is chiefly with England, and it is the English influence which is most strongly felt in our social habits and, to some extent, in our literature. On the other hand, *we draw* our art from France and *our science from Germany almost as completely as if England did not exist*." (P. 326.)

Is not this protesting a trifle too much? Putting on one side the strong feeling of union between the great religious bodies on this side of the water and the other; putting on one side

also the community of law, which is so great that in the Harvard Law School more regard is paid to English decisions than to those of any American States but Massachusetts and New York—and both these the authors would perchance put under "social habits"—what is to be said of the sentence as to science? Of course, it is sufficiently true to make as an after-dinner remark; every one knows how our would-be professors troop off to Germany. But to teach it in print to young folks in the age of Darwin and Spencer, of Lyell and Mill, of Huxley and Kelvin—not to mention such popularizers as Prof. Drummond with his worshipping audiences—shows hardly that perfectly balanced judgment which we have a right to look for.

But these criticisms have been concerned with more or less remediable matters of detail. With the general teaching of the book but little fault can be found. If it shows no remarkable freshness; or depth of philosophical insight, it at any rate presents the current Whig view in an unobjectionable form. James I. and Charles I., Strafford and Laud, are of course held up for the detestation of young folks in the usual way. It does not seem to have occurred to our authors that although, with the growth of an opulent middle class, a contest between Parliament and the monarchy was bound to come, although it was well that Parliament should triumph in the end, although the contest was embittered by the duplicity of Charles, nevertheless it would hardly have been well for England had the Opposition triumphed in 1629; that the subsequent history of Cromwell and the Independents shows defects in the government of Parliament and the Presbyterians almost as grave as in Tudor rule; that it was not until well-nigh a century had passed that the Cabinet was evolved and Parliament became capable of ruling. That this was a case in which, as so often in history, both parties were justified in struggling for a principle, and that the result was the better because of the struggle, is an idea which does not seem to have dawned upon them. And perhaps it is hopeless to expect the short text-book ever to be absolutely impartial and scientific. For impartiality means carefully guarded sentences; and carefully guarded sentences are not wont to be brief.

## THE EMPIRE OF THE TSARS.

*The Empire of the Tsars and the Russians.* By Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu. Translated from the third French edition, with annotations by Zenaïde A. Ragozin. Part I. The Country and its Inhabitants. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

It is unnecessary for us, at this late day, to enter into a detailed discussion of the merits of M. Leroy-Beaulieu's great work, especially as we reviewed it adequately when it first appeared. We need only repeat here that it is the most extended, and, at the same time, the most satisfactory, of all the serious efforts made by foreigners to explain the phenomena of Russian life, politics, and character. Hitherto the great bulk of the book has deterred publishers from issuing a translation in English, and its valuable contents have, accordingly, remained inaccessible to the general public. It is somewhat surprising that it should have been thus neglected, when so many inaccurate and trivial works on the subject have flowed in a stream from the press, even when we consider that Mackenzie Wallace's capital volumes have, in a certain measure, filled the gap. But M. Leroy-Beaulieu's work is, in many respects, superior to Wallace's, though it does not supersede it; each is the complement of the other. Having thus stated broadly its merits, and assuming more intimate knowledge on the part of those who are acquainted with the original, it remains for us to consider this annotated translation of the first volume, which treats of the country and its inhabitants, and the author's preface to the American edition.

It is worth while to quote one or two of the author's remarks from his preface, as they bear upon the methods employed in the translation. He says:

"One thing I cannot too much impress upon my readers, and that is that we are not justified, we Westerners, in applying to Russia the same rules as to Europe or America. To do this would be the height of ignorance and unfairness. . . . Russia is neither Europe nor Asia, she is a world by itself [*sic*], situated between Europe and Asia, and, in a way, belonging to both. . . . Even tourists, as, with their habitual presumptuous flippancy, they steam by express across the Russian plains, are struck by this anomaly. . . . However remote this ponderous Russian people may appear to us, however backward its civilization and its institutions may seem to us, this newcomer among nations has already manifested an original genius in all branches of human activity—in arts, in science, in letters. . . . Let us, then, whether we call ourselves Neo-Latins or Anglo-Saxons, beware of the inane race-pride which is too often aired by the Teuton on the Elbe and the Vistula, towards the Slav. The Slav has by no means had his final say—indeed, he has scarcely yet lisped his first words. Because he is different from us, and because nature and history have retarded his development, we are not to pronounce him doomed to everlasting inferiority. Such presumption may bring its own punishment. To show us that he has in him the stuff that goes to make a great people, all the Russian Slav needs is a chance and a couple of centuries' credit."

In these remarks M. Leroy-Beaulieu shows his usual discrimination and judgment, which have kept him from useless details in the body of his work, and which hint at the necessity for fulness of explanation and illustration to enable non-Russians to comprehend the unwonted situations and strange people. It is a great pity, therefore, that the translator of what will probably be the only issue of this important work, did not grasp the author's spirit. She confesses frankly that she has abridged the book throughout—"persistent compression," she terms it. In many cases, the result is a lack of clearness, if not absolute obscurity, a lack of precisely the delicate little touches the value of which the author so well understands, in bringing out the salient points of his pictures for those who come utterly uninformed to the subject. It is difficult to quote these often intricate cases, but, in the line of important and apt illustrations which have been omitted, we may point to that which shows the necessity for the study of racial, national character, on p. 138. The omissions are made to allow of space for the annotations. The question arises, Are the annotations, taken as a whole, equal in value to what they replace? It is, no doubt, very interesting to read the comments of an intelligent Russian on the author, but some of the notes are superfluous. Others are very good, such as that on p. 152, controverting one of the author's very rare errors on ventilation; those on pp. 70, 136, concerning German compulsion in the Baltic Provinces, and religious tolerance; that on p. 100, which contains an enlightening statement of Russian beliefs and hopes; and that on p. 249, setting forth why Russia's severance from Europe, at a critical period, which threw it back for centuries, was really a blessing instead of a curse, as is usually assumed. The appendices are generally of value, especially those on pp. 13, 237, which deal with N. Danilevsky's book, 'Russia and Europe.' While conceding the worth and interest of the translator's notes, we must think that it would have been better to give the whole of the text. The bulky volume, which is already much larger than the French, would not have been overweighted thereby. The addition of four maps, not contained in the original, must be heartily commended as a very valuable aid to study such as this book merits.

Of the translation in a technical sense, there is much to be said, both good and bad. The language is fluent, varied, the rendering is free, yet rarely too free. But there are marks of haste or carelessness, such as, p. 48, "the region round Odessa, before it bore the name of New Russia, received from its Serbian colonists that of New Siberia" (meaning Serbia). On p. 42, China is represented as striving "to wrest from the Russian colonists the possession of Siberia." To the heedless omission of the word "Eastern" before Siberia is due the serious misrepresentation of this sentence. Likewise, on p. 48: "These small Oriental colonies, some of them scarcely inferior in the matter of agriculture, have given their first impulse to the navy and to commerce." Had the missing words, "in the South," been added at the end of the phrase, it would not have seemed, as it now does, falsely, to apply to the whole empire. There are occasional very misleading errors of translation, such as naming the willow tree, which is not conspicuous among the notable trees of northern Russia, in place of the alder, as correctly stated by the author; the enormous alder trees being a distinctive feature in the landscape and of great value for certain uses. Again, the translator falls into the curious mistake of saying that the peasants' "staple food consists of rye bread *broken into* the *shtshi*," instead of "black bread, porridge [*gruau*], and *shtshi*." Her comments on food in general, and *shtshi* in particular, justify this quotation of her carelessness. "The child suffers from the difficulty of breathing the air" represents exactly the opposite of the author's meaning—taking out-door exercise.

But the most serious defect of the translation, and one which will be avoided, it is to be hoped, in the remaining volumes, is that arising from insufficient familiarity with the English language. Granted that it is a feat of which any foreigner may well be proud, to have translated such a book even so creditably as this, we have still a right to demand that a standard work should not fail in precisely the points where this is weak, both for the sake of preserving the purity of the language, and for the sake of conveying clearly the author's thoughts. The faults are of several sorts. We begin by specifying wrongly used or imperfectly rendered words: "precipitous race," for precipitate; "primeval," for primary; "platitude," for level; "co-temporary," "parallelly," "confining" for adjoining; "activate," for accelerate; "acception," for acceptation; "sectators," for sectarians; the "social status of Europe," for the "social condition of Europe; "impersonation," for personification; "scrofula is habitual," instead of frequent. A certain class of grammatical faults is illustrated by the following sentences: "To these free institutions the State substituted"; "Mr. Pobiedonostseff advises to adopt": "make out a difference"; "in proportion with"; "without sacrificing the ones to the others." Another class of grammatical

faults, which obscure the sense, arises from the fact that Russians are never able to master thoroughly the different past tenses of the English verb, no matter with what fluency and accuracy they may use the language in other respects. The present tenses also seem to be difficult: "Goes steadily decreasing," "a landholder was saying [said] to me," "serfdom was established as everywhere else it vanished" (when it was vanishing). "Russia was seen only through Poland, and was mostly known only from the pictures drawn by her adversaries" throws the date of the statement into the distant, completed past. *Has been seen, has been known* restore the sense to the ear and the mind. "Nihilism, which has made [made] so much noise from 1878 to 1883," offers another specimen of this Russian peculiarity. The Russian verb offers no assistance in such cases, but the French corresponds so nearly to the English form that there should have been no difficulty in this instance. The best illustration of the effect is given in the following sentence, p. 407:

"If literature in Russia has got very near to the people, it [has] too often approached it with preconceived views, seeking in it what it was determined to find. Some [have] fancied that they could discover in the hidden depths of the popular mind latent forces which they [have] opposed to the barrenness of the vaunted cultured of the upper classes; others, more scornful or more superficial, could [have been able to] see in the people's soul nothing but darkness and barbarism."

Passing lightly over the improper use of the undignified word "don't," and the interpolation on p. 11 of Alexander III.'s reputed remark, we come to a point which is likely to cause grave difficulty to all readers who are not already very well posted—as very few, comparatively, can be—on the history and nomenclature of Slavic lands and peoples. At times the translator gives the English equivalents, at times she converts the French form into the purely Russian term, or she uses different forms at different times, which is still more confusing. Sometimes the Christian name Feodor appears thus, sometimes as Theodor. Liefland is given for the name of the country, Livs for the people. Uniformity would have required either Livonia, Livs, or the full Russian, Liflyándiya, Liflyándetz. Lithuania and an inhabitant thereof would appear as Litvá, Litóvetz; Esthonia and an inhabitant as Estlyándia, Estónetz, if they are to correspond with even the compromise "Liefland." In any case, whichever form is once chosen should be strictly adhered to throughout. Mme. Ragozin furnishes the Russian forms Arkhangelsk, Kalmyk, but translates the French of Crimea and Caucasus, and changes Nice to Nizza. In the matter of Russian words equal confusion reigns as to the English and Russian plurals, both occurring at times in the same sentence: *Mujiki, mujiks; boyars*, and *drujinniki*, etc.

It is well that M. Leroy-Beaulieu's valuable book is, at last, to be put within the reach of English-speaking people, but it is a great pity that the translation, in many respects not only admirable but elegant, should not have been better. It is to be hoped that, in the two volumes which follow, a competent reviser will be employed.

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*The History of Music.* By J. F. Rowbotham. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Some years ago Mr. Rowbotham (whose 'Private Life of the Great Composers' was recently reviewed in these columns) issued a book in three volumes which he called 'A History of Music.' We have now a new edition of a shorter work on the same subject, to which he has given the title of 'The History of Music.' This title is utterly misleading; it should be 'An Introduction to Musical History,' or 'A Prehistoric Sketch of Music,' for it leaves off—without a word of apology or explanation—where music, as the word is understood to-day, really begins, namely, with the mediæval Arabians and the troubadours. Of the real art of European music, from Palestrina and Bach to Brahms, not a word is said! To call such a book 'The History of Music' is obviously a case of commercial immorality, for it may lead students to get what they do not want, in place of some complete sketch of musical history, like those of Langhans, Fillmore, Rockstro, Ritter, Riemann, Naumann, or the older German authorities.

Apart from this objection, there is much to be said in favor of the book. Unlike the German historians, Mr. Rowbotham does not begin his story with a few Greek legends about the origin of music, but goes back to savage peoples for the earliest traces of the art. He has carefully searched the volumes of anthropologists and ethnologic travellers, gathering from them many curious and suggestive bits of information as to the first manifestations of the musical instinct. Nor has he stopped at the compilation of facts, but he has endeavored to classify them under a theory which has much in its favor. According to this theory there are three stages in the development of prehistoric instrumental music—the drum stage, the pipe stage, and the lyre stage. The drum is capable of giving expression to the earliest of the musical elements—rhythm; the next element, melody, finds utterance through flute-like instruments, while the possibilities of harmony are provided by the lyre. The drum seems to us the simplest possible instrument, yet it is the result of thousands of years of experimenting, and the man who first thought of covering a hollowed-out log with a skin was in his way as great a genius in instrumentation as was Wagner when he invented new instruments to get clang-tints which he craved in his "Tristan" and "Nibelung" scores. It seems odd that by primitive peoples the simple, noisy drum should be used to express their joy and grief; but there are other and much more perfect instruments towards which our emotional attitude has changed with the progress of music. To us, for instance, a solo flute is the very incarnation of dry monotony and lack of expression, whereas the much less perfect pipes and flutes of antiquity moved their hearers to tears and deeds of extravagance in love and heroism. The Peruvians had a regular love-language for the flute, and among the ancient civilized nations, too, the flute had such effect on the feelings that Plato thought no modest woman should hear the Lydian pipe, and that flutes should be banished from the republic. As far as solo flutes are concerned, this is a consummation to be wished in our republic too, but on different grounds.

Of the music of the ancient Egyptians, Greeks, Hebrews, Romans, and of early Christian music, Mr. Rowbotham gives clear and concise accounts, with numerous details not usually found in manuals. Especially interesting is the chapter on the Chinese, in which is prominently brought out the odd fact that Chinese music is less concerned with sequences of notes, or melodies, than with the different qualities of sound, or what we chiefly have in mind when we speak of instrumentation. According to their system, there are eight musical sounds in nature, the sounds of skin, of stone, metal, baked earth, silk, wood, bamboo, gourd; and of these materials the various musical instruments are constructed. The sensuous element thus predominates in Chinese music. After quoting a famous Chinese piece, which to us seems a mere technical exercise, the author comments:

"To judge of the effect of such a piece as this, it is not sufficient to read the notes as they are written here; we must imagine the rich mellow tones of the musical stones, that are softer and sweeter than any gong or silver bell; we must try and fancy these strange notes dealt out like a shower of feathers—flakes of sound falling on the ear, so beautiful that musical notes disappear in the sensuous swell."

Usually, however, this "sensuous swell" of Chinese music—as exemplified in San Francisco—is more suggestive of a boiler factory than of "flakes of sound."

Mr. Rowbotham's theory as to the origin of the pentatonic scale is not convincing, and another criticism to be made is that he gives too much space to the complex Greek system of music, the learning of which is practically a waste of time, as there is no Greek music worth mentioning extant to-day. The same must be said about the minute details regarding the development of notation, Byzantine, Armenian, and otherwise. No one but a specialist has any use for such things, and a specialist would not be apt to consult a compilation of other men's labors. The trouble with Mr. Rowbotham is that he likes to air his erudition. For instance, one of his tricks is to give, after certain expressions, their equivalent in Greek, Latin, or German, in brackets; not, as Schopenhauer occasionally does, when the language he writes in fails to give his meaning to a shade of accuracy, but merely to impress the reader with his linguistic accomplishments. This same tendency has obviously led him to treat by preference those parts of musical history which are most technical, obscure, and uninteresting. Yet he has succeeded in providing students with a clear and readable summary; his style is usually excellent, and in some places, as when he describes the dismal chants and lugubrious musical antics preceding the expected end of the world in the year 1000, and the carnival of merriment, parody, and excess which followed the exposure of the sham prophecies, he even succeeds in giving a dramatic interest to his pages.

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*Sur Goethe:* Études critiques de littérature allemande. Par J.-J. Weiss. Avec une préface de Francisque Sarcey. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

The title-page of this volume is calculated to excite high anticipations. A collection of essays upon Goethe by so eminent a Frenchman as the late M. Weiss, with a preface, too, by M. Sarcey, suggests large possibilities of delight. It is therefore a little disappointing to learn that M. Sarcey's preface is a very slight affair, interesting chiefly for its author's guileless admission that he is unacquainted with the language of "our neighbors beyond the Rhine," and knows nothing of their literature or philosophy except from translations. He is, however, confident that Mr. Weiss knew all about those things and was just the man to treat of them. The soundness of this opinion we do not presume to dispute, though we could have wished for fresher evidence on the subject than the studies here presented, all of which are ancient history. We have, in the first place, a reprint of the doctoral dissertation submitted by Weiss to the Paris Faculty of Letters, in 1856. It is

upon 'Hermann und Dorothea.' One can read it with some pleasure, for it is cleverly written, but only a partial friend would claim for it any special merit either as scholarship or as criticism. It is a *causerie* about this and that, and abounds in rhetorical flights which have a strange sound in a doctor's dissertation. M. Sarcey praises it for its style, and says that it created a revolution in the Faculty of Letters. The dissertations of that day, we are told, were all of the heavy, erudite type, monuments of patience, industry, and—dulness. But Weiss came along and astonished the doctors with a thesis written in a light and incisive style and "sparkling with new views." M. Sarcey singles out for admiration the following passage, which we must give in the original, since the style is in question. The author is speaking a good word for "the love that leads to marriage":

"Il [l'amour] naît," says he, "par un élan irrésistible; il ne croit qu'à un seul être sur la terre; en lui seul il place le bonheur; hors de lui, il ne voit que des joies décolorées; il a ses alternatives d'espoir infini et d'angoisses, de confiance et de doute; des tourments se mêlent à ses joies; il est tout ensemble inquiet, résolu, timide, exigeant, puisque enfin c'est l'amour. Mais comme il se développe en des âmes actives, nourries jusque-là de sentiments sains et dès longtemps habituées à n'aimer que ce qui est bon, à ne regarder comme désirable que ce qui est légitime et possible, on n'a pas à craindre qu'il s'égare et use la vie en transports inutiles. La raison le tempère sans l'affaiblir; elle le guide sans le dépouiller de son charme de liberté juvénile; elle lui communique je ne sais quoi de fort, par quoi il saura se contenir lui-même et au besoin se vaincre."

"Is not this entire commentary exquisite? And how it explains the love of Hermann for Dorothea," exclaims M. Sarcey. For our part, we should think that the love of Hermann for Dorothea is in no need of such a commentary. We surmise that the author of it was not so much intent upon interpreting Goethe honestly as upon lecturing certain of his own countrymen, who were manifesting a strong literary *penchant* for the kind of love that does not lead to marriage. As a counterblast to 'Mademoiselle de Maupin' the passage may be well enough—we will even let M. Sarcey call it "exquisite"—but not as a comment upon 'Hermann und Dorothea.'

The second essay is a reprint of a review, published in 1855, of a so-called "new translation of 'Dichtung und Wahrheit,' by the Baroness de Carlowitz. It is a good review of a worthless book. Two sentences are worth quoting, as showing the general view of Goethe's character at which Weiss had arrived, at a time when such views were much less common than they are now:

"It is thus that before the formal witness of Goethe's Memoirs and before the still more incontestable witness of his correspondence, all those accusations of egoism and of proud insensibility that have been directed against him, fall to the ground. His works as a whole, the more they are studied, will permit no further doubt of the morality of his genius."

The remaining essays, excepting half-a-dozen pages on the interview between Goethe and the first Napoleon, and a short letter dealing with the history of Werther literature in France, do not concern Goethe, but are miscellaneous reviews of German books published in the fifties. The longest and best—the introduction is a really brilliant piece of writing—is an elaborate critique of Freytag's "Soll und Haben."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bennett, Prof. C. W. History of the Philosophy of Pedagogics. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.
Blackman, R. D. A Dictionary of Foreign Phrases and Classical Quotations. 11th ed. London: C. W. Deacon & Co.; New York: Putnams.
Botsford, Prof. G. W. The Development of the Athenian Constitution. [Cornell Studies in Classical Philology.] Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.60.
Brontë, Emily and Anne. Wuthering Heights, and Agnes Grey. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Coryell, J. R. Diccon the Bold: A Story of the Days of Columbus. Putnams.
Daell, Prof. A. N. van. An Introduction to the French Language. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Ford, W. C. The Writings of George Washington. Vol. XIV. 1798-1799. Putnams. $5.
French, H. W. Oscar Peterson. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Grand, Sarah. Ideala. Appletons. $1.
Herron, Prof. G. D. The New Redemption. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
James, Henry. Essays in London and Elsewhere. Harpers. $1.25.
Knight, G. H. Patent-Office Manual. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $5.
Macguire, Cathae. Amabel. Rand, McNally & Co. 75 cents.
Norman, J. H. A Ready Reckoner of the World's Foreign and Colonial Exchanges. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Putnams.
Ober, F. A. In the Wake of Columbus. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $2.50.
Poore, G. V. Essays on Rural Hygiene. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Rein, Prof. W. Outlines of Pedagogics. London: Sonnenschein; Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.25.
Rocheblave, S. Les Cochin. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: *L'Art*; New York: Macmillan.
Snider, D. J. Dante's Inferno: A Commentary. Chicago: Sigma Publishing Co.
The Memories of Dean Hole. New ed. Macmillan, $2.25.
Tristram, W. O. Coaching Days and Coaching Ways. New ed. Macmillan. $2.
Troussart, C. Cœur Fermé. Paris; Armand Colin & Cie.
Waldstein, Charles. The Work of John Ruskin. Harpers. $1.
Walford, L. B. The One Good Guest. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Walker, Prof. Williston. The Creeds and Platforms of Congregationalism. Scribners. $3.50.
Welcker, Adair. Flavia. Berkeley, Cal.: The Author.
Wheatley, H. B. The Diary of Samuel Pepys. Vol. II. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Wheeler, Mrs. Candace. Household Art. [The Distaff Series.] Harpers. $1.
Wiggin, Mrs. Kate D. The Kindergarten. [The Distaff Series.] Harpers. $1.
Wood, Rev. James. Dictionary of Quotations. F. Warne & Co. $2.50.
Wright, M. R. Heat. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.


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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 28, 1893.*

## The Week.

TRADE and industry in the complicated conditions of modern life exist by and through confidence—confidence in institutions, and confidence in the standard of value. Both are shaken by the spectacle which the Senate exhibits to-day. Republican institutions cannot be carried on except by the rule of the majority. No man is far-seeing enough to foretell the future form of government of the United States. The only safe prediction is, that there can be no Union without the rule of the majority, and that under any suspension or impairment of that rule the country must dissolve into its original constituent parts. We say this not because the Silver Bill is the immediate subject of discussion, but because the same result must come to pass whenever the majority principle is broken down. If we have reached the point in our national existence where the obstruction of a minority cannot be overcome, then patriotic citizens must drop all other concerns and lay aside all other differences until the rule of the majority is reëstablished. This was what they did when Abraham Lincoln was first elected President. It was not to abolish slavery that the people took up arms in 1861—that was only an incident. It was to vindicate and enforce the rule of the majority. It was seen then, as it must be seen now, that the rule of the minority is revolution, anarchy, chaos, and that no price is too great to be paid for putting it down.

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The truth is, that the Senate is in a state of revolution. It may need a counter-revolution to put the country once more in the path of progress. The framers of the Government supposed that they had established a going concern. We all so supposed. It has turned out differently. The wheels have stopped. If the Senate would simply reject the bill that the House has passed, we should know where we stand. An issue would then be made, parties could take their stand upon it, new parties could be formed if there were need, and we could go to work, American-fashion, to elect new Senators enough to execute the people's will. We are all ready to submit to that will when it is fairly and squarely expressed. But the case before us is quite different. It is a case where the getting of a majority does not accomplish the end. We have the majority now, but it cannot or will not work. It is in this that the revolution consists. The form of government that the fathers established has ceased to be.

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There is strong probability, from the movement of the foreign exchange market, that we shall send back to Europe a considerable part of the recently imported gold. Stock-market prices are yielding on the prospect of such exports, and a tone of something like discouragement is perceptible in general trade. A large part of the summer's specie imports represented borrowed money. These loans, chiefly made to us in London, were made on short time, and now they are maturing. In sending back the gold, it is true, we are doing only what the Bank of England did in 1890, when the $15,000,000 gold borrowed during the Baring crisis from the Bank of France was returned, a few months later, in the very kegs in which it came. The anxiety with which our present exports are regarded is not due, moreover, to our inability to spare the money. Here in this city, bank reserves exceed the legal minimum by upwards of $17,000,000, and a large proportion of this surplus is available in gold. But the movement is none the less a bitter disappointment and an ominous sign, in that it signifies continued distrust of our finances by the foreign capitalists. The cause of this distrust is perfectly well known. It is a natural sequel to Europe's attitude toward us for two years past. Had both houses of Congress acted promptly in sweeping from our statute-books the cause of this year's monetary troubles, confidence would have been restored in Europe as in this country. Foreign money would have sought investment here, notably in the profitable loan market. The gold that we have imported would have stayed here. But the delays, the threatenings, and the defiant filibustering of a minority of the Senate have filled the foreign mind with the suspicion that the controlling forces in the Government are still unsound on the currency question. Therefore the foreign capitalists refuse to lend or invest their money here, and are already both calling in the loans made and selling the securities bought during the stress of panic. This is what the rise in foreign exchange signifies, and the disquiet with which it is regarded in the financial community is not unreasonable. Moreover, unless the Senate stops the farce very soon, the present unfavorable symptoms are certain to be aggravated and intensified.

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The speech of Senator Gray of Delaware on the Silver-Repeal Bill is one of the best examples of true debating power that have been given in either branch of Congress during the discussion. He answered in a masterly way the argument, or assertion, that there is not gold enough to do the business of the world, showing that the progress of civilization calls for less gold instead of more, its use as a standard being the main thing, while its use as a circulating medium grows relatively less as banking facilities and other media of exchange increase and multiply. While Mr. Gray was elucidating this point, Senator Hoar interrupted him to quote a manager of one of the largest New York banks as having settled transactions to the amount of $35,000,000 in one week, which balanced each other so nearly that thirty-eight cents paid the difference. The mental attitude of the civilized world towards gold and silver was another thing to which Mr. Gray gave his attention, showing that the preference for gold was beyond the control or influence of legislation. The wages question was also admirably handled by Mr. Gray.

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While Senator Gray was speaking, Senator Daniel of Virginia interrupted him with the following questions:

"Will the Senator allow me to ask him why it makes such a tremendous convulsion of business when a few million dollars of gold go from this side to England to settle the balance, or a few million come back? If money volume is not needed, why is it that the transfer of a few million dollars of gold from one side of the water to the other throws one continent or the other into a convulsion?"

Because it doesn't! Who has heard of any convulsion in Europe consequent upon the transfer of $45,000,000 of gold to this country in the months of July and August, nearly all having come within a period of four weeks? Cast your glance backward, Mr. Daniel, to the year 1891, and you will find an exportation of gold from this country to the great amount of $70,223,494, all within a period of six months, and no convulsion at all. Go back a little further, to May, 1888, and you will find an exportation of gold continuing till July, 1889, amounting to $61,435,989, without any convulsion. Going back still further, to 1880 and 1881, you will find net gold imports of $77,119,371 in the former year and $97,466,127 in the latter, without any convulsion in Europe in consequence thereof. In fact, the only case in late years where a large gold movement was accompanied by a convulsion was that which began in this country in the early months of the present year. In this case the gold movement was a part of the convulsion. Both were caused by the apprehension that we were nearing the single silver standard, and they will come again if that apprehension returns.

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It is something more than a question of political consistency which ex-Speaker Reed raises when he appears in the rôle of a filibuster. One must go back of his own famous rules of three years ago against filibustering, to the basis upon which those rules were made to rest by Mr. Reed and his party colleagues. This was, that filibustering was an immoral thing *per se*, and that it was only because the Democrats were wicked men that rules had to be devised for

restraining them from doing what no good man would ever do, rules or no rules. Republicans had before indulged in merely obstructionist tactics, it was true, but they had become convinced of the error of their ways and would never do so again. Who does not recall the pious roll of the eyes with which McKinley, as leader of his party on the floor, said that he and his fellow-Republicans were heartily ashamed of ever having filibustered, and were ready to take a solemn vow that they would never incur such guilt again? The Reed rules were thus entitled to rank with the general rules of morality. They were not at all designed to whip through partisan measures, but only to recognize the sacred right of the majority to do business, and to brand as he deserved to be branded any man who should thereafter be base enough to make a dilatory motion in Congress, such as the ex-Speaker and his followers made by the dozen in the past week, like so many wicked Democrats.

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Mr. Reed's display of pique and indignation was directly caused by the demonstration that the majority could have its way without lodging autocratic and dangerous power in the hands of the Speaker. That his way was the only way to enable Congress to do business has been his somewhat tiresome parable for three years. The Democrats would have to come to it, he has maintained, or they would find their hands completely tied. But it has now been shown how effective an entirely different method can be made when the Committee on Rules, backed up by a majority of the House, are empowered to fix the order of business and the time for taking a vote. Mr. Reed's plan, it must be admitted, remains the only one known by which laws can be passed without a quorum present, and by which the Speaker can "count" into the House at Washington a member who is physically in Baltimore. That distinction he can still boast to be his uniquely; but he can no longer assert, in the face of a demonstration to the contrary, that the majority can find no other way than his to make their will law.

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The close, last week, of the "hearings" given to the protected manufacturers by the Committee on Ways and Means at Washington, ends for the present one of the most curious features of the protective system as we have practised it. These "hearings" have been a regular part of the Congressional business for twenty-five years. As a basis of legislation, they were as odd as anything in the history of governments. They virtually consisted of applications for grants from the public Treasury to assist private individuals in carrying on business which, on their own showing, was not profitable. No test of the accuracy of their figures was ever applied. They were not even examined under oath, nor were they required to prove that the unprofitableness of their business was not due to bad management, or incapacity, or extravagance. All they had to say was that, at present prices, they could not make profits. They could not have borrowed money from any bank simply on such stories as they told Congress, and yet these enabled them year after year to get taxes levied on the whole community for their benefit. The worst of it was that the "hearings," long before the Republican party went out of power, became simply explanations to the majority in Congress of the terms on which contributions to the campaign funds could be had. We do not think the Republicans specially to blame for this. Any party which offers a protective tariff to manufacturers is sure to come to it sooner or later, because no tariff can be made simply a help to the energetic and capable. It inevitably becomes also a means of support to the lazy and incompetent, and this class, in order to get it, will always be ready to share the largess with the donors.

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All the extreme high-tariff organs are asserting that the tariff hearings at Washington have been closed because the Committee could no longer bear up under the weight of unanswerable testimony in support of the McKinley Law, which both Republican and Democratic manufacturers laid before them. A very different view is taken by the American *Wool and Cotton Reporter*, which is both a Republican and a protection authority, for that journal says that the "cause of wool and woollen industry was not benefited by the appearance last week, before the Ways and Means Committee, of prominent advocates of the McKinley Law"; that these "McKinleyites, who represent only a minority of manufacturers, are directly responsible for the defeat of the Republican party last fall," since "they carried the principle of protection too far, and the country protested against it," and that what the woollen industry needs, more than anything else, is a stable and permanent tariff. The responsibility for the lack of such a tariff the *Reporter* puts upon the Republican party as follows:

> "The Republican party had it in its power four years ago to construct a tariff that would have proved acceptable to the country, and have stood unchanged in any essential features through years to come; a law that would have taken the tariff question out of politics, and enabled the manufacturer to shape his policy for the future without fear of being compelled to change it and adapt it to new conditions arising out of a change in the policy of the Government. The party, under the lead of extremists, who were over-greedy in their desire for high protective duties, saw fit to antagonize the better judgment of the country, and in consequence it has been discharged from power, and the duty of constructing a tariff more in keeping with the views of the country has devolved upon the Democratic party."

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The President's appointment of Mr. William B. Hornblower as an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court commands, as it deserves, the most unqualified praise from all quarters. It is simply a selection which is beyond criticism. Mr. Hornblower stands in the front rank of the younger generation of lawyers at the New York bar, having won his position through sheer force of ability and absorbing devotion to his profession. He will take his seat upon the Supreme Bench at an earlier age than the great majority of men who have preceded him, but, in the estimation of his professional associates, he will enter upon his duties as thoroughly equipped, both by natural judicial temperament, high legal ability, and varied experience, as any of his predecessors. Within recent years it has been the custom to select men further advanced in years for this court, but there have been four members of it who, at the time of appointment, were younger than Mr. Hornblower is. Story, one of the ablest judges that ever sat on this bench, was only thirty-two at the time of his appointment, and Johnson of South Carolina was of the same age. Bushrod Washington was thirty-six, and Iredell was thirty-nine. Mr Hornblower will enter the court in the fulness of his powers, and with the prospect of giving the country many years of honorable and useful service.

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Secretary Herbert seems to be unwilling to have it appear that he did a gracious and manly thing in restoring Capt. Higginson to active service. He resents the praise which the *Evening Post* has given him for his course in the affair, and says that his letters to Capt. Higginson really constitute a severe "reprimand." This is largely a matter of taste and fancy, we should say. The facts are, as shown by the extracts from the letters which Mr. Herbert gave out for publication on Monday, that he wrote to the officer whom he had removed: "The Department, accepting your assurances, is free to say that you would not have been removed from command of the *Atlanta* had it known at the time that you had not seen, and that you did not know the contents of, the despatch referred to." This may not be an "apology," but it certainly is a confession that the Department rushed ahead to disgrace an officer, and to inflict a heavy pecuniary penalty on him, without first making sure, as it easily could have done, that it had good grounds for its action. The Secretary also informed Commander Higginson that "the transactions herein referred to will not be permitted to prevent your being assigned to such duty as your rank entitles you to perform, when opportunity offers." This fully satisfied Capt. Higginson and all concerned, and seemed to afford good ground for commendation of the Secretary. But if that view of the case is distasteful to him, and if he prefers to have it thought that he had consistently preserved a sour and vinegar aspect throughout the whole affair, nothing is easier than to withdraw

any remarks tending to put him in a more amiable light.

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A minor abuse in the conduct of the Navy Department, which has long been practised, but which had some peculiarly flagrant illustrations under the last Administration, is the appointment of civilians over the heads of regular officers in line of promotion. Such appointees are, by statute, given a "ranking date" six years prior to their actual appointment, and are also paid from two hundred to five hundred dollars a year more than officers of the line draw in similar positions. But there is no real reason for such appointments, except the desire to pay a political debt or to confer a personal favor; and the sense of outrage which they inevitably provoke in the men passed over is distinctly bad for the service. Particularly is that the case when, as happened more than once during Harrison's Administration, men who have been unable to pass the examinations at the Naval Academy, are picked up by politicians and put into the service with higher rank and better pay than the members of the very class from which they were dropped for incompetence. If civilians are to be appointed at all to paymasterships in the navy, they ought to be civilians pure and simple, and not these fellows who fall back on the politicians to boost them where they cannot climb. Secretary Herbert has shown himself so considerate of the feelings and rights of naval officers in the Higginson matter that we are encouraged to hope he will set his face against this inveterate but demoralizing practice.

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For a controversy that has been settled by an infallible Pope, with his own Legate on the scene to see that it stays settled, the Catholic controversy over the public-school question has a curious way of breaking out afresh every day or two. On the one hand, "the Faribault plan" has been given up at Faribault, and we were positively assured that this marked the end of the experiment, and that the step had been taken under the direct orders of the Holy See. But now comes Archbishop Ireland to inform us that the giving up of the arrangement at Faribault is simply a new illustration of its beauties, showing how easily either party can withdraw from it. He further affirms that "the principle involved" was not at all affected, and that, in fact, the plan is "now in force in thousands of schools." This last statement looks like a bit of rhetorical exaggeration, or of misreporting, but the Archbishop's emphatic assurance that he is "in full touch with the Holy See in the matter" is of great significance. Like Archbishop Satolli's recent action in connection with the Hoboken parochial school, it shows that, however ambiguous the Pope's reasoning on the subject may be, his acts are with the progressive party, and infallible action is a far more important thing to have on one's side than infallible reasoning.

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The verdict of the Coroner's jury fixes the immediate responsibility for the Chester disaster upon the foreman in charge of the repairs on the bridge, but holds the Boston and Albany Railroad Company ultimately responsible. This should have a salutary effect in preventing such criminal neglig nce in the future. Railroad companies cannot go upon the supposition that a contractor who is making alterations on their tracks will be sure to be a model of caution; they must themselves provide rigid and constant inspection to make it certain that the lives of their passengers are not needlessly endangered. The past two weeks have brought American railroad management into serious disrepute by the succession of accidents which have occurred within that time, most of them attended by loss of life, and nearly all of them due to criminal carelessness on the part of some employee. Collisions have come along so regularly day after day that the first instinct of a reader of the morning paper has been to ask, "Where was the railroad accident yesterday, and how many were killed in it?" To call the infallible result of lax discipline and blundering management an "accident," is getting to be a ghastly sort of euphemism.

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The report of one day's votes at the Belfast Trades-Union Congress gives one some idea of the work the British Parliament will have before it in case Labor ever gets control of it. For example, Government contractors must be all made to pay "fair wages"; disused Government stores must not be sold; the Government must provide work for all unemployed persons, so that in case of strikes the employer may have no reserve to draw on to take the places of the strikers. It must make all sea-going vessels carry sails, masts, and yards to work the ship in case of a break-down of the machinery. It must have all goods so marked as to indicate whether they are hand or machine-made. It must not allow employers to make deductions from wages for rent, motive-power, tools, or fines. It must make eight hours a legal day's work, and prohibit night work in bakeries. It must give the Government civil servants direct representation in Parliament. It must pension "aged workers." It must enable fishermen and seamen to vote before going off on their cruises. It must not allow the military to be used in putting down strike riots.

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This, it must be remembered, was only one day's work. If the legislative programme of the whole session were put together, it would be found that, were the suggestions of the Congress adopted, the care and sustenance of the laborer and the provision for his amusement and relaxation would consume a large portion of the revenue, and all of the time, of the other classes of the community. The position of the non-mining inhabitants of Wales and Yorkshire, for instance, when the miners were out rioting, or "disputing," as the Congress calls it, would be one of great embarrassment if the soldiers were forbidden to interfere. Not only would these persons be unable to do their duty in taking care of the laborer, but they would be placed in great terror for their own lives and property owing to his angry condition when "on strike." We have made no mention of "compulsory arbitration," which some of the representatives of Labor in the House of Commons are pressing on the attention of the Ministry, and which will be very important, because, if ever adopted, it will give the Government arbitrators the right to fix the conditions on which a man shall carry on the business wherein he has invested his capital, whenever Labor chooses to raise a question by finding fault. The bill will therefore need a clause binding the Treasury to pay twenty shillings in the pound to the creditors of every firm which fails after the arbitrators have sat upon it.

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A standing complaint of French coal-miners has been the competition of English coal with French in the French market, and the consequent periods of idleness or running on half-time frequent in the Pas de Calais coal mines. This being so, one would have thought that the great strike in the English collieries, so prolonged and so seriously cutting short the supply of coal, would have given the French miners just the chance they have been praying for. Not only were the English exports of coal to France broken off, but English manufacturers began to inquire for French coal in order to keep their furnaces going. The natural result was to exhaust the French stocks and to create an unaccustomed demand for mining. But what did the two Socialistic Deputies who represent the miners in Parliament do but seize this opportunity to issue a proclamation calling upon the men not to mine a single lump of coal more than the normal quantity! This course was necessary, said Messrs. Basly and Lamendin, "in the name of international solidarity." Moreover, they argued (somewhat, it must be confessed, in the face of international solidarity) that now was the time to punish those French manufacturers who had been in the habit of buying their coal abroad. The thing to do was to refuse to sell them a solitary pound, thus leading them to a thorough realization of the wickedness of buying anything from foreigners. The miners appear to have bettered these instructions and gone on strike just at the moment that the English collieries are starting up. Such international solidarity looks, from this distance, suspiciously like international stupidity.

### *THE BIMETALLIC TERROR.*

THAT increasing number of psychologists who believe in the existence of a lesion in the bimetallic brain will, we fear, be reinforced by an article from the pen of Mr. Grenfell, one of the bimetallic leaders, in the last *Fortnightly Review*. Mr. Grenfell, it will be remembered, lately abandoned the Liberal party in Parliament, partly because he could not swallow the Irish Home-Rule Bill, but mainly because he could not put up with Mr. Gladstone's sportive treatment of the bimetallic theory. He now frees his mind a little in the article in question, which is entitled, "Mr. Gladstone and the Currency." The very opening page explains the disposition of the alienists to question the sanity of the bimetallic mind, because it shows the existence of that fatal premonitory symptom of mental decline—vague terror, dread of unknown evils.

By way of preparing the reader for the nameless horror to which he is about, as newspaper correspondents say, to "draw attention," Mr. Grenfell cites Alison's—the great Alison, the historian of Europe in ever so many volumes—explanation of the fall of the Roman Empire. Pliny, Gibbon, Niebuhr, Mommsen, Merivale, Hodgkin, and many others attribute this tremendous catastrophe to slavery, to the exhaustion of the free population of Italy and the corruption of the provincial governors, in the presence of increasing pressure from the northeastern barbarians. They say, too, or intimate, that the "fall" began after the death of Augustus, and lasted 500 years. But they make an awful mistake. For what does Alison say (Mr. Grenfell quotes it with a bimetallic chuckle)? "The fall of the Roman Empire, so long ascribed *in ignorance* to slavery, heathenism, and moral corruption, was in reality brought about by a decline in the silver and gold mines of Spain and Greece." There you have it. Poor Pliny, poor Gibbon, poor Niebuhr, poor Mommsen, poor Merivale, and poor Hodgkin! Alison thinks the modern world has been saved from a similar catastrophe—the ruin of its entire civilization—by the discovery of gold and silver in America, and more recently in Australia and California; but Grenfell rebukes him for this view, which he says is too "optimistic." "The mines of California and Australia have not," he says, "fulfilled the hopes which they at first excited. It will appear later that, aided even by the Transvaal, these mines to-day produce too little gold to satisfy the ever-growing needs of industrial society."

Of course the same thing is true of the silver mines of the world. None of them fulfil the hopes they at first excited. A large number of the most productive are already showing signs of exhaustion. The earth does not contain an *inexhaustible* supply of either of the precious metals, and must, as the years roll by, prove more and more incapable of satisfying the ever-growing needs of industrial society. What is this but proof that all that bimetallism can do for us is to postpone for a short period the "fall" of modern civilization? The double standard may enable us to stagger on a little longer, but the day will come when our gold and silver mines will both, like those of ancient Spain and Greece, give out, and then, like ancient Rome, there will be nothing left for us but to "fall," like her, into barbarism, hunger, and despair. There will be people in those days who will say that our civilization perished through idleness, through extravagance, through easy divorce, political corruption, or the triumph of Socialism, or the exhaustion of our fuel, but the bimetallists alone will have the real secret of the catastrophe. "You have come to your present awful situation," they will say to the disgusted and disheartened remnant of the human race, "through your inability to keep up the double standard—or, in other words, through shortness of the two metals, in the proportion of 15½ to 1. You have no circulating medium, and there is nothing left you now but to cut each other's throats and live on plunder. You cannot exchange the products of industry if you have no gold or silver, and therefore there is no longer any use in being industrious."

Further on Mr. Grenfell says, that if "Bimetallism," which he spells with a large B, "be not adopted, consequences of an incalculably disastrous nature *must of necessity* ensue. In an appreciating gold standard," he adds, "Bimetallists see impending a terrible catastrophe which in course of time must overwhelm all classes of the community, and they consider it their duty to do what lies in their power to avert it." There is, of course, much doubt whether the bimetallists themselves could explain, even to the most tactful and experienced alienist, what the nature of this "terrible catastrophe" will be. But by closely listening to their mutterings, one learns, with some approach to certainty, that the thing which inspires them with so much vague terror is the prospect of a further fall in prices. It is only in this way that the appreciation of gold could ruin the modern world as the ancient world was ruined. The hallucination which makes them see in this a "terrible catastrophe" for "all classes of the community" is undoubtedly the belief that all classes of the community and all individual adults are sellers and debtors simply, and never, or hardly ever, buyers and creditors, and they foresee a crisis in which all the civilized nations would be on the market with goods to sell, and yet unable to find anybody to buy. That would certainly be an awful market day—a true *dies iræ*—and would amply justify the bimetallist fears. But, as the world is now arranged, this terrible scene can never be witnessed, for there will always be far more men and women to rejoice over low prices than to lament over them. Prices can never get low enough to break *all* hearts. The protectionist vision of foreigners ruining whole communities by dumping cheap goods on them has never yet been realized, and never will be.

Luckily the bimetallic arguments always contain their own antidote. This is true of Mr. Grenfell's. He shows us what is likely to happen if we do not become bimetallic by pointing to what has happened since we ceased to be bimetallic, say twenty years ago, in 1873. He draws a dreadful picture of the condition of the civilized world since then, but the civilized world refuses to recognize it. It is true, prices have fallen, but the civilized world refuses to treat this as a calamity. It says, on the contrary, that this shows that the great work of civilization is going on with ever increasing rapidity. Every leading nation in the world has within that period been growing in wealth and population; the wages of the working classes and their standard of living have everywhere been rising. It is true, there has been a great deal of agricultural depression in many of the older countries, but the real tillers of the soil have rarely suffered from it. It is the ornamental class—the landed aristocracy—which has been damaged by it. To the laborer it has meant cheaper food and a greater variety of employments. All the great towns and cities have, in fact, profited immensely by the competition of the uttermost ends of the earth with the adjacent farms in the work of feeding urban populations, and are growing yearly in wealth, numbers, and commodity. In fact, any large view of the condition and prospects of Europe and America, considered as the home of a great civilization, makes the bimetallists objects of kindly anxiety.

### *JUDGE LYNCH AS AN EDUCATOR.*

SOME of the Southern papers, notably those of New Orleans, seem to be aroused to the disgrace brought on their portion of the Union by the growing practice of lynching negroes—"nigger-hunting" it ought to be called—for crimes which are easily punishable by the ordinary process of law. In truth, the very condition of public feeling which makes lynching possible, makes the conviction of negroes in the courts for all lynchable offences absolutely certain. Consequently, nothing whatever is gained by the lynching except a little greater rapidity of punishment, and this trifling gain is attended by the exposure of the younger and more ignorant portion of the white population to the most brutalizing and barbarizing of all the processes by which humanity can be or ever has been degraded. We mean, by this, participation in the torture and killing of a human being, either by way of sport or vengeance, by a mob. The theory of such nondescripts as Judge Long of Jefferson Parish, in Louisiana, who is said, judge though he be, and civilized though he seems to be, to ap-

prove of lynching as a means of security for the whites, doubtless is that the lynchers are grave and sober-minded men, who resort to illegal violence solely because they are driven to it by stern necessity. This would have been a ridiculous thing to say in any community in the world for the last three thousand years. We do not need the story of the Roman gladiatorial shows, or of modern autos da fé, or public hangings, or pillories, to tell us that man is the one animal that is capable of getting enjoyment out of the torture and death of members of its own species. We venture to assert that seven-eighths of every lynching party is composed of pure, sporting mob, which goes nigger-hunting, just as it goes to a cock-fight or a prize-fight, for the gratification of the lowest and most degraded instincts of humanity—the very instinct which, as Seneca tells us, made the Roman populace furious with, and hiss, the defeated gladiator who shrank from letting the victor cut his throat. They do not care a straw about seeing justice—even wild justice—done on a malefactor. What they want to see is a hunted man in terror of his life, or a human body torn to pieces without fear of consequences.

We doubt if there is a single intelligent man at the South who believes that lynching is a mode of punishment which is any more effective with negroes than with white men. In fact, the colored, like the white, imagination is much more likely to be impressed by slow, formal justice than by riotous mob justice. This is the reason why all civilized countries substitute trial by constituted law courts for private vengeance as soon as they possibly can. They prefer courts and police to mob, not because they look better, but because they give more security. Consequently it is a disgrace to a civilized community to have to fall back on lynching; and the poorer, meaner, and more contemptible the criminal is, the greater the disgrace. It means failure or inability to perform the most elementary function of an organized society. A State, city, or parish, in any modern country, which makes open confession that it cannot, by means of courts and police, protect its citizens from being murdered or maltreated by individual Africans, makes open abdication of its place among modern civilized communities. The Anglo-Saxon flag, wherever this occurs, goes down before that of the Congo and Ashantee. It means that the "nigger" is "on top." Wherever it takes three or four hundred white men and a suspension of the Constitution to arrest a single negro malefactor, there is "nigger rule" in its worst form. The Caucasian has surrendered to the descendants of Ham.

All this is sorrowful and ridiculous enough, but there is one other consideration arising out of the matter still more serious. The effects of these increasingly frequent abdications on the part of the constituted authorities in favor of mobs, no matter how useful they may be in keeping the blacks in order, cannot be confined to the blacks alone. There is a process of education in them for both blacks and whites. Both races learn from them to despise the law and its officers, to forget that the corner-stone of the civilized State is the general belief in the omnipotence of the law and its final triumph over all its enemies. The bystanders who, at Roanoke, Va., have seen the Mayor and the captain of militia flying for their lives, for having protected a jail against murderous rioters, can never be as good citizens again as they were before the riot. The brain of the ordinary man never lets slip the memory of a scene of that sort; he is never again so ready to believe in the courts and the police as he was before he saw it. This is more particularly true of the boys of the community. There is a superstition abroad among us that our lads learn the art of civil government out of Nordhoff's 'Politics for Young Americans' and similar manuals of political instruction. There could hardly be a greater delusion. They learn both the duties and powers of citizenship from what they see their fathers, uncles, and big brothers being, doing, and suffering, as the grammar says, and from what the newspapers report of the acts and submissions of the fathers, uncles, and big brothers of the other boys. They soon lose their abhorrence for what the public condones, and they soon cease to admire and strive for what the public seems to care nothing about, no matter what the books may say. The kind of citizens they become, in short, depends on the behavior as citizens of the grown-up people about them.

The notion, therefore, that unpunished violence and illegality, any more than unpunished fraud and corruption, can prepare the way for better things, or are likely to be followed by better things, is a chimera. Every lynching operation helps to deprive the community of the power of recovery from the state of things which suggests or prompts lynching, because it lessens the respect of the rising generation for law, and its confidence in the power of the law. This, too, furnishes a complete answer to those unwilling subjects of Gilroy, Croker & Co., who believe that the best or only way to throw off their yoke is to let things get so bad as to be utterly intolerable. Things cannot get as bad as possible in family or in State without fatally debauching the very persons on whom the task of "uprising" has to fall, when worst comes to worst. When the moment of action arrives, it is found that familiarity with the evil has brought about that fatal indifference, even of the good, on which the rascals rely, and on which they batten and grow fat.

## *POLITICS AND SOCIETY IN ENGLAND.*

THE passage of the Irish Home-Rule Bill in the British House of Commons and its defeat in the Lords leave English politics and society in an extremely interesting condition for the foreign observer. None of their phenomena is queerer than the hatred of Gladstone among the upper and upper middle classes. It is difficult to come across a Gladstonian in either of them. This hatred, too, finds expression in a violence of language which is seldom met with in any country except during a period of revolution or civil war, and has long been banished from English social and political life. To match it in recent times, one has to hunt up the epithets showered on Abraham Lincoln by the Southerners in the spring of 1861. But the Southerners were then preparing to fight, and Lincoln was in no sense their man, and Southern society was in a very rough-and-tumble stage of civilization. Englishmen, on the contrary, have had long training in self-control in the use of language, are in profound peace, and Gladstone is their oldest statesman and their Prime Minister, made so by an election the fairness of which is not questioned.

Nevertheless, one hears him in the best circles treated as an old villain, for whom capital punishment would be too good, and frantic desire for his death is openly uttered. That "G. O. M." stands for "God's Only Mistake" is one of the grim jokes of the Conservative clubs, and old ladies will avow their willingness to walk miles with peas in their shoes to see him hanged. The stories about him which are received and passed on, are accepted with a simplicity which used to be confined to Catholic peasantry. One of the most current tells of his reception years ago into the Catholic Church, and ascribes his Irish bill to a simple desire to please the priests and save his own soul. Of late somebody has turned up who was present at the ceremony of his reception. If you doubt this, you are treated to a pitying smile because of the notoriety of the fact. The stories of his abandoned profligacy are, of course, less public, the subject being a delicate one, but they are a very prominent part of the Gladstone legend. The failure of his enemies to detect and denounce him during these sixty years of extraordinary exposure to the public gaze does not help him in the least. Nor does the testimony of those who see him most intimately, and have been impressed by the purity of his life and the simplicity of his character. The ordinary laws of probability are suspended for his condemnation.

No one who passes much time within hearing of this vituperation of Gladstone, and knows how unusual such passionate hatred is among Englishmen of the upper class, can help speculating as to its cause. But no inquiry will do him much good. No bill of particulars of the Gladstonian indictment can, as a rule, be obtained containing anything but the introduction of the Irish Home-Rule Bill, and various changes of opinion on various questions, such as statesmen in

parliamentary countries are constantly making. Nothing can be more novel in England than the frame of mind which makes such things hanging matter for the First Lord of the Treasury.

The explanation of the anomaly is apparently to be found in the association of Gladstone with a prolonged period of extraordinary agricultural depression, and with political changes which have resulted in a transfer of political power. The decline of the landed interest, begun in 1873, was not arrested by Disraeli's brilliant foreign policy, and has resulted in twenty years in converting England into a democracy unchecked by a written constitution. It is difficult to overestimate the dismay and foreboding which this has caused among what had been the ruling class. Except in one or two dairy counties, like Cheshire, and in counties in which the shooting and hunting can be rented in the fall and winter, the landowning class is in great straits. Rents have become nominal, and in many places farmers are allowed to retain their holdings without paying anything at all, in order to prevent the farms from running to weeds. No such combination of calamities has probably ever overtaken a landed aristocracy except through revolution, as in France in 1793, and America in 1865 Gladstone is somehow associated with all this misery and humiliation, and has gradually become responsible for every evil of the day. If Jabez Balfour, the hero of the Liberator Society frauds, is not surrendered by the Argentine Republic, it is because Gladstone wishes him to escape in return for the votes he once gave him in the House of Commons. If silver falls in India, it is because Gladstone is so occupied with home rule that he cannot look after it. If there is a fight on the floor of the House, it is because his legislation has so set the nerves of the members on edge that they cannot refrain from hitting each other.

The social hostility to him has been greatly stimulated by the Primrose League, an organization managed mainly by women of the upper class, of which one hears comparatively little in the newspapers, but which has done excellent propagandist work for the Conservatives. It is in reality a very successful attempt to turn to account for party purposes that passionate social ambition which reigns in all but the most highly placed English breasts. The desire of every class to come into social contact with the class above it may be called "a power" which has hitherto been allowed, as far as politics is concerned, to run to waste. The Tory ladies of rank have done with it what Watts did with steam. By establishing "Habitations," or clubs, all over the country, at which shopkeepers, or tenant farmers, or country lawyers can take afternoon tea, or play lawn tennis with the daughters of earls, and compare notes of work in a common cause with duchesses, for the defence of religion, morality, and the integrity of the empire against Gladstone and "the Rads," they have brought to bear on politics a social lever of extraordinary efficacy. In these gatherings of the Primrose League, too, the neophytes are, as usual, the most vehement in their profession of faith and in their detestation of Gladstone as the prime mover in England's downfall. When "good society" can be had by liberal denunciation of him, he naturally gets short shrift. The hooting of him at the Prince of Wales's reception at the Imperial Institute in May, of which the better class of Englishmen were much ashamed, has been excused by ascribing it to the over-zeal of the Primrose-Leaguers from the Kensington detached and "semi-detached" villas, who felt that in the presence of the monster they must show themselves not unworthy of the exalted society to which they now, in a manner, belonged.

The want of political shrewdness shown in this treatment of Gladstone as the idol of the masses, in a country virtually governed by universal suffrage, is still further exemplified in the treatment of the Irish by the same class. In fact, the two things together afford abundant ground for the inference that "the classes" have lost their cunning as politicians or have not as yet adapted themselves to their new political *milieu*. The abuse of the Irish is fully as persistent and unsparing as that of Gladstone. It is doubtful whether there is any example in history of the steady direction of such a stream of insult on any community which was not held in military subjection by a conqueror, or was not a foreign enemy against whom it was the policy of the hour to excite hostility.

As the Irish have the franchise, and sit on equal terms in the National Legislature, the inconvenience and bad politics of keeping them in a condition of furious hatred of England and Englishmen are obvious. They cannot, if they would, sit down in this age of the world under such torrents of contempt. They are bound, as a matter of self-respect, to resent it by every means in their power, including turbulence, always one of the weapons of the weak and discontented. Nothing, too, is better calculated to arouse the suspicion that the English "classes" have lost their hold on the rod of empire than the theory, which has done immense service in the Irish discussions, that home rule, or self-government, can in our day be treated as a prize for good behavior like an army medal, and that it may be safely and properly withheld from the Irish because upper-class Englishmen think them ill-conditioned and wicked, or, in other words, think of them as they thought of the whole English lower class before the passage of the Reform Bill. The way in which this assumption that self-government is a prize which has to be won, as it never has been won, by good conduct, is applied to the 3,000,000 Irish Catholics, and their unfitness for it proved by telling the world that they are liars, thieves, and murderers, would, even if it were all true, be a political blunder. It is only of a non-voting and unrepresented class, or of slaves, that it is safe or wise for politicians to talk in this way, even if the facts amply justify it. To show how deep seated this delusion is, it is worth mention that even so sober an observer as the London *Economist*, in an anti-home-rule argument the other day, assured Lord Rosebery that an Irish-American State would be composed entirely of "Molly Maguires." If business men talked to each other in this way, how much business would ever be transacted?

The probable effect of this style of talk on the prospects of home rule has also to be considered. Modern democracy is nothing if not optimistic—absurdly optimistic, philosophers say—in its view of the capacity and character of the masses, no matter of what nationality. The new English democracy is no exception to this rule. It cannot bear to hear great bodies of poor people—tenants, laborers, or what not—incessantly reviled by well-dressed gentlemen, as the scum of the earth, and unfit to manage their own affairs, and yet this is in the main the kind of argumentation on the home-rule question to which Conservative orators treat the English working-class voters. Of course, it is not only losing its effect as an anti-home-rule argument, but it is raising sympathy for the Irish in the very class which holds now the balance of power, and will probably ere long rule England.

Some alarm on this point has already begun to show itself in the Conservative ranks. The feeling that abuse of the Irish will not any longer serve in lieu of a positive plan of dealing with the Irish question is spreading among the managers, and there is a strong belief among the Liberals that Mr. Balfour and Lord Salisbury will have some plan of home rule to offer the electors when Parliament is dissolved, as it is pretty certain it will be next fall, after another defeat of the present bill by the Lords. The Liberals will go to the country, as soon as they have some Radical English legislation, such as the Parish Councils Bill and the Employers' Liability Bill, to show as the fruits of this fall and winter session. In forecasting the future of the Gladstone Ministry, it has to be borne in mind that the gains which changed the Tory majority of over 100 in 1886 into a Liberal majority of 40 in 1892, and passed the Home Rule Bill in 1893 by almost the same majority by which it was thrown out in 1886, were made in England. In Ireland and Scotland the Liberals either lost slightly, or barely held their own, at the last election.

## THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION—IX.

### ANTHROPOLOGY.

CHICAGO, September, 1893.

Of all the sciences, anthropology is best represented at the Fair, even if we limit the scope

of the term to what concerns the uncivilized races. The Directors of the Exposition decided not to rest satisfied with what private or Governmental effort might accomplish, but to undertake active exploration on their own account. This work, confided to the capable hands of Prof. F. W. Putnam, has been fruitful in archæological and ethnological material of great interest and value, which has been gathered in various parts of America under the supervision of some of our best anthropologists. In addition are the usual public and private collections exhibited by nations and societies or individuals, the display of the National Museum and Bureau of Ethnology, and the various bodies of uncivilized natives grouped under different auspices in the grounds or the Plaisance. The anthropological exhibit was accorded a separate building as an afterthought, the space originally assigned to it being otherwise needed; consequently, this material was much delayed in installation and no catalogue of it is obtainable, the so-called official catalogue being ludicrously inadequate and worthless. New material is constantly coming in even now, and this state of affairs somewhat palliates the imperfections of labelling and presentation which strike the visitor on every side. The display made by the United States Government is shown in the Government Building, and small local collections of archæology or ethnology may be found in most of the State buildings, or mingled with other exhibits in the most unexpected places. Were all the specimens thus disseminated brought together and properly arranged, a very remarkable collection would be formed, but, as it is, much that is worthy of attention must be lost sight of.

Beginning with the native villages on the Plaisance, among those best worth visiting is that which contains the "Dahomeyans." The good-natured negroes here brought together are obviously of several different tribes, but all in about the same state of culture. A Boston lady observed that she regretted having seen them when she thought of "the gulf between them and Emerson." But Emerson himself would have found new material for epigram, if he could have visited these people, noted their singular dances, and observed the peculiar but effective methods of their simple housekeeping. The women grind maize between two flat stones, the native smith will fashion a very presentable ring out of a copper penny with his primitive tools before one's eyes, all in a fashion as old as Tubal Cain. An observant eye will note the fetish images scratched on the rough-cast walls of their huts. Passing eastward, the Cairo Street is worth a visit, and, so far as the "make-up" is concerned, differs chiefly from its original by the absence of the Oriental filth. Here may be seen some very clever Hindu jugglers, the leader of whom, before each trick, goes through a very reverential incantation to his patron gods with a peculiar sort of bagpipe. Every afternoon a bridal procession is led through the street, and what appear to be several genuine dervishes perform their rites before a very unsympathetic American audience. Further along, the village of the Javanese gives an excellent idea of their state of culture, their houses, methods of weaving, etc., with periodic performances in a little theatre. Across the way the Sultan of Johore displays a compact but well-selected series of utensils, samples of manufacture, models of traps and fishing-gear, and a small but well-built house. Near by is a small encampment of Bedouin, under a roof, where their methods of preparing coffee, breadmaking (curiously like that of the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico), and dancing may be observed, in about the normal state of untidiness. Last of all, and decidedly the best, come the Samoans, whose village is not especially interesting, but whose dances and pantomime in their little theatre no one should miss. They are fine specimens of humanity, and their dances are given with an earnestness and vigor really admirable. One seems to catch here the aboriginal note in its purity. These people are said to be delegates from a Catholic mission in Samoa, and expect to devote their earnings to the propagation of the faith—an odd way of making the old pay tribute to the new.

The exhibit of the National Museum and Bureau of Ethnology is designed to illustrate the condition of the North American aborigines at the advent of Columbus, classified in accordance with the linguistic map recently published by the Bureau of Ethnology. This is largely done by means of groups of life-size figures engaged in some occupation characteristic of the tribe or stock to which they belong, surrounded with products of such industry and the utensils or tools employed. The figures, when possible, have been modelled from life and are dressed in native garments. Several of these groups are among the best things of the kind ever prepared, though to be fully appreciated they require a somewhat more thorough knowledge than is possessed by the average visitor. A particularly good one is the group of Moqui women making bread. The Moqui corn, red, blue, yellow, and white, is there, with a woman grinding the parched grains, each color being kept separate; another parches the grain, while the colored meal, thinned from a paste to a gruel, is wiped over a hot flat stone by a third. Here it cooks instantly to a paper-like sheet, which is folded up in flattened rolls like bundles of colored tissue-paper. With a brief explanation, such a group tells its story clearly and in a fashion to be remembered, especially when in the Plaisance one watches the Bedouin woman spreading her papery sheet of dough over a dome-like sheet of hot iron which serves the same purpose as the bread-stone of the Moqui. An extensive collection of objects illustrating the arts of women among savage and semi-barbarous people was prepared by the National Museum, and is shown in the Woman's Building.

Prehistoric anthropology is illustrated by a collection selected by Mr. Holmes of the Bureau of Ethnology, showing the several periods of the Paleolithic age of Europe, with some of the supposed paleoliths of the United States for comparison; and other objects belonging to the Neolithic age. There is also a good series illustrating the quarrying work of the aborigines of the United States, from the quartzites of the District of Columbia to the novaculites of Arkansas and the copper of Lake Superior. Another group contains selections from a collection illustrating the ceremonials of the Oriental religions of the Mediterranean basin, with special reference to them as a starting-point for a comparative study of religions. A large proportion of the synoptic State collections show illustrations of the local archæology, many of which are well arranged and labelled. A good example is that of the State of Illinois, which has in all branches an excellent synoptic exhibit. Most of the Oriental countries having separate buildings and not occupying space in the Anthropological Building exhibit more or less anthropological material. Among many which might be mentioned as worth a visit it will suffice to refer to the Cingalese collection and that in the building devoted to the French colonial dependencies. The implements, etc., are not segregated, but among the things shown are many very interesting specimens.

The Anthropological Building is a cheap structure put up at the last moment in an obscure corner of the Park, yet it contains what one is tempted to pronounce, scientifically, the most interesting collections exhibited under any single roof in the grounds. These comprise, on the one hand, the exhibits of the Anthropological Department of the Exposition, gathered for this occasion under the direction of Prof. Putnam and his assistants, and on the other the usual displays by foreign nations, scientific societies, and individuals. It will be possible here to refer only to a small proportion of the display. Beginning with foreign countries, a very large collection, almost without labels, is shown by Brazil, including remains from the shell-heaps described by Hartt as well as many things from existing tribes. Especially beautiful is the feather work, but the absence of any means of finding out what the things are, and where they come from, is exasperating. British Guiana and Mexico also show much that repays examination by the expert, but with a lamentable deficiency of labels. The collection from the Museo Nacional of Costa Rica contains some extra fine stone carvings from Nicoya and Agua Caliente. Japan has a well-systematized and labelled collection which does not contain much that is novel to students, unless it be the specimens from the shell-heaps which were described some years ago by Prof. Morse. China appears to have no official exhibit, but the deficiency is partly supplied by a well-selected series from the Archæological Department of the University of Pennsylvania. The Peruvian collection of Montes is rich and interesting, but only partly labelled. A large space devoted to the prehistoric cemeteries of Peru attracts much attention, the aim being to exhibit an excavated area with the mummies, etc., as they would appear after the earth is removed. Here again the absence of explanatory placards deprives the display of much of its usefulness to ordinary visitors.

A most attractive display of casts from Grecian sculptures recently excavated is to be found in the central part of the hall. Some of them are familiar, but others, especially slabs derived from tombs showing family groups, deities, etc., are new, at least to the majority of visitors. New South Wales comes to the front with a very fine collection relating not merely to her own section of Australia but also to the rest of that continent, Tasmania, part of New Guinea, and the islands of the Australasian seas. It comprises, besides utensils, weapons, garments, etc., of existing or recently extinct tribes, a fine series of solar enlargements of photographs of the people themselves, the best yet brought together, and also a valuable collection, loaned by Prof. Liversidge, of very rare prehistoric stone weapons and tools. All this material is well classified and labelled; an excellent annotated catalogue is distributed by the Commissioners, and also two other pamphlets, one by the Rev. Dr. W. Wyatt Gill, containing notes on the Hervey Islanders, and the other by Messrs. Hill and Thornton on the aborigines of New South Wales. Near the exhibit of New South Wales is a small but important collection from New Caledonia, illustrated by a remarkable collection of photographs by J. G. Peace of Nouméa. These well repay close examination, and illustrate much

better than most anthropological photographs many details of interest.

France shows a set of the Charnay casts of ancient sculptures of Yucatan and Honduras, close to which are the more recent reproductions obtained by Prof. Putnam's party, except a few of the larger ones, which are erected in the open air not far from the building. The rapid way in which these monuments are deteriorating renders the present collection most opportune and important. The Government of Honduras has a small exhibit of mostly fragmentary original pieces of similar carvings. A very interesting small collection from Bolivia has been received from one of the Putnam parties. Of the other contributions obtained through the official explorations, one of the most interesting is a large-sized model of the Skidegate village, Queen Charlotte Islands, a settlement of Haida Indians renowned for its carved totem posts and richly ornamented dwellings. In this connection attention should be directed to the Alaskan collection of Lieut. Emmons, displayed in the gallery of the Government Building, which, with much that is modern and evidently made for sale, contains also some of the finest specimens of native work, in particular carved masks, ever brought from the northwest coast.

A large collection of archæological material from the Hopewell group of mounds, Ross County, Ohio, is exhibited by W. K. Moorhead. It is particularly important as comprising the spoil from an altar mound where a vast number of objects, probably the most highly treasured of their owners' possessions, were cast into the flames on some critical occasion. These include a great many fine archæological specimens, some doubtless of great age, among which appear a few articles of European origin, perhaps derived from the early Spanish traders. The most numerous of these are the copper ear-studs, some of them plated with silver, of which about a peck are shown; one or two brass or copper buttons; rolled sheet copper, used for cutting into ornaments, and some arabesque designs in the same material, evidently of European manufacture. Some scroll-like ornaments of mica were also evidently cut with scissors, as the natives possessed no aboriginal tools by which such clean-cut curves could be produced. It is to be regretted that so fine and important a collection as this should be almost wholly unlabelled, and that no positive marks by which they could be certainly identified have been attached to the majority of the specimens. Prof. G. F. Wright of Oberlin has his collections of archæological specimens on view, where various implements over which much controversy has been had may be inspected by the curious. Among the thousands of stone implements exhibited from all parts of the country the fine, well-arranged series of the Missouri Natural History Society should be noticed, although there are so many well arranged and carefully labelled specimens on view that it is impossible to refer to the greater number of them. The archæological department of the University of Pennsylvania has a well-selected series of objects, ethnological and archæological, and perhaps one of the largest series devoted to a single topic is that shown by Mr. Stewart Culin in his collection of playing-cards and related games. A very interesting contribution has been made by the Nez Percé Indians, at the suggestion of Miss Alice Fletcher, illustrating customs and utensils now almost or entirely out of use, but which have been restored or reproduced by the aid of the elders to whom they were familiar.

The gallery contains the anthropological laboratories, where a vast amount of statistical information has been restated in graphic form under the direction of Prof. Jastrow, offering to the student of such matters a fund of information over which days might be profitably spent. Anthropological measurements are taken here. Near by are the well-known statues of the Harvard boy and girl. These attract a constant stream of visitors, and are generally acknowledged to form one of the most instructive exhibits in the building. Many visitors will notice several mammoth sheets of heavy paper covered with columns of figures and words in an unknown tongue. These represent the results of one of the most important of recent archæological studies, that of the Mexican calendar by Mrs. Zelia Nuttall. Her investigations on this subject, aided by some recently discovered manuscript records of the period of the Conquest, have resulted, it is believed, in definitely solving a most intricate problem. Mrs. Nuttall's discussion will shortly be printed by the Peabody Museum of Archæology in Cambridge.

In conclusion, it may be said that, owing to the active exploration instituted by the Directors of the Exposition into matters connected with American anthropology, it is probable that this department of science will permanently profit by the anniversary thus celebrated to a greater extent than any other line of research. At all events there can be no question, in spite of all shortcomings, that Prof. Putnam and his associated workers have brought together for our instruction an anthropological collection hitherto unequalled and hereafter not likely to be surpassed. W. H. D.

## THE PROSPECTS OF HOME RULE.

LONDON, September 9, 1893.

A CERTAIN engraving always rivets my attention when I see it in the print-shop windows. It is from Miss Thompson's painting of "The Square at Waterloo." The faces of the men in the shattered but unflinching array are a study—the young and enthusiastic wild with delight and exultation as a wave of their assailants breaks at their feet; the older, the more thoughtful, subdued by the gravity and uncertainty of the situation and all that still awaits them. I thought of this picture last Saturday morning as so many of the Irish and Liberal members leaped on the benches to cheer the passage through the House of Commons of the Home-Rule Bill. I thought of it in Palace Yard as the light went out in the Clock Tower and applauding crowds accompanied Mr. Gladstone's carriage to Downing Street. I acknowledge the enormous advance made since twenty-three years ago, when a small party met round Isaac Butt in a hotel parlor in Dublin to establish the "Home Government Association." I ponder the assurances that a Liberal Government has never failed in the ultimate accomplishment of any great measure upon which it had set its heart. Yet I reflect that in politics, as in all human affairs, no two cases are precisely alike, and I cannot recall that past successes were achieved in the face of impediments and complications such as stand in the way of a Home-Rule Bill becoming an act.

We may know that the contention between Great Britain and Ireland, and the fears and suspicions with which the minority in Ireland regards the majority, must come to an end; but the when and the how are the question. The carrying of a bill such as "The Government of Ireland Bill" would accomplish it; but when and how will such a bill become an act? If within a few years, the world will have an extraordinary instance of the success of a measure in spite of tremendous opposition. I do not so much consider the defeat of the bill in the House of Lords this morning by 419 to 41. Other considerations weigh much more with me. Parliamentary warfare was entirely revolutionized by Mr. Parnell and Mr. Biggar. A minority has now forces at its disposal such as it never had before. No longer does every day bring across from Ireland fresh tales of harrowing evictions, or of barbarous imprisonments for the made offence of free utterances from the press or representative men, such as mayors or members of Parliament. Ireland is quiet, and her population, what remains, enjoys comparative prosperity, such at least as she never before attained. The excitement has subsided to which England is always roused by accesses of Irish crime and disturbance, and indifference is apparently again setting in. The Ministry, men like Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Morley, Earl Spencer, Mr. Bryce, Lord Rosebery, Lord Herschel, Mr. Asquith, Sir Charles Russell, Sir W. Harcourt, with the Liberal party in the main, are thoroughly convinced of the necessity for home rule. By many of them the position is realized as clearly as it ever was by Grattan, O'Connell, or Butt. For this realization, width of mind and experience, a certain philosophic train of thought, not given to all men, have been perhaps requisite. How will the British electorate at the next election regard the assertion of the necessity for home rule as it will be put before them? Great Britain has within the past century made advances in prosperity and prestige rare if not unprecedented in history. It has been guided by a wiser commercial policy than that of any other people. Within the last twenty years education has increased, pauperism and crime have diminished, at an astounding ratio. The British people feel that supreme power now rests with them. No wonder if they attribute all this largely to the institutions of their country, prominent among which is a united Parliament, regulating the smallest as the greatest affairs.

Say what we will, home rule, in so far as it is meant to be practical, is an infringement of the principles upon which the united Parliament has hitherto worked. The British people see what they have gained and the position to which they have attained. It is not equally apparent to them that the present constitution of Parliament will be a bar to their further progress and development. Ireland is not Great Britain. It is "a far cry" there when she is not in disturbance. Men are more easily influenced through their fears than through their reason, and 315 of the 670 members of Parliament—among them some of the ablest and sincerest men in the House—hold that home rule will separate Ireland, destroy the Constitution, break up the Empire, render controversy in Parliament fiercer than ever, annihilate financial control there, and make Irish delegates supreme in British affairs, while reducing the loyal minority in Ireland to virtual slavery in property and religion. (I paraphrase Mr. Gladstone's enumeration of these objections.) Great Britain is an intensely Protestant country. With ample resources now at hand, Irish Protestants will henceforth flood the British constituencies, predicting the direst woes to themselves and all they hold dear and sacred from the passage of such a measure as home rule. How would a Catholic United Kingdom regard the appeals on similar grounds of a Catholic minority in one portion of its dominions?

And if the Unionist position has been comparatively strengthened, that of Ireland, apart from the improvement in the condition of the country, appears to me to have been considerably weakened. If we may judge from the acknowledgments in the newspapers, funds are not as plentiful as they used to be. Irish Nationalists cannot, without laying themselves open to imputations regarding "British gold," receive supplies from British friends as can the Unionists. More serious than all, there is division in our ranks. A "Nationalist" "home-rule" daily organ in Dublin, expounding the principles of a party of nine "true Parnellites" in the House of Commons, lives principally on detraction of those men most prominent in the struggles of the last dozen years. Michael Davitt has been hunted into the bankruptcy court. Ireland thought she had at length evolved a Washington. He proved but a counterpart in clay, and in crumbling to his ruin did his best to involve that of the cause he had hitherto served.

The demand for home rule is eminently just and reasonable, entirely in accord with the experiences of the English-speaking and Teutonic nations throughout the world. The issue now depends on the average calibre of the Irish people. If it proves to be in any degree approaching that of your Revolutionary, your Abolitionist fathers, success is assured. If the progress of the home-rule chariot requires for its continuance the continued hope of some immediate and extensive money gain, such as was lent to it by the Land League movement, a long period of discouragement may await us. With the Irish as with the British people in this case, a philosophic conception of the necessities of the situation is all-important. Nothing has impressed me more in Parliamentary warfare than the superior advantage conferred by university education and training; this advantage leading many of only ordinary abilities to elevated and useful positions, while its absence leads others of preëminent natural capacity to occasional failure. Yet the present struggle will be largely a soldier's battle, and the two men whom I consider most likely to prejudice the cause of home rule before the constituencies have neither of them, I believe, had such training.

The one is Mr. Chamberlain, of whose talent and influence I need say nothing. Mr. Balfour is of a nobler and finer organization, but entirely lacks Mr. Chamberlain's point and implacability. If Mr. Chamberlain had once seen fit to enter upon a repressive policy in Ireland, he would never have relaxed as Mr. Balfour did. If he had once taken up an unpitying and inexorable attitude towards the Irish people, he would never, as Mr. Balfour did after an extended visit to the West, have allowed his policy to be modified by sympathy for their suffering. Mr. Chamberlain has abandoned all Liberal traditions, and, as far as we can perceive, is now the advocate of a purely repressive policy towards Ireland.

The second personage I feel impelled to name, Mr. Thomas W. Russell, is also to be found in the ranks of the Liberal Unionists. A young Scotchman, he came over to Ireland in the sixties, interested himself in Liberal advancement, and became the paid leader of the temperance and Sunday-closing movement there. Upon the passage of the Sunday-Closing Bill and the breaking out of the Land League agitation, he relinquished further temperance work in Ireland as hopeless, though he opened a temperance hotel in Dublin. Mr. Russell never sympathized with Irish national aspiration, and all along he must have had to suppress a certain scorn of the Irish people and their religion. He is a man of unblemished personal character. We have no right to question his statement that he occupies his present position in London society entirely on means drawn from his writings and his business. He displays greater energy in speech, writing, and organization now at fifty-two than he showed thirty years ago. His acrid and fanatical speeches against home rule have been prominent in the debates. His mountains have, it is true, generally been reduced to molehills by the answers of Mr. Morley and the criticisms of Mr. Sexton. But his statements will doubtless pass with but little challenge where through the British constituencies he will now carry the fiery cross of his passionate hatreds and burning convictions. He is a most convincing popular platform orator. "Pirates," "great brigade of liars," "breakers of all the Ten Commandments," "tellers of lies by the million," are his ordinary estimates of the Irish party. He has declared "drink to be the spinal marrow of the Irish cause"; that the "Land League was a conspiracy the most baneful that has ever cursed any country." He has said that "the people south and west [of Dublin] are utterly demoralized," that "large tracts of Ireland are mere nests of mendicancy," that "if the English and Scotch element could be extracted from the commerce of Dublin and Cork, these cities would be left lonely wildernesses." That he is allowed unmolested to travel about Ireland and carry on his ordinary avocations there is a striking proof of the natural mildness of the Irish. No man would dare use such language regarding a free people and live among them. Few would have the courage to speak so of any people. If not loved, he is certainly valued by his own party.

Thus, as my previous communication led up to Mr. Morley, the ideal exponent of the claims of home rule, so this, regarding the force and spirit of the Opposition, has led down to Mr. Russell. Certain as is a settlement on home-rule lines whenever the controversy between the islands is ended, my desire to imitate Mr. Morley's "clear and steady gaze" at the present position may perhaps have conduced to make my estimate of it unduly sober. All depends upon the Irish people themselves. So long as they avoid further differences and maintain in Parliament a party of seventy united Nationalists, as at present, it can scarcely be doubted that they will ultimately command the situation—unless "Labor," with its shadowy aspirations, and claims which are to so many apparently subversive of true liberty, involves every other issue at home and abroad.

D. B.

## KASHMIR.

MARIENBAD, BOHEMIA, August, 1893.

IT suffices to mention the name of any of the better-known divisions of the world to call up in the mind of an intelligent and educated though untravelled person, by some obscure association of ideas, a fairly definite conception of the kind of scenery characteristic of the region in question; and this conception will be much the same for all sorts of men, and is a kind of international possession. The source of it is not so easily indicated, but it will, I believe, in most cases be found to take its rise in some one book wherein the spirit of the locality has been at some time enshrined. Kashmir, except as the land of shawls, is to most men the land of 'Lalla Rookh.' As Moore described it, most people conceive it to be a country of gardens and waterfalls and fair women, a country of glades and lawns and pleasant places, a land of luxury and even wantonness, the home of song and dance, where the unclouded sun is not too scorching, and fresh breezes are ever wafted from glittering hills. Unfortunately, Moore was never in Kashmir, and the country he described was a realm of his own fancy. Kashmir is beautiful, but not with the kind of beauty of 'Lalla Rookh.' It has no waterfalls, no palm trees, and but little aspect of gayety. Its charm is of a subtle and subdued character, and the newcomer is liable to be at first disappointed and disillusioned.

For us in England the name of Kashmir calls up a rather more definite but even falser image. We all have Anglo-Indian cousins, whose modes of thought and manner of life are more foreign to us than those of our transatlantic kinsmen. The Anglo-Indian tells us of Kashmir, but we do not realize the atmosphere in which he is accustomed to live and the scenery by which he is usually surrounded; we are therefore unable to put ourselves into his place or to see with his eyes. Kashmir is to him the very garden of the world, because he goes to it from the burnt and fever-stricken plains of India and not from green and fertile Europe. Its wealth of vegetation is magnified by contrast, and multiplied afterwards by memory playing about it in the hot days before the breaking of the monsoon. Its surrounding hills are the hunting-ground where the young subaltern spends the happiest days of his life. Thus, in the mouth of the Anglo-Indian, Kashmir becomes a paradise of surpassing loveliness, which (he being for the most part a wordless person) he makes no attempt to describe, still less to criticise, but is content to rave about when the mood takes him.

Historically, Kashmir has had two interesting epochs. The first was from about the beginning of the second century B. C. to about the end of the eighth century A. D., or later. It was during this time that the country was dotted over with the charming little Siva temples, showing Hellenistic architectural influence, the ruins of which, some of them almost perfect, add so much to the interest of the country to-day. The second of the periods that have left their mark upon Kashmir was the time when it belonged to the Moghul Emperors. They made it their summer resort, and covered it with the charming gardens which still exist in the neighborhood of the capital, Srinagar (pronounced Srĭnúgger). It is also said that to them was due the introduction into the country of the chinar tree, which adds so much to the picturesqueness of the village neighborhoods. The English took it when they conquered Lahore, but they promptly sold it for £2,500,000—a sum which, I believe, was never paid. It remains merely a protected, and till recently a vilely misgoverned, native State, into which white men are admitted only on sufferance.

Kashmir proper is but a small portion of the kingdom of Kashmir; it is the Vale and no more. The Himalayas, coming from the south-east, divide into two branches, of which the northern continues to form the left bank of the Indus valley; the southern is the Pir Panjal range. The Vale of Kashmir is an ancient lake basin, about seventy miles long by thirty miles wide, included between the two ranges. From the crest of the Pir Panjal you can look down on to Kashmir on one side and on to the plains of the Panjab on the other. Through the now filled up level of the Vale, the waters of the Jhelam lazily meander in series of wide loops, till they come to the gates of the gorge which they have cut through an in-

tricate rock-bound district, westwards and then southwards to the burning plains. The kingdom of Kashmir stretches far to the north and west, and its frontiers are not yet diplomatically defined; but its natural and practically its actual boundary is the line of the Hindu-Kush and Mustagh ranges, beyond which lie Russian Turkestan, the Pamirs, and Chinese Turkestan. Eastwards the Maharaja's dominions include that portion of Thibet known as Ladak, or little Thibet; westwards they terminate vaguely in the no-man's-land on the banks of the Indus, inhabited by a set of chaotic robber tribes, most of whose barren fastnesses have never been penetrated by any civilized traveller in historic times. The whole of this large area, beyond the Vale, is to all intents and purposes desert—mere crumpled Sahara below, on which the ice-bound region rests. This is the hunting ground of Kashmir, interesting to sportsmen and mountaineers, and destined some day to attract the attention of gold-miners, but otherwise dreary and desolate, "sunburnt and sorrowful" below, frozen aloft, sparsely inhabited by a few forlorn tribes who derive a scanty subsistence from patches of sand artificially irrigated.

The royal road by which the Moghul court used to enter the Vale of Kashmir was carried over an easy pass in the Pir Panjal. The route was divided into easy stages, and at the end of each was built a large *serai*. Some of these still exist in tolerable repair; others have fallen into hopeless ruin. Special permission must now be obtained from the Maharaja (through the British Resident) to travel by this route. The other principal ancient way into the valley was from Rawal Pindi up the gorge of the Jhelam. A wretched and often dangerous mule-track, which wandered vaguely up and down hill to turn the various gorges, was till recently the track that the traveller by this route had to follow. Of recent years, however, an admirable high road has been made along the Jhelam, and a swift service of *tongas* organized, so that it is now possible to drive rapidly (in three days or less) from Pindi by way of Mari, Kohala, and Domel to Baramula, where the level Vale opens out. At the end of every stage the Maharaja has built an excellent *dâk bangla* (practically a hotel), where the traveller and his servants can dine, sleep, and breakfast at a nominal price. Some of these *dâk banglas* are surprisingly good, most picturesquely situated, and well furnished, but no one is allowed to make a stay in them. The first comer must always give place to the last arrival and go forward along the road.

At Baramula the charm and life of Kashmir commence. Henceforward the road and the tonga are quitted, and the river and *dunga* take their place. A *dunga* is a long kind of flat-bottomed punt, with a house of matting built upon it. The walls of the house are matting blinds, which can be rolled up. The boat is unequally divided into two chambers, in the hinder of which the boatmen live. It is usual to engage one of these boats for each white member of the party and one for the cook and servants. They are towed or paddled or punted up the river; down stream they are permitted to drift. Comfortable European house-boats can be hired at Srinagar, but the proper life of the river is lived in a *dunga*, and, for men not intending to make a prolonged stay, they suffice.

After the hot and dusty journey through the Panjab to Pindi, and the cantering drive of over 150 miles thence to Baramula, nothing is more delightful than to glide out on to the silent waters in the evening of arrival, and moor for the night a short distance above the village. Not a sound, save the lapping of ripples against the boat, breaks the stillness of the night. Soft breezes pass under the raised curtains and play gently over face and hair. The stars shine not too brightly in the sky, while their doubles dance in the water, and if there be moon enough, a faint suspicion of distant mountains and snowy crests may be felt in the far distance beyond the flat of fertile fields where all things are asleep.

Before you awake next morning the boat is on its way, following the tow-rope so lazily that it only rocks you into deeper slumber. The light presently frets the matting walls, and when you cause them to be uprolled, the sky is bright before you in the water, and, beyond the bank, rise the hills in clear silhouette against the glowing east. Now and again a boat urged by paddlers rowing to a musical refrain passes by, picturesque husbandmen look down on you from the banks, and here and there a village diversifies the simple view. As the sun climbs higher the air becomes filled with a tender mist impregnated with light. All the details of the mountains are blotted out by it so that the snowy crests appear to swim in the gay atmosphere. The light mist always lies upon the plain, and seems to be a part of the sky that has fallen there and been forgotten. Nothing is ever hard and clear. All outlines are soft. There is always a glitter of light as though diamond dust were diffused about.

The day passes lazily by, and you find your boat entering the Wular lake. The hills rise from the water on two sides, the plain stretches away on the third. Perhaps you may catch a glimpse of Bandipur on the north bank and of the new zigzag mule-track, closed to travellers, along which lies the way to Gilgit and the Pamirs—the natural trade-route into Central Asia. The boatmen now bend to their work, for they fear the gusts of wind that sweep unheralded from the hills and make the passage of the lake perilous. It is soon crossed, and you are in the Jhelam again, with the banks and the trees passing lazily by and the hills shifting their position to the bending of the stream.

With a double crew and a moderate backshish, you can, no doubt, mount much more swiftly, but no one in a hurry should visit Kashmir. The spirit of the country is not for him. It can be appreciated only by those who can be idle with delight, and can spend without boredom all the hours of a summer day lying on their backs amid beautiful surroundings, and thanking Heaven that they are alive. The lazy traveller with his lazy crew will tie up for the night somewhere against the bank, and the morrow will be as its predecessor. Towards evening Srinagar will be near, and fortunate is he who enters its waterway towards sunset, when all the air is full of gold, save where drifts of smoke from the wood fires glide athwart it in bands of blue.

In the full flare of midday the irregular wooden houses that crowd the river banks and the foul alleys look sordid enough; but towards evening, when the sunset lies on the water and floats in the sky, a glamour envelops the whole and makes of the city an ethereal paradise, a place of dreams and wonder, and of the people that navigate its streams and canals, not men, but the modelled conceptions of a sculptor's happiest hours, moving about amidst objects from another world. The Mosque of Shah Hamadan is passed about half-way up the town. It is beautiful at all hours of the day, with the beauty, chaste and reserved, which seems to be the prerogative of almost all Moslem architecture in whatever country it is found. The plated tent-shaped roofs of the Hindu temples flash back the light from the sky, and even the tawdry palaces of the governing caste borrow for a moment from the witchery of advancing night a dignity not their own. The passage of the town is always exciting, owing to the press and throng of hurrying boats; the contrasting peace that follows, when the houses are left behind and only parks and fields spread on either hand, is all the more delightful. Lines of noble poplars define the margin of the shore and are reflected black in the water. The hills approach. In another mile the boat reaches its destination—the banglas and camping ground called the Munshi Bagh, reserved for the use of foreign visitors accompanied by ladies.

To bachelors the Chinar Bagh is assigned. It is a damp but beautiful park, lining one side of the narrow river that connects the Jhelam with the Dal Lake, the pearl of Kashmir. The visitor's first expedition should be to the summit of the hill, close behind the baghs, called the Takti-Suliman. It is crowned by the most ancient and approximately perfect temple in Kashmir, and it commands a gorgeous panorama. The whole vale spreads abroad on one side to the encircling mountains; the city, with its grass-carpeted, flower-adorned roofs, is at the foot, and its suburbs and fields straggle round and merge into the floating gardens that are moored on the still surface of the lake itself. To see the Dal Lake is to be irresistibly attracted towards it. An hour's paddling brings you there. You wander about it and visit the beautiful Moghul Gardens that succeed one another round its banks. The best of them is, perhaps, the Shalimar Bagh, where Shah Jehan and his favorite wife, Nur Mahal (for whom was built the Taj Mahal at Agra), were reconciled on the Feast of Roses. It is a garden of the formal Persian kind, whose plan is the pattern of so many Oriental carpets. The terraces are symmetrically divided by paths into shady parterres. A marble-bedded stream comes dancing down in the midst, carried over little marble slopes whose surfaces are so engraved in patterns that the water rippling down them looks like crystal drapery. Pools, baths, and fountains, both in the open air and beneath pavilions, succeed one another on different levels, and there are picturesque houses on the various terraces whose every window commands an entrancing view between trees and over the lake to the hills that swim in the sky. In such surroundings, by choice in the months of April and May, when the fruit trees are in blossom, the flowers are hurrying forth to greet the sun, and the plains of India are becoming intolerably hot, the traveller may spend delightful days, whose passage, if he be in restful mood, will scarcely be perceived.

The bed of the Vale of Kashmir is more than 5,000 feet above the sea. The winter is, therefore, cold enough and the lake is sometimes frozen over. The hot weather is likewise rather emphatic, and the skirts of the monsoon reach into the valley and bring many days of rain and thunder. But heat and rain can be easily escaped by quitting the Vale itself and visiting the high side valleys, each of which has a charm and loveliness of its own. A fully equipped camp can be hired for a small sum from Samad Shah, or any of the other Srinagar merchants, and the necessary coolies can be engaged, body and soul, for four pence a day each. On the way, perhaps, to one of the summer resorts, or merely as an excursion from Srinagar, the visitor will not fail to

mount the Jhelam for two or three days to the upper limit of its navigable portion. He will thus pass the ruined temples of the ancient capital, Avantipur, and the picturesque city and bridge of Bijbehara. At Islamabad he will quit his boat and visit the interesting, though greatly over-praised, ruins of the so-called Temple of the Sun at Martand and the sacred places at the river's source. If he then returns and spends a few weeks in the park-like Lolab and more magnificent Sind valleys, and, perhaps, goes for a short time to the Anglo-Indian summer settlement of Gulmerg (where he can hire a plot of ground and have a wooden house built for a ten-pound note, selling it a month later at half-price to a new-comer), he will have spent the cheapest, probably the most delightful, six months of his life. If he is travelling with ladies who can ride and are moderately adventurous, he might return to India by riding for two months along a good, though sometimes giddy, mule road to Ladak (where he will see Thibet in sample), and then over the Himalayas, by easy but high passes, and through the valleys of Kulu, some of the most beautiful in the world, to Simla.

To conclude with a practical remark. A couple of men willing to rough it, about as much as one roughs it in out-of-the-way parts of the Tyrol (and that is not much), could spend six months along this route from Rawal Pindi, through Kashmir and Ladak, to Simla without consuming more than £150 each, and they might do it for considerably less. They would have, of course, to learn Hindustani, which can be done in ten days. A larger party, including ladies, and travelling with a tent for each European and one or two sitting-room tents, could scarcely succeed in spending more than £1,000 in the same time and over the same ground. The journey is not in the least suited for persons of the tourist habit of mind; but to those who have in them anything of the traveller's spirit it cannot be over-recommended. The country is throughout healthy, and invalids are constantly sent from India to wander through it. W. M. Conway.

# Correspondence.

## THE JUDICIAL POWER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an address delivered in Washington, September 18, 1893, on the occasion of the 100th anniversary of the laying of the corner-stone of the Capitol, Hon. Henry B. Brown, in speaking of Chief-Justice Marshall, said:

"In the case of Marbury vs. Madison, which arose at John Marshall s very first term, he declared the judicial power to extend to an annulment of an act of Congress in conflict with the Constitution, a doctrine peculiar to this country. . . . The lack of this check upon the legislature has wrecked the Constitution of a foreign State, and it is safe to say that our own would not long have survived a contrary decision. Had Marshall rendered no other service to the country, this of itself would have been sufficient to entitle him to its gratitude."

The doctrine of the power of a court to annul an act of the Legislature was not unknown to American jurisprudence previous to the decision of Marbury vs. Madison. In October, 1786, six months before the meeting of the Convention that framed the Constitution, a court of Rhode Island, in the case of Trevett vs. Weeden (not reported), held the "forcing act" to be unconstitutional (McMaster's 'History of the People of the United States,' vol. i., pp. 337-339). The doctrine was recognized by Chancellor Wythe in May, 1793, in the case of Page vs. Pendleton. In that case the power of the Legislature of Virginia to pass a valid law confiscating debts due by Americans to citizens of Great Britain at the outbreak of the Revolutionary War was denied, on the ground that such a law would be repugnant to the law of nations. (Wythe's 'Virginia Reports.') Marshall studied law under Wythe, and it is probable that he was familiar with Wythe's views on the subject. Edgar R. Rombauer.

St. Louis, September 19, 1893.

## "PRACTITIONER."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A request has been addressed to a friend of mine: he has asked me to comply with it in his stead, and I now do so. The request is, "to trace the origin and adoption into good usage of that most ungainly and misshapen word, *practitioner*."

This word, with every early one of the same class, has French for its base. It was built up on *practicien*.

Similar to it, and apparently somewhat older, is *parishioner*, due to *paroissien*, through its medieval Anglicized corruptions, *paresschen*, *parysshen*, *parisschen*, *pareshon*, *parishion*, etc., etc., of which the ancient doublet was *paroschian*, afterwards *parochian*. Then there is *logitioner*, from *logicien*, authorized by the Rev. Dr. Nicholas Harpsfield (about 1555), by the Rev. Dr. Thomas Stapleton (1565), and by James Sanford (1569); as there is likewise *pragmatitioner*, from *pragmaticien*, in R. C.'s translation from Henri Estienne, *The World of Wonders* (1607). Add *scrivener*, for which Chaucer, Lydgate, and others have *scriven* or *scriveyn*, the old French *escrivain* apheresized, if the original of the word be not the Italian *scrivano*.

An imitation of the vocables instanced is *musicianer*, a serious term with William Lithgow in 1632, used humorously in the *Musical Travels* of Joel Collier, or John Bicknel (1774), and found as now, as a vulgarism, in Gen. John Burgoyne's *Maid of the Oaks* (1779). Representing illiterate blunders are, farther, *physicioner* and *physicianer*, which occur, respectively, in Mrs. M. Pilkington's *Celebrity* (1815) and in Mrs. Eliza Nathan's *Langreath* (1822).

To *practition*, an actual or an assumed depravation of *practitian*, the termination *-er* was irregularly affixed, in order to produce a form thoroughly familiar to the popular eye and ear. Elongations more or less like that exhibited in *practitioner* we have in the chronicler Capgrave's *fischerer*, for *fisher;* in John Lyly's *arbiterer*, for *arbiter;* in the old *alchemister*, and *furtherer*, for *further;* in *Britisher*, *foreigner*, *fruiterer*, *poulterer*, *upholsterer*, *lesser;* and in the dialectal *chemister*, *masoner*, *teamer*, *lesserer*, *worserer*, and so on.

*Practician*, recorded by the lexicographer Minsheu, has been used by Coleridge (1810), Mrs. Sarah Austin (1833), and John Sterling (1839). Richard Brathwait (1640) has *practist;* Bp. John Gauden (1661), *practicant*. To return to *practition*, referable to it is the *practitional* of the Rev. William Watson (1602) and of Robert Southey (1807).

That *practition* has had existence may well be, seeing how common *magition*, *musition*, and *phisition* once were. For *parishion*, mentioned above, we have the authority of Charles Wriothesley (before 1561), after whose manner many, doubtless, spelled before him; the Rev. William Catton having written *parishioner* about 1488, as did the Rev. Nicholas Udall in 1545, and Bp. Bonner in 1554.

*Paryshon*, *parishon*, in *The Revelation of the Monk of Evesham* (1482, or earlier), pp. 88, 104 (Mr. Arber's edition), I here pass by, with many other points touched on where I discuss *parishioner* and *practitioner* in *Recent Exemplifications of False Philology* (1872). Nor need I dilate on the heteroclite *addression*, *fallacion*, *reminiscion*, *conscionable*, *conscionless*, *conscientional*, *equinoctional*, etc., most of which are adduced for remark in my *English Adjectives in -able* (1877).

*Practitioner*, it seems likely, came up not long prior to the middle of the sixteenth century. The Rev. Nicholas Udall has it in 1545, from about which time occurrences of it steadily become more and more frequent.

Now, at all events, as being distinctly differentiated from *practiser*, it has, admittedly, the marked merit of unquestionable utility; and this fact, coupled with that of its thorough establishment, would suffice for its justification, even if, from an etymological point of view, it were a monstrosity altogether unique.

F. H.

Marlesford, England, August 25, 1893.

P. S. Writing recently on the verb *predicate*, I omitted, in naming words kindred to it, overlooked by dictionary-makers, that which is italicized in the following quotation:

"But, in the generall declination and decay of Arts which followed after, this [*i. e.* Rhetorique] likewise was well neare extinguished; that little of it which remained being reserved onely in the *predicancie* of Postillars, or the pathetical sermons of Friers, till Sadoletus, Bembus, Muretus, and others revived and reduced it to its ancient lustre." Rev. Dr. George Hakewell, *An Apologie or Declaration of the Power and Providence of God*, etc. (1627), p. 261 (ed. 1630).

The factitious Latin *praedicantia* means 'sermon,' 'homily,' 'oral address.' *Predicancy*, as cited, may signify 'language of expostulation or fervent remonstrance.'

# Notes.

The Fleming H. Revell Co. will issue shortly 'The Growth and Development of the English Printed Bible,' by Richard Lovett; 'The Early Spread of Religious Ideas, especially in the Far East,' by Dr. Edkins; and 'Social Life among the Assyrians and Babylonians,' by Prof. A. H. Sayce.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will undertake a complete edition of the works of George Eliot, including the 'Life and Letters' edited by Mr. Cross, with illustrations. There will be a popular set of six volumes, and one for the library in ten volumes, with photogravure frontispieces.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' fall announcements include Rousseau's 'Social Contract,' translated by Rose M. Harrington; Gottfried Kinkel's 'Tanagra,' translated by Frances Hellman, the competent translator of Heine; 'The Evolution of Woman,' by Eliza Burt Gamble; 'The Monism of Man,' by David A. Gorton, M.D.; 'Man an Organic Community,' by John H. King; 'The Progress and the Morals of Secularism,' by John M. Bonham; 'An Historical Interpretation of Philosophy,' by John Bascom; 'Art in Theory: An Introduction to the study of Æsthetics,' by George L. Raymond; 'A Manual of Linguistics,' by John Clark, M.A; 'Industrial Arbitration and Conciliation,' by Josephine Shaw Lowell; 'The New

Primary,' by Daniel S. Remsen; 'Comparative Administrative Law,' by Prof. F. J. Goodenow of Columbia College; and 'The Pottery and Porcelain of the United States: An Historical Review,' by Edwin A. Barber, A.M.

Lovell, Coryell & Co. have in preparation a new collection of stories, principally of Australian life and character, by A. Conan Doyle, with the title, 'My Friend the Murderer, and Other Mysteries and Adventures.'

P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia, announce a new illustrated 'Dictionary of Medicine, Biology, and Collateral Sciences,' edited by Dr. George M. Gould.

A fresh mass of reprints awaits brief mention, first in line being the second volume of Pepys's Diary, edited by Mr. Henry B. Wheatley (London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan), which we have already discussed at length. The present illustrations are a portrait of the Earl of Sandwich, a glazed stoneware bust of the buxom Mrs. Pepys, and a drawing of William Hewer—all very acceptable. It is sufficient, too, just to enumerate the additions to Dent's charming edition of the works of the Brontë sisters (Macmillan), viz., 'Wuthering Heights' and 'Agnes Grey' in two volumes, 'The Professor' in one, and the Poems in one, leaving two of the twelve yet to be accounted for. The "Stories from *Scribner*" gain another tiny volume in 'Stories from Italy,' to which F. Hopkinson Smith, T. R. Sullivan, John J. A'Becket, and Grace Ellery Channing contribute. From Messrs. Scribner we have also a uniform set of the Works of George W. Cable, in five volumes at a popular price, and another of the Works of Thomas Nelson in four volumes, equally reasonable. In both cases the binding is tasteful enough for any library in which books are read at all. The same firm, finally, add to their "Cameo Edition" Andrew Lang's 'Letters to Dead Authors,' and R. L. Stevenson's 'Virginibus Puerisque,' and also issue the same works in a limited edition printed on Holland paper. Mr. Lang, we should note, swells the number of his letters by four new ones—to John Knox, Increase Mather, Homer, and Mr. Samuel Pepys.

The title story in F. Anstey's reprint from *Punch*, 'The Man from Blankley's, and Other Sketches' (Longmans), is the only one which can be called an addition to this humorist's familiar repertory. Any of the rest has had its counterpart in his previous collections. Nevertheless, those who come new to Mr. Anstey may as well begin with this volume as with any other, and cannot fail to be amused by it, since only to the initiated does it lack variety. Mr. Partridge's illustrations are as clever and telling as ever.

Mrs. Mary B. Claflin's 'Personal Recollections of John G. Whittier' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.) adds not much to his well-known traits, though it contains a few new anecdotes, some extracts from his correspondence with the writer, and the first attempt we have seen to indicate his homely New England speech. "Our folks [the Friends] have got to talking t' much" (p. 16); "Liddy [Lydia Maria Child] . . . has worn that bunnit for ten years, but she had some new fixin' on it to-day" (p. 79). Apropos of foolish and gushing women who annoyed Whittier by their remarks, Mrs. Claflin says the poet told her that "at the Radical Club a woman stopped me in the middle of the parlor among all the folks and said: 'I've long wished to see you, Mr. Whittier, to ask what you thought of the subjective and the objective.' Why, I thought the woman was crazy, and I said: 'I don't know anything about either of 'em'" (p. 67). There are two portraits in this little book—the frontispiece excellent. Frederick Douglass's name is misspelled on p. 46, and two words are made one in the first line of poetry on p. 14.

Mr. Eyre Crowe, A.R.A., frankly advises the reader that the letterpress of his 'With Thackeray in America' (Scribners) is only a running commentary on the sketches, and that the latter are of little value except for their connection, more or less remote, with the name and charm of Thackeray, whose private secretary he was on the tour. This is almost as perilous a fabric as the Hindu mythology, with its world resting on an elephant and the elephant on a turtle—especially as, in this case, the turtle, in the person of Thackeray, is only as dimly and doubtfully present as the smile of the vanished Cheshire cat. The book, in fact, distinctly disappoints the expectations which its title arouses. The dead level of the text is broken by little more than several amusing inaccuracies, and the most that one can get out of the illustrations, which as a whole are interesting in neither subject nor execution, is an occasional reminiscence of a building that has ceased to exist, or of a face which the world has come to know in quite other guise than that offered us in Mr. Crowe's pen-and-ink drawing.

As a result of the celebration of the Izaak Walton tercentenary, the venerable Church of St. Dunstan's, Fleet Street, where Walton was once churchwarden, is to become the repository of a stained-glass window to his memory. That the New World does not fall behind the Old either in interest in the famous fisherman or in his no less famous book, is shown by the erection on the Fair grounds, by the Chicago Fly-Casting Club, of a facsimile of his small house on the River Dove, and by the purchase by one of our countrymen from Pickering & Chatto, in London, of a copy of the first edition of the 'Compleat Angler,' at the handsome figure of £235. By way of contrast to this lordly sum, an edition at 1s. 6d. has just been issued by F. Warne & Co. This, together with the illustrated edition of the Bagsters already mentioned, and the numerous articles in periodicals, makes a literary tribute worthy of the importance of the anniversary in the annals of piscatorial science.

The essays read at the School of Applied Ethics at Plymouth, Mass., during the session of 1892, have been republished in book form by T. Y. Crowell & Co., under the title, 'Philanthropy and Social Progress.' These essays are seven in number, and it is significant that three of them deal directly with the colonization idea exemplified in the so-called university settlements.

The twelfth annual report of the Dante Society of Cambridge, Mass., is noticeable for Prof. Norton's tribute to the late Dr. T. W. Parsons as a translator of the 'Divine Comedy,' and for the reprint of an article by Dr. Edward Moore, very helpful in establishing Dante's indebtedness as between Cicero and Aristotle in the division and order of sins in the Inferno, as to which there has been some misconception. The membership of the Society appears to grow slowly. The usual list of accessions to its Dante Collection is appended.

—Our notice of the Japanese School for Nurses in Kyoto brings to a correspondent analogous reminiscences there. He writes:

"Just two years ago, two travellers, in a Kyoto hotel where I was a guest, disputed about the meaning of the word 'adoption' in the Shaksperian line, 'The friends thou hast and their adoption tried,' and asked my opinion in the case. What I said was overheard by Dr. Berry of the Doshisha Hospital, and the next day he called on me with a request that I would spend an hour that evening in a Shaksperian *conversazione* with missionaries—teachers in different departments of the Doshisha—as well as six Japanese young ladies who were about to commence the study of 'As You Like It.' Those present were more than thirty. Their intelligent questions and well-considered remarks were to me an equal surprise and pleasure. The great dramatist did not, like his *Puck*, put a girdle round the earth in forty minutes, but the girdle in which he has now bound the globe will endure for ever. It is a bond lighter than air, yet stronger than iron. During my stay in Kyoto the Doshisha School of Science was opened in a building erected by Jonathan Harris of New London, Conn., at a cost of $100,000. Here, as everywhere in Japan, an increasing majority of teachers were already native. The Professor of Biology, N. H. Kodama, M.D., had come home with the honors of both American and European universities. All real estate in educational establishments is necessarily, according to Japanese laws, registered in the names of natives."

—Americans have so generally come to regard the Roman Inquisition as a dead institution that many of them will probably be surprised to know that it has recently passed sentence of condemnation against one of the most distinguished of English men of science. Prof. St. George Mivart is one of the few Roman Catholics who, until recently, have found proficiency in science compatible with adherence to Roman Catholic doctrine; henceforth, however, he must either abandon the conclusions to which his scientific training has led him or be excommunicated, for the Inquisition and the Congregation of the Index have so decreed. He has been guilty of publishing heretical doctrines of the following nature: To the *Nineteenth Century* magazine last December he contributed an article entitled "Happiness in Hell," in which he argued that there is nothing in the Bible or in Catholic dogma to warrant the supposition that everybody in hell is actively tormented for ever. Virtuous pagans, for instance, though assigned to hell because, having lived before Christ's coming, they had not enjoyed baptism, might pass their eternity, even though they were in hell, in comparative comfort. The real hell for them and for every one consisted in ignorance of God's scheme of salvation through the Catholic Church—that deprivation being of itself sufficient punishment, without the addition of red-hot gridirons and brimstone. Such opinions certainly did honor to Prof. Mivart's humanity, though they displayed ignorance of the fixed policy of his Church. His views were immediately attacked, decrees and precedents were cited against him, and his opponents plainly enough intimated that, if they could not silence him by logic, they had something stronger than logic to beat him with. This was the Congregation of the Inquisition. The dozen cardinals who make up that select committee, with their *consultors* and *qualificators*, proceeded to examine Prof. Mivart's articles, and found them worthy of condemnation. The Congregation of the Index, whose duty it is to publish a list of works which, having been judged heretical, Catholics are prohibited, under penalties amounting even to excommunication, from publishing, reading, or having in their possession, concurred in this decision, which was ratified by the Pope on July 21 and ordered to be promulgated.

—What will Prof. Mivart do? The Catholic Church clings to hell as the sheet anchor whereby she keeps her hold over the vast majority of her members; as a Catholic, Prof,

Mivart must cling to hell too, or run the risk of discovering for himself whether or not happiness is possible there. The article, in the *Nineteenth Century* for September, in which Father Clarke of the Society of Jesus sums up the matter is a model of the studied urbanity with which trained Jesuits apply poultices to the broken backs of their victims.

"This decree," he says, "is decisive respecting the general tendency of the articles in question. It proscribes the doctrine that they teach as in opposition to Catholic dogma. *It does not select any special assertions therein contained for note or censure*, and we therefore have no right to pass sentence on any individual proposition laid down by Prof. Mivart. All that we know for certain is, that in general the articles are condemned alike by the Congregation of the Inquisition and the Congregation of the Index. The decree of the former is a dogmatic decree, and declares them at variance with the teaching of the Church; that of the latter is rather prohibitory than dogmatic, and its primary motive is their dangerous consequences to their readers. No one can fail to recognize the motives that influenced their author. He was actuated by a generous desire to help those who were wavering in their faith, and he thought to do so by departing from the traditional doctrine respecting the eternal punishment of the wicked. The recent decision has shown him to be mistaken in his judgment. The controversy is now happily at an end. *Roma locuta est: causa finita est.*"

The case furnishes a curious comment on the bland utterances of Roman Catholic prelates at the recent Congress of Religions.

—The fourth volume of the *Harvard Studies in Classical Philology* (Ginn & Co.) presents the same combination of scholarship, good sense, workmanlike style, and varied material which has characterized the previous issues. The first article deserves special notice. It is a monograph by Mr. Albert A. Howard on the αὐλός, or *tibia*, *i. e.*, on the flutes, clarinets, and flageolets of the ancients, from which it is possible to learn almost everything that is known of the instruments of this type which were used by the Greeks and Romans. The article is chiefly interesting on account of the diligence with which Mr. Howard has examined the ancient works of art in which these instruments are represented, and because the writer has himself personally conducted very instructive experiments with instruments made for him on the model of those αὐλοί which have come down to us from antiquity. The ability to conduct such experiments in a scientific way implies a familiarity with that branch of physics concerned with musical sounds which is certainly not often met with among classical students. It would be impossible, in the space at our command, to give an idea of the numerous questions discussed in this article. Mr. Howard's views with regard to the identification of certain parts of the αὐλός with corresponding parts of modern instruments deserve particular attention; but the discussion is too technical to be given here. It is high praise to say, in general, that the essay extends and supplements in many important particulars Von Jan's article in Baumeister's 'Denkmäler,' to which it often refers and on which it is partially based. Prof. J. B. Greenough contributes some statistics and an interesting discussion towards the question whether the Saturnian verse was quantitative or accentual. His discussion is largely concerned with the Sapphic metre as treated by Horace in the familiar line (for example)

"Integer vitæ scelerisque purus,"

which is still sung to a German air, with the word-accent represented in Canning's "Needy Knife-grinder, whither art thou going?" whereas, in Sappho and in the classic Latin, the stress falls according to quantity, as shown by our italics. Prof. Greenough, after an exhaustive examination, finds that in Horace all the verses of this stanza, except about one in ten, may be read with the word-accent. Nearly the same ratio applies to the Alcaic verse. He infers, therefore, that this feature is not accidental; that Horace, keeping in mind the ancient folk-song, based upon word-accent, intended to make his odes accessible to the people although following Greek models and quantity. The accentual feeling of rhythm to which the early Latin ear was attuned, discloses itself very clearly in the verses of Ennius and Nævius, in which only one in five of the ictuses fails to conform to the word-accent, as in English poetry. Mr. Greenough's researches confirm, therefore, the opinion of Keller and Klotz, that the Latins began with an accentual rhythm, to which they reverted in the decay of scholarship and of learned writing. To this may be added the curious fact that we are indebted to the Horatian treatment of the Sapphic and Alcaic metres for the earliest forms of Christian hymnology.

—The very able and learned paper of Prof. J. H. Wright, entitled "Herondæa," gives one reason to be proud of American scholarship even when working under the disadvantage of distance from original manuscripts. It presents a skilful analysis, derived from the photographic facsimile of the Herondas papyrus, of the system of punctuation observed by the scribe, the special marks used by him, his processes and sources in copying; and finally offers some critical observations on the text and some felicitous interpretations and emendations. Among these is the crux in i., 55, where Prof. Wright accepts Crusius's reading, ἄθικτος ἐς κυθηρίην σφρηγίς, but inserts a pause before the latter word, and interprets it as referring to secrecy, discretion. Hence the old woman who is recommending to the grass-widow, Metriche, the attentions of the young athlete Gryllus, commends him as "heart-free—and silent as the grave"; a man of honor and discretion. In the third mime, by reading Molon instead of Maron (lines 24–26), Mr. Wright brings the verses into connection with the seventh idyl of Theocritus, where the scholiast mentions Simon and Molon as rivals in a love affair of the famous astronomer-poet Aratus. In this way a piquant and mischievous allusion to local gossip of the island of Cos is supplied in the verses, which fits the Coan affinities of Herondas and would be appreciated by his Coan readers. The erudite defence of these readings and interpretations we cannot summarize; but the confusion of l and r, we may note, is still commonly made in Athens, where the word ἀδελφός is constantly written and spoken ἀδερφός. We cannot resist the temptation to refer to the ingenio s and highly probable explanation given by Prof. Frederick D. Allen of the phrase πεῖραρ ἐλέσθαι in the "Shield of Achilles" (Iliad 18,501). He suggests that the litigants, in presence of the umpire, actually seize a rope and carry on a symbolic contest at which he presides. The "tug of war" is undoubtedly alluded to in other passages of the Iliad; and, in the present passage, it would be the survival of an earlier form of contest in which the strongest actually won his case in the presence of the referee. It is simply a gentler form of the European trial by combat, and is found prevailing in substance among various savage tribes. A similar theory prevailed in Roman law, according to which Sir Henry Maine has shown that the magistrate can interfere only when he actually sees the quarrel going on before him. Accordingly, Prof. Allen explains the law term *manus consertio* as a mimic ceremony, in which the claimants "linked hands," to typify either a wrestling-match, or more probably a pulling-match, in the process of *vindicatio* as applied to land. In the earliest times the magistrate used to go to the land, and the act was performed before him; later, witnesses of the ceremony were substituted for the magistrate's presence, and a clod was brought into court by way of token; finally, the custom survived only as a form of words.

## TWO STUDIES IN PHILOSOPHICAL IDEALISM.

*The Critical Philosophy of Immanuel Kant.* By Edward Caird, LL.D. Macmillan & Co. 1889. 2 vols. Pp. xxiv, 654, xix, 660.

*The Evolution of Religion:* The Gifford Lectures, delivered before the University of St. Andrews in Sessions 1890-'91 and 1891-'92. By Edward Caird, LL.D., D.C.L. Macmillan & Co. 2 vols. Pp. xv, 400, vii, 334.

THE Gifford Lectures on the 'Evolution of Religion,' recently published by Prof. Caird, form a natural complement to the earlier work on Kant, with which we here couple them. The two books together contain by far the most elaborate statement that any member of the British Hegelian school has thus far put into print concerning his attitude towards the fundamental problems of recent philosophy; and it is but obvious justice to observe at once that these publications put Prof. Caird himself at the very head of that well-known and influential, if not very numerous, group of thinkers. He, to be sure, has none of the eccentric genius that once made Dr. Hutchinson Stirling so stimulating and bewildering a leader of studious philosophical youth. Nor is he the equal of Mr. Bradley in brilliancy of dialectical skill. But in quantity and importance of scholarly work he surpasses all his fellows. Even Mr. Bosanquet cannot, at least as yet, be put beside him.

The British Hegelians may best be described as a group of thinkers who have lived long in the world of truth with the most conscientious effort to conform to its ways, but who generally have the gently embarrassed manners of people who are not precisely heirs to its treasures, but only, as it were, younger sons, dependent, a little, upon the courtesy of the original possessors. There has been, among these men, too exclusive a devotion to the business of historical criticism, too much timidity about reading the lesson of history in their own way. Historical criticism is, indeed, also the current method of philosophizing in Germany; but there men like Benno Erdmann or Vaihinger or Dilthey are students of the history of thought largely because their attitude towards constructive metaphysic has all along been sceptical. The men of the British Hegelian group, on the contrary, are no sceptics. They always intend to let us know that they have a constructive philosophical creed, and a significant one, too. Why then—so many a student has said to himself, a little impatiently—why then do they for ever dissect the paragraphs and analyze the perplexities of one Immanuel Kant? Why do they not risk their own statement of doctrine for whatever it is worth, not ignoring history, but summing up its meaning as they can, and portraying its outcome as they see it? Why, thus analyzing their Kant, or even venturing upon a modest biographical sketch of Hegel, or writing a His-

tory of Æsthetic—why must they for ever plead their cause in another's name? "Why don't you speak for yourself, John?" Such, despite the actual constructive efforts of the individual members of the school—despite Green's 'Prolegomena to Ethics,' despite two important treatises on Logic that have issued from the group of thinkers in question—such, after all, remains even now the general impression of the reader of current philosophical literature. One may be pardoned, then, if, notwithstanding the elaborateness of Prof. Caird's *Riesenwerk* on Kant (as a German critic has called that book), notwithstanding its scholarship, and, in one direction at least, its unexampled thoroughness, one finds it very much easier to take interest in the Kant commentary as a whole when one has at last discovered that it leads up to the course of Gifford Lectures before us—a course that is, in general, an admirable piece of constructive work on the Philosophy of Religion. With the latter book, as suggesting more clearly than ever before the goal of Prof. Caird's thought, our brief criticism of these extensive treatises may therefore best begin.

These Lectures on Religion, as we learn from the preface, are addressed, not to *die Gebildeten unter ihren Verächtern*, but to the perplexed among the wandering children of the older faith—to people "who have become, partially at least, alienated from the ordinary dogmatic system of belief, but who, at the same time, are conscious that they have owed a great part of their spiritual life to the teachings of the Bible and the Christian Church." These people "want an eirenicon to reconcile them with themselves." The reconciling principle of Prof. Caird's discourse is in general suggested by him as "the idea of development," which

> "teaches us to distinguish the one spiritual principle which is continuously working in man's life, from the changing forms through which it passes in the course of its history; . . . to do justice to the past without enslaving the present, and to give freedom to the thought of the present without forgetting that it, in its turn, must be criticised and transcended by the widening consciousness of the future."

As these words indicate, however, Prof. Caird is more concerned, in these lectures, to estimate the positive value of the religious ideas whose development he undertakes to portray, than to depict "the evolution of religion" as a mere phenomenon of the natural history of man. As a fact, the study of the "comparative history of religions," as a branch of anthropology, occupies but a small place in these pages. What they furnish is precisely an essay on the philosophy of religion, illustrated by examples drawn from religious history. The treatment of the main subject that is named in the title is, in so far, inadequate. For instance, the psychological problems offered to us by the evolution of primitive religion receive as little attention as empirical psychology generally gets from writers of Prof. Caird's type of philosophical concern. But the disappointment thus at first occasioned to the reader has to give way to an interest in the important philosophical problem which Prof. Caird early presents, and very variously and ingeniously illustrates by his use of religious history. This is, of course, the central problem of reality as it appears to idealistic thinkers.

In brief, Prof. Caird's train of thought is as follows: When one thinks, one thinks about some objective world, and believes in it. But this world, as it comes to one at first, is full of physical and moral problems. These imply, for the thinker, a sense of his own Self, as the perplexed and ignorant but longing Subject, to whom the object-world offers its problems. Thinking, whether practical or theoretical, is a search for some comprehensible "Unity" that will explain the puzzling relations of the Subject and the Object. Religion, from first to last, is a belief that this "unity" somehow exists, above all distinctions and puzzles. Man, from the outset, is "haunted by the idea" that beneath all the contradictions of his life there lies something that will "give a kind of unity to life" by "allying man with nature, and joining him with his fellows in some more or less comprehensive society." Religions have, as their "common characteristic," that in some measure they express this belief, and, in some measure also, and for some men, actually accomplish this end. (Lectures, vol. i., pp. 81, 88.)

But when one seeks for the unity of two opposing terms, one may seek it in either term, or else beneath both. Accordingly, religion has appeared in history in three forms. The "Objective" religions have looked for the unifying principle among the objects of the world. The gods, conceived as powers of nature, as ancestors, or as what not, were to be found, conciliated, worshipped; and thus the object world was to be harmonized and comprehended. The natural reflective outcome of objective religion is Pantheism, which finds God, as the reconciling principle, in the Whole of things, everywhere, and consequently nowhere.

However, it is of the essence of religion to believe, "in some more or less adequate form," in a "divine power as the principle of unity in a world of which *we* are not only spectators but parts" (Lectures, vol. i., p. 235), and consequently, as the Upanishads show us (*id.*, p. 354 *seq.*), Pantheism tends of itself to make the transition to the second, or "Subjective," form of religion, wherein God, the unifying principle, is conceived as a Subject, of greater or less universality. "Subjective" religion takes many shapes. Buddhism and Stoicism represent two of its phases; its highest form, strongly contrasted with these, is the religion of Israel. In this last embodiment, religion gets its most significant moral development, but remains after all inadequate. Monotheism is the culmination of subjective religion; but (*id.*, p. 196) "it is impossible for moderns to recall the attitude of the pure Monotheist. . . . We cannot think of the infinite Being as a will which is external to that which it has made." For us moderns (Lectures, vol. ii., p. 62) "Religion, if it would continue to exist, . . . must combine the monotheistic idea with that which it has often regarded as its greatest enemy, the spirit of pantheism."

It is the office of the "third" type of religion, whereof, in spirit, Christianity is the representative, to undertake this confessedly difficult task. Beneath the opposition of Subject and Object must lie a "principle" which differentiates itself into both, and which, when understood, reconciles their oppositions, enfolding the whole world in its central unity, and explaining both the physical and the moral problems of reality. "As it came from the lips of its founder, Christianity was nothing less than an absolute practical idealism, which . . . regarded moral forces as practically omnipotent" (Lectures, vol. ii., p. 167). Like pantheism, it referred "the finite to the infinite," and regarded "the former as nothing in itself apart from the latter" (*id.*, p. 161). And still, in its universal charity, and in its assertion of God's Fatherhood, it respected the worth of individuals and gave them divine relations. Hence its principle is neither the Subject nor the Object, but a unity superior to both. Hence also, to be sure, the enormous difficulties of the later development of Christian dogma, the endless perplexities in the Church as to the divine nature; hence all those struggles to comprehend a unity which, according to Prof. Caird, only the recent progress of thought, "the whole development of the organic and evolutionary idea of the world as interpreted by idealistic philosophy, and applied by criticism to the history of Christianity" (*id.*, p. 321), has brought to the point where "something like a rational proof of a creed which previously rested almost entirely upon the intuition of faith" is now at last possible. What Christ conceived by a divine intuition, what his followers and the Church partly developed, partly misunderstood—this is now the proper object of a religious philosophy.

The result of Prof. Caird's thought is thus a revised Christianity, from which the traditional sort of supernaturalism has indeed been banished. The highly unconventional character of the theology thus outlined is obvious. The Gospel history is in consequence interpreted without recourse to miracle. The greater part of traditional church dogma appears as non-essential opinion, having only historical interest. Human immortality is apparently, in Prof. Caird's mind, at present a problem whose philosophical answer is decidedly incomplete, if not altogether problematic (vol. ii, pp. 241–43). As to the personality of God, the note (*id.*, pp. 82–84) "On the Unity of Pantheism and Monotheism" rather recognizes the difficulties of the question than insists upon any one solution. "Nature," Prof. Caird there tells us, "comes to self-consciousness in man," and "the process of man's life is the continuation of the self-revelation of the Absolute Being which begins in nature." God is "the principle of unity in all things," and is yet "a living God in whose image man is made." There are "many difficulties in this view," but the "idea of evolution" may be depended upon to suggest the final solution of them all. And herewith the case shall for the present rest. But faith (*id.*, p. 325) is "already on the way to knowledge." This, as some of Prof. Caird's critics have pointed out, appears, on the whole, to be an Hegelianism of the Left, more negative than Prof. Caird's previous publications had prepared us to expect.

The perplexed, if they are students of philosophy, will gain much from the study of the argument thus roughly sketched. Its chief interest lies, of course, in its whole development, and cannot be separated from the text. In any case, these lectures are certainly not for the little ones. Perhaps Prof. Caird's principal defect as an expositor of philosophy lies meanwhile in his peculiarly Hegelian use of what might be called fixed metaphors. The "movement of thought" whereby it "returns upon itself from the object," the "progress which is a regress"—these are, indeed, an old story to readers of this kind of literature; but fixed ideas and fixed phrases do not grow more enlightening by vain repetition. As for Prof. Caird's own favorite formula, "Die to live," which, as all his readers have long since learned, shall sum up the essence of Hegel, of Christianity, of evolution, and of life and thought generally—the devout prayer of at least one reader of Prof. Caird's books is that this formula will ere long, by a process of "return," apply "itself to itself," and kindly "die." Surely thoughts as important as is the one thus expressed can live independently of the agonizing reiteration of set phrases.

In the light of the interesting struggle with fundamental problems represented by the lectures, the whole of the great work on Kant now appears rather as a scaffolding than as an end in itself. The still earlier book on Kant which Prof. Caird published in 1877 was almost altogether cast aside in preparing the treatise of 1889. The latter made liberal use of the modern German "Kant-philology," without itself being, despite its elaborateness, so much a direct contribution to that much-derided science as a tirelessly minute dealing, and, as it were, a hand-to-hand struggle, with the Kantian doctrine of the relation of the Subject and Object-Worlds, and with the metaphysical consequences of that doctrine as worked out in the later critiques. One great difficulty of the Kant book is thus lightened by a reading of the Gifford lectures. For the reader of the 'Kant' found, with all Prof. Caird's minuteness of critical treatment, less direct aid than he had expected in grappling with the philological difficulties of Kant's text, and thus often felt out of sympathy with Prof. Caird's courteously but very stubbornly critical attitude towards an author whom he did not expound quite as objectively as Benno Erdmann, nor yet quite as exhaustively as Vaihinger, but whom he did continually "transcend" and reflect upon with an unwearied ingenuity, whose ultimate and constructive philosophical purpose was held, after all, rather provokingly in reserve.

The brief and often rudely frank notes of Dr. Erich Adickes, in his edition of Kant's 'Critique,' published almost contemporaneously with the appearance of Prof. Caird's book, have proved in all their simplicity far more immediately useful to the student of the text of the 'Critique,' at least in many places, than are Prof. Caird's long chapters. In dealing, for instance, with the famous Deduction of the Categories, Prof. Caird makes little effort to show the actual structure of Kant's sadly intricate exposition in the first edition of the 'Critique,' but, early turning his attention to what seem to him the most significant issues of the argument, introduces (Kant, vol. i., p. 370–78) an interesting parallel with Plato; and then, in connection with this parallel, and after passing on to the Deduction in the second edition (p. 379), proceeds to an important and far-reaching study of the whole problem of the relation of self-consciousness and reality. The student, following Prof. Caird's discussion, feels that he has won some very valuable philosophy, but also feels that he has lost, for the time, his Kant. Prof. Caird himself says, in introducing the chapter on the Deduction (*id*, p. 349): "In the following exposition I shall try to combine the statements of both editions of the 'Critique.'" But where Kant himself is so full of partial repetitions and of other complications, thus to "combine" is, from the point of view of exposition, and in default of a detailed textual analysis, merely to confuse. Dr. Adickes, on the contrary, in dealing as editor with Kant's words, lays all ulterior philosophical purposes aside, and, while setting forth in very crisp fashion his own noteworthy theory as to the composition of the text of the Deduction, actually guides us to an understanding of the difficult Kantian argument before us which previous commentators have wholly failed to give.

Prof. Caird's method in the chapter on the Deduction is typical of a good deal of the work of his stately and scholarly volumes. Philosophically they are very suggestive; as an aid to the actual study of Kant they are often disappointing. One feels too often that Prof. Caird's interests are not Kant's, that he reads Kant's text with his own eyes constantly tending to rise from the book, and to fix their gaze for a while on some far off Unity wholly unknown to the thinker for whom "Nur in der Erfahrung ist Wahrheit." In the elaborate dialectical defence of this unity, this "principle" which self-consciousness makes manifest, Prof. Caird does indeed show us, with great success, how many tendencies in the historical Kant actually pointed towards the definition of some such unity, and were bound to lead to the later idealistic conception of it. But what he does not show us, after all, is the presence in Kant of deep and relatively justifiable tendencies that prevented him from taking the step which is so obvious to his critic. The Kantian who does not understand that Kant's theory, if fully developed to its last consequences, leads to the later idealism, is indeed no complete Kantian, and for him Prof. Caird has much light to bring. But the idealist, on the other hand, who does not see that Kant's essential doctrine of experience, even if undeveloped, retains a very important place as a subordinate and relatively justified point of view, and that even for an idealism of the later type—well, such an idealist has not comprehended the permanent office of empirical science, whose work Kant tried to analyze, and whose real business Prof. Caird seems to recognize very imperfectly in all that he has ever said with reference to it.

Prof. Caird's criticism, then, in our opinion, "Hegelizes" too much the real tendency of Kant, exaggerating herein, to be sure, a real but by no means an exclusive characteristic of Kant's thought. In consequence Prof. Caird too often gives us, with all his elaborateness and his conscientiousness, rather an external criticism than a luminous comprehension of Kant's position. Yet this objection by no means applies to the whole of this treatise, which is, in fact, despite its imperfections, an indispensable work for any Kant library. The opening historical chapters are, in the main, admirable. The chapters on the Rational Psychology and Theology of the Dialectic are both extremely luminous. The exposition of Kant's later critiques is of great value. And the unsatisfactoriness of the treatise, in so far as the book is bound by its limitations as a philosophical exposition of Kant, and is not free to speak its author's own mind as to many matters touched upon but not developed, is now, in some measure, remedied by the appearance of the later work, with which, in our opinion, it should henceforth always be coupled. The history of thought is an invaluable instrument, but it must, as instrument, be used for its purpose, which is the production of enlightened doctrine. Prof Caird's doctrine is unquestionably an enlightened one. An estimate of its philosophical value would carry us far beyond our present limits.

## BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

*À propos de Théâtre.* Par J.-J. Weiss. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

*Études de Littérature et d'Art.* Par Gustave Larroumet. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.

*Les Étoiles en Voyage:* La Patti, Sarah Bernhardt, Coquelin. Par Schürmann. Paris: Tresse; New York: F. W. Christern.

*Shadows of the Stage.* Second Series. By William Winter. Macmillan & Co.

*Edwin Booth.* By Laurence Hutton. Harper & Bros.

M. Larroumet is like the late J. J. Weiss in that he also held an important position under the French Government and in that he has also given time and thought to the theatre. But where Weiss was brilliant and paradoxical, M. Larroumet is solid and serious. The qualities of the two critics are abundantly shown in the two books before us. Weiss's volume is one of four to be made up from his *feuilletons* in the *Journal des Débats* during the three years when he was its *lundiste*. It is as lively and as vigorous as its predecessor; it is stimulating. It is obviously the work of a man of fine powers, really fond of literature, really well read, and yet not taking the literary art quite seriously enough to leave behind him that which should justify his contemporary reputation to the generation which succeeds his. But no one who wishes to understand the development of the drama in France can afford to neglect his collected criticisms.

M. Larroumet's essays are stiffer in texture and woven with more care. Weiss relied chiefly on himself; M. Larroumet is capable of research and of weighing evidence. The essay on Adrienne Lecouvreur in the present volume is an instance in point. It is a most acute analysis of the great actress's character and accomplishments, and of her artistic individuality. In the history of the French theatre no women have held as high rank as Adrienne Lecouvreur and Rachel, and there was, therefore, something singularly appropriate in the impersonation of the former by the latter in the adroitly contrived play prepared by Scribe and Legouvé. It is perhaps this pathetic play which has kept alive Adrienne's fame, just as the memory of Mistress Margaret Woffington is kept alive by the artificial but effective comedy of Charles Reade and Tom Taylor, "Masks and Faces." Another admirable paper of M. Larroumet's is that on the centenary of Scribe; in this he does full justice, and no more than justice, to one of the most remarkable figures in the history of the theatre. It is only a clear-sighted critic, understanding the conditions of the acted drama—and of what utility to any one is the unactable drama?—who can discern the strength of the influence exerted by Scribe on the younger Dumas, for example, who simplified the Scribe formula, and even on Ibsen, who first mastered the Scribe method and then gave it up.

No greater contrast to M. Larroumet's dignified essays can well be imagined than the unveracious and vulgar chapters of M. Schürmann's amusing account of his experiences as the manager of the starring trips of Mme. Patti-Nicolini, of Mme. Sarah Bernhardt, and of M. Coquelin. The book is broadly comic and hopelessly common. And the author's temper is as bad as his manners. Of his three stars, M. Schürmann heartily detests two. Only Sarah Bernhardt finds favor in his eyes; Patti and M. Coquelin have to stand an incessant hail of cheap gibes—ill-natured all of them, and ill-founded most of them, at least in so far as M. Coquelin is concerned.

Mr. Winter's opinion of M. Coquelin is not unlike M. Schürmann's. In the second series of his pleasantly written 'Shadows of the Stage,' side by side with an excellent paper on "The Right Standard," side by side with criticisms of the careers and the characters of Mary Duff, Junius Brutus Booth, J. K. Hackett, Edwin Forrest, John Gilbert, John Brougham, Charlotte Cushman, Lawrence Barrett, John T. Raymond, and other dead and gone celebrities of the American theatre, Mr. Winter

has placed certain less useful criticisms of sundry distinguished foreign actors and actresses who have visited America in the past ten or twenty years. One of these is on Signora Ristori, another is on Mme. Sarah Bernhardt, two are on M. Coquelin—one on his controversy with Mr. Henry Irving and the other on his performance of *Tartuffe*. Of his criticism of the *Tartuffe* it is needful only to say that Mr. Winter thinks that *Tartuffe* is a priest. In commenting on the debate between Mr. Irving and M. Coquelin, Mr. Winter takes occasion to declare that French art is inferior to British, since "a mercurial temperament, like the Gallic, naturally expresses itself in effusive movement and gesticulation," and therefore "the French have never produced . . . such actors as Garrick, Mrs. Siddons, Edmund Kean, Ellen Terry, and Henry Irving" (pp. 290-1). The allowance for the personal equation must needs be large for a critic who puts Miss Terry and Mr. Irving in the same sentence with Garrick, Kean, and Mrs. Siddons, and who thinks them superior to Adrienne Lecouvreur, Talma, Rachel, Régnier, and M. Coquelin.

Mr. Winter's beautifully printed little book —most welcome despite its author's vagaries of judgment—is inscribed to Edwin Booth, and it is announced that Mr. Winter has in preparation a detailed biography of the most accomplished tragic actor born on American soil. For the fitting performance of this labor of love no one is better equipped than Mr. Winter. In the meanwhile, Mr. Laurence Hutton, also an intimate friend of Booth and also a most conscientious student of th stage, has republished, in one of the pretty little books of Harper's Black and White Series, a sketch of Booth's career which all lovers of the theatre will be glad to have in so neat a form. Mr. Hutton succeeds in conveying to the reader an adequate impression of a character of very unusual gentleness and generosity and charm. Although he outlines with an abundance of dates the chief events of Booth's career, it is rather the man than the actor that Mr. Hutton presents to us; and great as might be the force and fascination of the actor, the force and the fascination of the man were greater yet. It is the merit of Mr. Hutton's little book that it more than suggests this side of Booth's personality.

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*Woman's Mission:* A Series of Congress Papers on the Philanthropic Work of Women by Eminent Writers. Arranged and edited, with a preface and notes, by the Baroness Burdett-Coutts. Royal 8vo, pp. 485. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

*Woman and the Higher Education.* Edited by Anna C. Brackett. With introduction by Mrs. Blanche Wilder Bellamy. Harper & Brothers.

THE handsome volume sponsored by the Royal British Commission to the Chicago Exhibition and dedicated to the Princess Christian, President of the Ladies' Committee, of the external finish of which too much cannot be said in praise, falls naturally into two parts—the thirty-two papers described in the title, and an appendix containing brief summaries of the reports of societies, guilds, and institutions to the number of three hundred and odd. Necessarily, in a volume so composite in structure, there are repetitions, overlapping of outlines, and inequalities of substance, not chargeable to the editorship. There are, on the other hand, some omissions which, in view of the tendencies and importance of the work overlooked, not only cause surprise, but mar the completeness of the survey of the philanthropic activity of Englishwomen. Thus, of the labors of Miss Octavia Hill and her fellow-workers, in rent-collecting in the poor and teeming districts of London, no account is given. Similarly, the work of women in charity organization is, save for incidental reference, left unnoticed—an omission not explicable on the ground that this is a joint work of men and women, since to the work of women colleagues of men in ragged schools, in church organizations, and elsewhere, ample recognition has been given. The women of the Salvation Army are also conspicuous by the absence of a report; while, at the other extreme of charitable enterprise, the Women's University Settlements are dismissed with a meagre space in the appendix—an economy the more to be regretted inasmuch as the one report quoted, that of Miss Sewell of the Southwark Settlement (p. 413), contains more pregnant suggestions of the modern principles of benevolence than a dozen others taken at random.

In the common temper of the philanthropic movements which are represented by shorter or longer papers, noticeably hopeful signs are the almost entire absence of denominational or sectarian prejudice; the strengthening perception that practical insight into human nature is a better philanthropic lever than prayerfulness; the increased understanding that personal sympathy and heartiness are the secret of success in relations between the more and less fortunate members of society; and the growing respect for the individual and the family, coupled with the corresponding belief that the noblest and best work is done by men and women, not by councils, committees, and boards. An eminently practical feature of the combined reports is the emphasis they lay on the need for training for domestic service. In energetic action in this direction the women of England show themselves far in advance of the women of our own country. Orphanages, "homes," or "shelters" are almost invariably provided with means for instruction in simple housework, often in dairy-work and the care of poultry as well; while the Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants (p. 384) can point to results and produce statistics that lend it a national dignity. Of the work described in Miss Calder's concise and admirable paper (p. 317) it is difficult to speak with moderation. Her theme is the introduction, through the initiative of the National Union for the Technical Education of Women in Domestic Sciences, into the elementary schools, of first cookery, then laundry work, and finally household sewing ("home dress-cutting, mending, patching, and darning of garments in daily wear and tear"), all taught "with that scientific accuracy and that knowledge of cause and effect which create intelligent and interested workers," and with the aim of getting rid of "tradition, chance, rule of thumb, and that general inaccuracy which has always been the bane of female work."

This and other such papers exemplify, apart from other results, the reflex benefit of philanthropic work upon the reason and intelligence of the worker, when once it has come to be understood that prevention and not relief is the true quality of mercy. To spread such an understanding in her own field of work is practically the intent and purport of Miss Nightingale's stimulating paper (p. 184) on "Sick Nursing and Health Nursing." Flanked by two others on nursing, her paper points the way to new and timely departures for her rising profession by a syllabus of "Lectures to Health-Missioners" and another of lectures to be given by the "Health-Missioners to Village Mothers." The Baroness Burdett-Coutts herself contributes two papers, "Woman the Missionary of Industry" and "Miss Ormerod's Work in Agricultural Entomology," and lays a train for reflection besides in the implication of the title she has chosen for her volume. "Woman's Mission" is, in fact, no more philanthropy than it is business, art, or medicine. Philanthropy is the mission of all persons who, with inclination for it, have time and intelligence to spare from the right conduct of personal affairs; and, like all other social undertakings, it can be brought to successful issues only by the joint work of men and women, with zeal and knowledge equally distributed among them, not apportioned to sex.

Upon sex in education sentence of final extinction has already been passed, and before long sex in literature will, it is to be hoped, meet the same verdict. In the meantime, however, 'Woman and the Higher Education,' which is a unit in still another of the endlessly multiplying "series"—this time the "Distaff"—reflects credit upon its editor and the six other women writers whose essays she has selected for reprint. Five of these essays form a retrospective view of the education of women from the year 1819 to practically the present time, the last being Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer's well-remembered paper on the three methods of college education for women—the co-educational college, the woman's college, and the Annex—contributed to the *Forum* in 1889. The irony of events has ordered that a late honored Professor of Astronomy in a woman's college (Miss Maria Mitchell) should be the writer to follow next in order after Mrs. Emma C. Embury, who in 1831 conciliates the prudent by saying, "I do not mean that our daughters should be rendered capable of becoming teachers of classical literature or professors of the sciences; but I would have them intimately acquainted with all *useful* branches of human knowledge."

Of the remaining two essays the last is from the alert pen of Miss Brackett, who, although she has not regarded order as Heaven's first law in the composition of her paper, nevertheless writes with force and enthusiasm of the ideals of her profession of teaching, and with no less force of the shortcomings of parents, chief stumbling-blocks of principals. Finally, Prof. Lucy M. Salmon is represented by a paper, on "The Teaching of History in Academies and Colleges," so well arranged, and with common sense and learning in such happy balance, that the reader, forgetting that controversy over educational opportunities for women is not yet a thing of the past, may have a foretaste of the gratification to come when problems of education, pure and simple, shall occupy the attention of educators.

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*Louis Agassiz:* His Life and Work. By Charles Frederick Holder, LL.D. [Leaders in Science Series.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893. Illustrated.

DR. HOLDER had the advantage of selecting from the writings of earlier authorities whatever in his judgment would contribute most to the success of his own work. His selections have been judicious, and the result is a fair and entertaining account of the life of the great scientist and teacher. Parentage, boyhood, student life, later life in Europe and America, publications, voyages, relations with

contemporaries, and attitude towards recent developments in science are passed in a rapid review that gives a tolerably good idea of the career in its entirety. Our author is an enthusiastic admirer, and his book is eulogistic rather than critical or analytical. Yet it does not appear that he has been led to overestimate either accomplishments or popularity. In regard to the latter especially, Prof. Agassiz had a hold on popular esteem such as has been accorded no other scientist. With the teachers he was one of themselves, among the clergy he was the defender of the faith against attacks of materialistic or atheistic science; both looked up to him with kindest regard, and never tired of bringing him before pupils or hearers. In this way and through the press they reached the great mass of the people in the country, arousing a personal interest in the man and at the same time waking a desire to know more of his science. Thus, aside from the direct results of his published treatises and his influence on his fellow-workers, we are indebted to the elder Agassiz to an extent not yet fully comprehended for rousing the spirit of inquiry and advancing the cause of scientific education. Many exemplifications besides his grand museum, or even the numerous progeny of the Penikese School, might be cited to show how difficult it would be to rate too highly the importance and vitality of his influence.

Eight or ten memorial addresses and an extensive list of publications are included in this volume. No doubt the book, as it deserves, will meet with a reception gratifying alike to author and to publisher. A new edition will demand modification in a number of particulars. The author's understanding of Darwinism is somewhat indefinite. His assertion that Darwin believed that "all animals have developed from previous forms, the species and genera being produced by environment in vast eras of time," is likely to wrinkle the brows of the advocates of natural selection. A mixed condition of evolution and Darwinism in the author's mind is shown in the remark: "To-day, with perhaps one exception, all of his [Agassiz] pupils are believers in the modern theory of evolution as expounded by Darwin"; and again: "To-day the students of Agassiz are among the most distinguished advocates of the doctrine of Darwin," etc. The author might better have said that all of Prof. Agassiz's pupils are evolutionists, but none of them advocates Darwinism as it was left by Darwin. The Massachusetts Legislature is mistakenly credited with the hundred-thousand-dollar birthday present.

A hasty glance over the pages discloses Rondolet, strata, John, sauba, studis, jaçana, Block, cyprynidæ, and cycnocephalus doing duty instead of Rondelet, stratum, Joel, saüba, sudis, jacana, Bloch, cyprinidæ, and cynocephalus. The phrase "Linnæus's 'Règne Animal'" when corrected will read either Linnæus's 'Systema Naturæ' or Cuvier's 'Règne Animal,' whichever was to have been mentioned. In general, the illustrations are not up to the text; some of them are evidently made by an artist not familiar with the objects represented.

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*On English Lagoons.* By P. H. Emerson. London: David Nutt. 1893.

In these days of feverish anxiety, when men's minds are full of fears lest the credit of a great nation may be shattered by its legislators, it is most restful and refreshing to be transported in the twinkling of an eye from Wall Street or Washington to the Norfolk "broads," where the silver question is as an unknown tongue. Most interesting it is, under the skilful guidance of Mr. Emerson, to learn the peculiar charms of that little-known corner of the world, and to let his brilliant word-painting blot out the picture of the United States Senate in extra session. To use his own words: "Man must become refined when he is constantly living before such exquisite pictures." The book is a daily record of life in a Norfolk wherry from September, 1890, to August, 1891. A Norfolk wherry is a somewhat flat-bottomed sloop which is used on the shallow lagoons near the coast for all kinds of transportation, and the *Maid of the Mist*, which was Mr. Emerson's particular wherry, was thirty years old and had been employed in carrying marl and other base freights before he came into possession of her. He fitted her up as a kind of sailing house-boat, and engaged as his sole companion a boatman who combine an accurate knowledge of the "broads" with a sense of humor. The winter of 1890–'91 was an exceptionally severe one in England, and for some weeks the *Maid of the Mist* was frozen in. But nothing could daunt so fervid a lover of nature as Mr. Emerson—not even the fear of rheumatism which is said to be the inevitable result of living on the "broads." Occasionally, indeed, his enthusiasm yields a trifle before the rigors of an English spring, and he goes so far as to admit that the aspect of certain marshes covered with patches of melting snow constitutes a "veritable hell"; but even at such times he finds compensation in severe physical exertion, which he rightly regards as the cheapest and most harmless of intoxicants.

The reader who enjoys careful and minute investigation of natural phenomena, records of weather and temperature, and observations of the habits of birds and fishes, will find Mr. Emerson delightful. He has keen senses, and can smell a shoal of fish as easily as a rose—a faculty often claimed by professional fishermen, but not generally admitted. Among many other odd things, he has discovered that when fresh water mixes with the salt tide, the mixture is of a higher temperature than either constituent. Nor is he less observant of the manners and customs of the natives, whose curiosity prompted them to visit the wherry and endeavor to solve the mystery of the apparently aimless existence of the captain and crew. He manages to extract a good deal of amusement out of them, although he holds that Methodism has spoiled the natural gayety of the English rural population—a theory that might repay examination. On the whole, life in a wherry would seem to possess many charms for enthusiastic lovers of nature, and might be profitably essayed by those who go to Florida for the winter months.

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*The Church in the Roman Empire before 170.* By W. M. Ramsay. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893.

This stately volume is the outcome of Prof. Ramsay's travels in Asia Minor, and of lectures which he gave at Mansfield College in Oxford in the year 1892. It consists of two parts—the first a careful analysis of Paul's three journeys in Asia Minor, and the second an enlarged version of the Mansfield lectures. The purpose of the first part is chiefly to test the accuracy of the documents on which our knowledge rests—the Epistles and the Acts of the Apostles. The method followed is to trace the journeys from point to point, as the author has done in person, and, having fixed the connection of the Apostle with each place mentioned, to see what light his report throws upon the condition of the earliest Christians in those parts.

The purpose in the lectures is to examine the attitude of the Roman Government towards the Christians, from Nero to Marcus Aurelius. To do this the author reviews the chief documentary evidence, of which the famous correspondence between Trajan and Pliny the Younger forms rather the central point. In the course of this examination, Prof. Ramsay makes very clear his distrust of almost all German writers who have treated the subject; and in his chapter ix., the introduction to his lectures, he gives a theoretical apology for his own method as superior to theirs. The quality he justly condemns in them is what they themselves neatly call *Systemsucht*—the madness of system; but one could wish him a little larger leavening of this same quality in the arrangement of his work. His style is diffuse and his argument broken by frequent divergences from the main thread of discourse. On individual points, whether of great importance or not, his opinions are decided and clearly contrasted with those of others. It would have been far better if we could have had all the material of the two parts worked over and condensed into one comprehensive treatment, under the topical headings which would best have illustrated the various critical points.

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*With Captain Stairs to Katanga.* By Joseph A. Moloney. With illustrations and map. London: S. Low, Marston & Co. 1893. Pp. xii, 280, 8vo.

Dr. Moloney tells the story of the Stairs expedition exceedingly well. His account is plain, straightforward, easily and pleasantly written, and impresses one with its frank truthfulness as well as with the author's kindliness towards the natives. Though he went over a well-known route, and had, with a single exception, only the ordinary incidents which befall the traveller in Central Africa, and has little to describe but the familiar life of the caravan and the appearance and habits of the people whose country he traversed, still he manages to hold the interest of the reader to the end. In fact, the death of the young leader—Capt. Stairs was but twenty-nine—just as he had reached the coast on his return, comes with the effect of the tragic ending of a novel. If, from the circumstances, this book has small value as a record of travel, it is interesting and suggestive as the record of an episode in the "scramble for Africa."

The author frankly states at the outset that the object of the expedition was the conquest of Katangaland. This is the high land in which are the sources of the Congo, and is supposed to be rich in gold, silver, and copper. Its ruling chief was Msiri, a negro tyrant of the very worst stamp. Dr. Moloney says, "We proposed to secure the country, either with or without Msiri's leave, for the Congo Free State" (p. 9). On this native's not unnatural hesitation to give up his country to these European adventurers, he was murdered—it is difficult to use any other word—time being too precious for prolonged negotiations. "The rumored approach of the South Africa Company's expedition, under Mr. Joseph Thomson, caused a prompt solution of our difficulties with Msiri to be a matter of urgent necessity" (p. 179). It is absolutely painful to read the avowal of the determination to resist with force this gentleman if he should attempt "to occupy Katanga"—a determination so strong that Capt. Stairs, in the delirium of fever, "held imaginary conversations with [him],

and demanded his revolver, which I had fortunately secured, to repel that explorer." It is no wonder that they were "hampered" by the presence of English missionaries. Much has been written about the barbarity of the Arabs who harry large tracts for slaves to carry their ivory to the coast, and an exterminating war has been declared against them by the civilized Powers. But is there much to choose, after all, between their conduct and that of these agents of a Christian ruler, who kill a king and some of his subjects, loot his town and take his land, simply and avowedly for the purpose of acquiring gold mines supposed to exist?

The expedition was a costly one, it may be added, so far as loss of life was concerned, for, of the five whites composing it, the leader died of fever, the second in command was killed, and of the negro soldiers and porters only half survived to reach the coast, many having died of pure starvation in Katanga. There are several portraits, an index, and an excellent map.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anstey, F. The Man from Blankley's, and Other Sketches. Longmans, Green & Co. 75 cents.
Arts and Crafts Essays. Scribners. $2.50.
Baker, Prof. A. L. The Elements of Solid Geometry. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90 cents.
Bandelier, A. F. The Gilded Man, and Other Pictures of the Spanish Occupancy of America. Appletons. $1.50.
Bartholomew, J. G. The Tourist's Atlas-Guide to the Continent of Europe. London: George Philip & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Black, William. Sabina Zembra. New and revised ed. Harpers. 80 cents.
Black, William. White Heather. New and revised ed. Harpers. 80 cents.
Bolton, Mrs. Sarah K. Famous Voyagers and Explorers. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Brown, Helen D. The Petrie Estate. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Cable, G. W. Works, in 5 vols. Scribners. $6.
Caldecott, Watson. Eutropius, Books I. and II. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Campbell, Helen. The Easiest Way in Housekeeping and Cooking. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Cassoday, J. B. The Law of Wills. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Cawein, Madison. Poems of Nature and Love. Putnams. $1.50.
Claflin, Mrs. Mary B. Personal Recollections of John G. Whittier. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Cooke, C. J. B. English Locomotives: Their History, Construction and Modern Development. Macmillan. $2.
Crowe, Eyre. With Thackeray in America. Scribners. $2.
Davis, Thomas. The Patriot Parliament of 1689. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Dowden, Prof. Edward. Introduction to Shakespeare. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.
Duff, E. G. Early Printed Books. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Factors in American Civilization: Studies in Applied Sociology. Appletons. $2.
Falckenberg. Prof. Richard. History of Modern Philosophy. Henry Holt & Co. $3.50.
Fielde, Adele M. Chinese Nights' Entertainment. Putnams. $1.75.
Fraser, Sir William. Hic et Ubique. Scribners. $1 50.
Fuller, H. B. The Cliff-Dwellers. Harpers. $1.50.
Fürst, Hermann. The Protection of Woodlands. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: W. R. Jenkins. $3.50.
Genung, Prof. J. F. Outlines of Rhetoric. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Gilman, Bradley. The Musical Journey of Dorothy and Della. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Goodrich, A. J. Analytical Harmony: A Theory of Musical Composition from the Composer's Standpoint. John Church Co.
Guiney, Louise I. A Roadside Harp. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hale, E. E. For Fifty Years: Verses. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Hart, Prof. J. M. De Quincey's Joan of Arc, and the English Mail Coach. Henry Holt & Co. 30 cents.
Henty, G. A. A Jacobite Exile. Scribners. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. St. Bartholomew's Eve. Scribners. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. Through the Sikh War. Scribners. $1.50.
Hibbard, G. A. Nowadays, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.25.
Horley, Rev. Englebert. Sefton: A Descriptive and Historical Account. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.
Hughes, R. M. General Johnston. [Great Commanders.] Appletons. $1.50.
Jacobs, Joseph. The Jews of Angevin England. Putnams. $1.25.
James, Henry. The Wheel of Time, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.
Joynes, Prof. E. S. Minimum French Grammar and Reader. Henry Holt & Co. 80 cents.
Lang, Andrew. Letters to Dead Authors. Cameo Edition. Scribners. $1.25.
Lange, Karl. Apperception: A Monograph on Psychology and Pedagogy. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Lewis, G. H. National Consolidation of the Railways of the U. S. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Lowell, Mrs. Josephine S. Industrial Arbitration and Conciliation. Putnams. 75 cents.
Martin, A. P. Life and Letters of the Right Honorable Robert Lowe. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.50.
Methods of Teaching Modern Languages. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90 cents.
Miller, Rev. J. R. Glimpses through Life's Windows. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Monroe, W. S. The Educational Labors of Henry Barnard. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.
Moore, George. The Strike at Arlingford: A Play. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Motley, J. L. Peter the Great. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 30 cents.
Orndorff, W. R. A Laboratory Manual. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Osborne, G. P. Principles of Economics. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2.
Page, T. N. Works, in 4 vols. Scribners. $4.50.
Parker, Gilbert. The Translation of a Savage. Appletons. 75 cents.
Phillips, S. L. A Treatise on the Law of Mechanics' Liens. 3d ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Platt, Donn. Gen. George H. Thomas: A Critical Biography. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $3.
Platt, Sarah. An Enchanted Castle, and Other Poems. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
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Pool, Miss Maria L. The Two Salomes. Harpers. $1.25.
Poor, Agnes B. Brothers and Strangers. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Ralph, Julian. Our Great West. Harpers. $2.50.
Randolph, A. M. F. The Trial of Sir John Falstaff. Putnams. $1.50.
Stevenson, R. L. Virginibus Puerisque. Cameo Edition. Scribners. $1.25
Stoddard, W. O. On the Old Frontier. Appletons. $1.50.
Stories of Italy. Scribners. 75 cents.
Street, G. S. Miniatures and Moods. London: David Nutt; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Thatcher, Prof. O. J. A Sketch of the History of the Apostolic Church. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Tourgée, A. W. Out of the Sunset Sea. Merrill & Baker. $1.75.
Tupper, C. L. Our Indian Protectorate. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Wallace, Joseph. The History of Illinois and Louisiana under French Rule. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2.50.
Webster, Sidney. Misuse of Legal Tender. Appletons. $1.
Williams, Alfred M. Sam Houston and the War of Independence in Texas. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Winter, W. Shakespeare's England. New ed., revised. Macmillan. $2.
Wright, W. A. The Works of William Shakespeare. Vol. IV. Macmillan. $3.
Yechton, Barbara. Ingleside. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.

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| Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1892 | | 1,472,142 48 |
| Total Marine Premiums | | $5,162,393 36 |
| Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1892, to 31st December, 1892 | | $3,759,193 05 |
| Losses paid during the same period | $1,466,178 06 | |
| Returns of Premiums and Expenses | $738,617 09 | |

The Company has the following assets, viz.:

| | |
|---|---|
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| Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at | 1,029,945 26 |
| Premium Notes and Bills Receivable | 1,336,622 46 |
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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 5, 1893.

## The Week.

It would be a mistake to suppose that if Mr. Van Alen should be confirmed, the manner of his selection would drop from the public memory as "an old, unhappy, far-off thing." We trust that neither the President nor Mr. Van Alen will deceive himself on this point. If Mr. Van Alen should get the place and keep it, the scandal would be a continuing one, like Wanamaker's presence in the Cabinet. All the President's enemies would ring changes on it in the press every time there came a telegram about Mr. Van Alen's doings in Rome or any question of venality came up, and, as Mr. Cleveland well knows, his enemies are not all in the Republican party. The bitterest are among those whom he has of late been trying to conciliate by his use of patronage, and all the patronage in his gift will not keep them from stabbing him under the fifth rib whenever they get a chance. They are all chuckling to-day over the Van Alen blunder. It disposes, they say, of one more "reformer." The worst of it is, too, that it has not been committed hastily, but after months of discussion and reflection, and after the receipt of numerous protests from some of the President's most faithful friends, and it has been defended by arguments and explanations which Mr. Cleveland in his earlier and better hours would have been the first to tear to shreds and tatters. "No 'bargain,'" he would have cried; "only an expression of 'wishes' and gratification of the same after the event! Do you take me for a Tombs lawyer?"

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The argument of all arguments which did best service in expelling the Republicans from power last year, and of which Mr. Cleveland himself made most effective use, particularly in his speech at the Lenox Lyceum on November 1, 1892, was the danger and horror of letting them go on giving legislation to manufacturers in return for campaign contributions. That argument was vigorously applied to Wanamaker's case. That very night Mr. Breckinridge thanked a man in the crowd for mentioning Wanamaker as an illustration of power acquired through "boodle." It is applicable to all appointments to office where the candidate's only claim is the pecuniary aid given to the appointing officer's election. There is no rational distinction between a Congressman's voting for an increase of duties for the benefit of a man who has lent or given him money for his election expenses, and a President's giving him an office, high or low, for a similar reason. The trail of the serpent is over all. It is part of the immense wave of venality which to-day is threatening the very existence of the Government, and which no one has denounced more vigorously than Mr. Cleveland himself. Mr. Van Alen, on his part, cannot comfortably go to Italy to consort with foreign diplomatists in what they will consider a purchased place, through a transaction which in England, France, Germany, Austria, or even Italy would ruin everybody concerned in it. That kind of notoriety would necessarily be disagreeable to him. If he consults his own fair fame and Mr. Cleveland's peace, he will ask the President to withdraw his name. The matter will then be forgotten in a month. His confirmation will, on the contrary, make him for four long years what Quay and Wanamaker were to President Harrison, a stock newspaper illustration of the hollowness of Mr. Cleveland's pretensions to political purity. A foreign mission is a nice thing for a rich man, if he knows how to fill it, but it may be too dearly bought, even by a millionaire.

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Those who, on the President's behalf, take comfort in the fact that Mr. Van Alen is a person who would fill the Italian mission creditably if appointed, in spite of his large contribution to the campaign fund, would be better off if a regard for fitness had marked the selections for the other diplomatic and consular places. But we cannot say that this has been the case. We have no good reason for believing that Mr. Van Alen would have been selected for Rome even if he had not given $50,000. The quality of the diplomatic appointments thus far has not been higher, on the average, than under previous administrations. Care has been taken, as usual, with one or two important posts, like London and Paris, but the others have been flung to the spoilsmen with the old time-honored disregard of the national reputation and the national interests. Mr. Quincy has been allowed a debauch among the consulships which would have sickened a Blaineite, and which has sent him home to Boston with a wet towel round his head. He has sent out to look after our trade in the uttermost ends of the earth the usual quota of broken-down men and ignorant editors, who will, of course, if, partly through the discredit of them, the Democrats should lose the next election, be remorselessly cast adrift at their posts, and many of them will have to "beat" their way home, to our further disgrace. For one of the shocking features of our system is that these poor creatures very often, after being "decapitated," are left penniless at their posts, and have literally to beg their way back to the United States by means of contributions from the American residents and American legations in the capitals on their way. This treatment is good enough for most of them personally, but it is not good enough for the servants of a great, civilized, rich Government like ours. We are sending our new cruisers abroad in order to raise the national reputation in the eyes of foreigners, to show how ingenious, skilful, and powerful we are, and this the sight of such ships in the new navy is well calculated to do. But for the one foreigner who sees an American ship like the *Chicago*, and is impressed by it, ten thousand are taught to despise us by their knowledge of the ignorant and often disreputable officials who represent us on shore. If the result of the present system could be brought home to the American people generally as it is to the few thousands who visit Europe every year, we do not believe any Administration would hereafter dare to maintain the present use of the diplomatic service to reward home "workers."

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The platforms of two Democratic Conventions, those of Massachusetts and Maryland, which were held last week, make sufficiently explicit declarations on the silver-repeal question. The former heartily supports the President and Secretary Carlisle in "their firm attitude in favor of the immediate and unconditional repeal of the purchase clause of the Sherman Law," congratulates the House upon its "speedy and emphatic response to the President's message," and calls upon the Senate "to follow the action of the House without undue delay or obstruction of the popular will." The Maryland Convention sustains the President "in his earnest purpose to secure the repeal of the objectionable provisions." Every Democratic convention held thus far has taken an equally emphatic position, but that fact will not help the party any in the approaching elections unless the Senate shall pass the Repeal Bill without much more delay. What the country demands is not professions of faith, but action, and if the Democratic majority in the Senate cannot secure that, the party will be held responsible, in the President's words, for "plunging the country into deeper depression." There will be no escaping the consequences of this responsibility.

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A handful of Philadelphia manufacturers have signed Mr. Wharton Barker's appeal to the Senate to give the silvermen all they want, with a good-sized present thrown in, on the understanding that the said manufacturers, in their turn, be given all they want, with such bonuses as they may designate. This is the surest way imaginable to make both protection and silver purchases odious at one stroke.

It comes very pat on the morrow of the declaration of the Democratic State Convention of Massachusetts, that the Sherman Law was only a roundabout way of extending protection to silver, and that it is but part and parcel of the whole pestilent scheme of legislating for the benefit of private interests. Right here is the real secret of the uneasiness of the thick-and-thin protectionists over the repeal of the Sherman Law. If that piece of protection can be stricken down by Republican votes, why may not others? It is this inquiry, which they have been solemnly putting to themselves, that has led to all their sly intriguing and feeling after a grand political "deal" on the question of repeal. Innocent Mr. Barker comes right out into the daylight with his petition to the Senate, frankly admitting that the silver-producers have as good a right to their protection as he has to his, and proposing to give it to them with a generous hand.

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Senator Cameron knows his State—at least, he knows his party in his State, and the machine-men who bestride it. There was a Republican State Convention in Pennsylvania a few days ago, and it called upon the Pennsylvania Senators to vote for the repeal of the Sherman Law. On Monday week Senator Cameron made a speech against repeal. For this he was immediately denounced by the leading Republican papers of his State, who asserted that he was misrepresenting his party and betraying the business interests of his constituents. But two days later there was a tremendous convention at Reading of the State League of Republican Clubs, where there was great enthusiasm in denouncing the Democrats and all their works, a fresh pledging of loyalty and devotion to a high tariff and the Force Bill, and congratulation all round that "once again the Republicans in Congress have saved the day for honest money." One innocent-minded delegate thought that this last plank would look better if it had some reference to the share Don Cameron had taken in saving the day, and he accordingly introduced an amendment rebuking the Senator for his course. This was voted down in the Committee on Resolutions by 17 to 8. The Republican clubs know on which side their bread is buttered. Why should they heed the chief Republican papers of Philadelphia and Pittsburgh any more than Senator Cameron does? They know, as he knows, that a good loud cry of "Free Trade" will drive them into line whenever their support is wanted. The contempt which Cameron feels for the opinion of his State is justified by the way its Republican clubs and all other aspiring politicians kneel to him.

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Senator Gorman's reply to Senator Wolcott on Wednesday week related to one of the branches or offshoots of the Silver-Repeal Bill. It was quite as effective, however, as if it had been on the direct question. The question before the Senate was the resolution of Senator Dubois of Idaho to postpone the silver repeal until January so that the vacancies in the Senate from Montana, Washington, and Wyoming might be filled. Such postponement would be an act of imbecility more glaring, if possible, than that which the Senate is guilty of from day to day. Suppose that Montana, Washington, and Wyoming should never fill those vacancies. If the Senate should stop business in order to accommodate their leisure in electing Senators, they might conceive that the easiest way to defeat the Repeal Bill would be never to fill those vacancies at all. Then, by the same rule, any State that wanted to defeat legislation could do so by the easy expedient of not electing Senators. Evidently, the resolution of postponement offered by Mr. Dubois was not intended seriously, but was one of the numerous contrivances devised by the silverites for the purpose of occupying time and postponing a vote. It was accordingly as good a text for Mr. Gorman to hang a lecture on as any other.

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He applied the lash to the obstructors with such vigor and effect that they visibly winced under it, and Mr. Aldrich, when his turn came, did the same good service. The latter spoke a true word, and one which will find an echo everywhere, when he said that he "intended to coöperate with the Senator from Maryland, or with any other Senator, in saving the American Senate, if possible, from further humiliation in the eyes of the American people. The question (he continued) whether the Senate should be permitted to legislate to carry out its constitutional functions was a question above party and above party consideration. If, at the dictation of a minority, legislation was to cease, it was high time that patriotic Senators on both sides should confer as to some method by which the Government should be preserved and carried out." Those were words which the country has longed to hear from somebody in the Senate Chamber these many weeks.

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The metropolitan press is a great bugbear just now to silver Senators whose local press is also against them in the present controversy. Senator Morgan went into a kind of male hysterics on the subject last week. The New York newspapers, according to his view, were trying to browbeat the Senate of the United States and to coerce it to pass a bill which the people did not want, etc., etc. Mr. Morgan's frenzy was all "put on." He knows that the press of his own party in his own State is against him on this question. He thinks he can manage it, however, when the time comes for choosing a successor to himself. So he seeks to conciliate the Alabama Populists. Between the two he will probably fall into the ditch. The metropolitan press represents the country in the present fight, as the vote in the House clearly proves. Why does not Mr. Morgan fall into a fit while contemplating the 130 majority for repeal in the House of Representatives?

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Senator Morgan must be very stupid not to see that his denunciations of a "hireling press" are really denunciations of public opinion. Granting all that he says about the mercenary character of the men who edit newspapers, the very fact that so overwhelming a majority of them are for repeal proves that an overwhelming majority of the people are also for repeal. The more mercenary the editor is, the more heed will he give to the wishes of his subscribers and advertisers. He would not for a moment advocate a policy distasteful to any man from whom he can get his penny a line. If the fact were, as Senator Morgan would have it understood, that the people were bent on free silver, but that the editors were determined on striking it down, then the unhappy men who write for the press would indeed be speedily reduced to the Senator's rhetorical "crust and a dried herring." But the truth is, that the newspapers give only feeble utterance to the intense disgust of the people with the Senate, and their strong desire for a speedy repeal of the Sherman Law. Far from displeasing their readers by advocating repeal, editors are not half vigorous enough on the subject to suit them, as is shown by the fact that the expressions heard in private, and found in letters to the newspapers, are far more violent than those which find a place in the editorial columns. The Alabama Senator should quit beating about the bush, and frankly say it is the popular wish which he despises and means to defeat if he possibly can. His heroics about the "hireling press" really mean that and nothing else.

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Senator Hill is as jubilant over his success in packing a State Convention for Maynard as he was in February of last year when he packed the one which sent a solid Hill delegation to the National Democratic Convention. He had a very poor opinion of the anti-Machine Democrats at that time, remarking of them: "They have the mass-meetings and the brass bands, but I've got the delegates." He had a more harmonious convention last year than he is likely to have at Saratoga to-day, but the outcome did not justify his sanguine hopes at the time he assembled his men. He discovered after the Convention that there was a public opinion which was far more powerful than his Machine, and if he were capable of seeing anything in politics except organization, he would perceive that the same public opinion is threatening to upset his plans again. He may succeed, and probably will suc-

ceed, in rejecting all opposing elements from his Convention, and may thus be able to accomplish his purpose of nominating Maynard by acclamation, but the nomination of a criminal even by acclamation does not make the task of electing him any less arduous.

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Mayor Gilroy has a second article in the *North American Review* on "The Wealth of New York," though he is not in any proper sense an authority on the wealth of New York, as he is neither an economist nor statistician, nor a particularly well-instructed man in any field. Moreover, he has an obvious interest in making the wealth of New York seem as large as possible, in order to keep down public indignation over the number of loafers and scamps who, through the instrumentality of Mr. Gilroy and his friends, are to live off it. We wish sincerely the editor of the *North American Review*, when he gets public officials to write his pages, would limit them to the subjects on which they are real authorities, and on which the public, therefore, would listen to them with real interest. For example, nothing is of more importance to the moral and material future of this city to-day than an exact knowledge of the source and amount of the wealth of the leading members of the Tammany Ring. There is a general belief, founded on their style of living, that they are growing rapidly rich on small salaries. Is this true? If true, what are the sources of their wealth? What does their revenue outside their salaries amount to in the course of the year, and who pays it? We venture to say that a frank and truthful article on this subject from Mr. Gilroy or from Mr. Croker would be one of the most important contributions made to the literature of municipal government within the last fifty years. It would be well worth (say) $500 to the *North American Review*, and would be eagerly read all over the civilized world, whereas Gilroy on the wealth of New York will be read by very few even in this city. Think, for example, of the flood of light which would be thrown on some of the most serious problems of our municipal system by a candid explanation by Mr. Gilroy of the reason why Tom Brennan has to be supported out of the wealth of New York, or of the exact nature of the lien on that wealth held by Scannell, the murderer. If Mr. Gilroy were to write a volume on these topics, he would leap into a fame that would, for a while at least, pale that of Adam Smith or Ricardo.

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The full text of Judge Ross's decision in what is known as "the Highbinder case" has reached us and is interesting reading. The United States seeks from the court authority to deport under the Geary Act a certain Chinaman, whose name does not appear in the opinion except as "the defendant" and a "Highbinder." The Highbinder, whom, for convenience' sake, we shall call Ah Sing, is a Chinese professional gambler, carrying on business in the city of San Francisco. He also, to use the Judge's language, "belongs to the criminal class commonly called 'Highbinders,' whose avocation is understood to be the commission of any and every species of crime." The question before the Court was whether Ah Sing, as thus described, was a Chinese "laborer," as that term is used in the treaty and in the Geary Act, or belonged to the exempted class of teachers, students, merchants, and travellers from curiosity. Judge Ross decides that he is in law a "laborer," and gets his rule of interpretation from the negotiations with China for a modification of the Treaty in 1880. The refusal of our State Department to agree to any precise definition of the term "laborer," as proposed by the Chinese, indicated, he thinks, a desire to keep it wide open for the accommodation of gamblers and "Highbinders." Consequently, Ah Sing is caught and must go home to the central Flowery Land. We are bound to say we think his case a hard one and the decision an insult to Labor and to New York city. The idea that a gambler is a "laborer" has certainly never before occurred to any lawyer or philologist in this part of the world, nor do we here consider a "Highbinder" a proper subject for expulsion from the country. On the contrary, his claims to high municipal office here receive at least respectful consideration, and sometimes secure his elevation to the criminal bench. For we say, "What is the business of a criminal judge? Is it not to deal with criminals? And who is so fit to deal with criminals as a Highbinder whose avocation has been 'the commission of any and every species of crime,' and can follow all the intricate windings of the highbinding heart and brain?"

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Mr. Gladstone has undoubtedly furnished "the keynote of the campaign" to the Liberals by his attack on the House of Lords at Edinburgh last week. In fact, a greater piece of luck for the Radicals than the defeat of the bill by a great muster of Peers could hardly have been imagined. It at once enables the Liberal orators, like Mr. Gladstone, to establish a resemblance in fame and in value between the Home Rule Bill and several of the great historic measures, such as the Reform Bill, the removal of the paper duties, and the disestablishment of the Irish Church, to which the Peers have opposed an equally fierce resistance. Moreover, by making the resistance of the Lords a campaign issue, he closes the mouths of a good many Unionists like Mr. Chamberlain, whose denunciation of the House of Lords in their Radical days, as enemies of all progress, was fierce and bitter. In fact, the Liberals are now heading their campaign leaflets with some of "Joseph's" choicest vituperation of the Peers. Mr. Gladstone's suggestion, too, that if the House of Commons should go to the country on the Home-Rule Bill, the Peers should go too, and if defeated do what the House of Commons would have to do—clear out—is in the wicked old man's happiest vein. It is strokes like this which maintain his hold on the masses, and make him the most formidable parliamentary antagonist who has appeared in England since Pitt.

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There was an interesting debate in the House of Commons on the 21st of September on the subject of silver demonetization in India. Mr. G. Russell, in behalf of the India Office, said that the fixing of a rate (16d.) at which gold would be accepted at the mint in exchange for rupees, and at which gold would be received for taxes, was not intended to work in the inverse way. That is, it was not intended to say that gold would be given for rupees at the rate of 16d. per rupee, or that the rate of exchange on Calcutta would be held at 16d. Therefore it was a mistake to assume that the Government's plan had failed because exchange had fallen to 15¼d. On the contrary, the closing of the Indian mints to silver was an unalterable fact. It had already resulted in great benefits to India. The measure had not been forced upon India, but had been acquiesced in by the Imperial Government after the most careful investigation by a commission composed of bimetallists as well as monometallists. Mr. Goschen took part in the debate. As he represents the Conservative party on its financial side, and is a sort of half-silver man, his remarks are entitled to great weight. He said that in matters of legislation for India the interests of the Indian taxpayer solely were considered. He knew this to be a fact from long familiarity with Indian legislation. The present case was no exception to the rule. He considered that if anybody had a right to object to the general policy of Indian legislation, it was the British taxpayer, who paid the whole or nearly the whole amount of the naval charge for defending the coast of India, which amounted to millions every year. In regard to the demonetization of silver by India he (Mr. Goschen) had been blamed for not expressing an opinion on the subject earlier. He had not done so because he appreciated the difficulties of the situation, because he knew that the persons in charge of it were doing the best they could, and because he had no alternative scheme to put forward. The Government was under no obligation to keep the rate of exchange steady at 16d. or at any other rate. If it was in need of money, it would be obliged to sell council bills at whatever rate they would bring, and no blame could be attached to such action.

*DEMOCRATIC RESPONSIBILITY.*

THE President's letter to Gov. Northen of Georgia was admirably calculated to increase the pressure of public opinion upon the Senate. He puts the case so clearly that the average man, even though he have little knowledge of economic laws and principles, cannot fail to comprehend it. He is in favor of a sound-money standard because it gives every American laborer and farmer a true dollar for a dollar's worth of labor or produce, because it establishes our credit among the nations of the earth, and enables us to borrow their capital, and because it will induce those in our own country who have capital to invest to put it into new enterprises rather than to hoard it. In a few words he thus states the folly of our present financial laws, as it was demonstrated in the recent depression, and places the responsibility for the continued existence of those laws upon the Senate, whose failure to act upon repeal he declares astonishes him. He takes particular pains to say that he is as inflexibly opposed to compromise now as he ever has been, and that nothing whatever can be done in the way of readjusting our currency legislation until "after the repeal of the law which is charged with all our financial woes."

The November elections of this year are to be held four weeks from next Tuesday, and if the Democratic party hopes to escape defeat in any of those which are to be held in the Northern States, it must prod its majority in the Senate into immediate action upon the Silver Repeal Bill. It seems inexplicable that the Democrats in the Senate are unable to perceive the political consequences of their present course. President Cleveland, in his letter to Gov. Northen, gives them warning of the risk they are running by saying: "My daily prayer is, that the delay occasioned by such opposition may not be the cause of plunging the country into deeper depression than it has yet known, and that the Democratic party may not be justly held responsible for such a catastrophe." That there will be, unless the Senate acts, a "deeper depression" in financial and commercial affairs, and that the Democratic party will be "justly held responsible for such a catastrophe," no intelligent person can doubt. The Democrats have a majority of five in the Senate, and they will be held responsible by the country if they are unable to save it from the evil consequences of the Silver Law.

It will not help them with the country to say that the chief obstructionists are Republican Senators from the silver States. The people will look only at the fact that the Democrats are in complete control of all branches of the Government, having the Presidency and a majority in both houses of Congress, and they will say that if this is the best kind of rule the Democratic party can give them, they will see what they can get out of the Republican party. Popular reasoning, in times of panic or depression in business, does not go much below the surface. The party in power is always selected as the first victim, and in this instance it will be rightly selected. The Democrats are responsible for the delay. They are responsible for the weak, vacillating, and half-hearted course which their leaders are pursuing in the Senate. Of course the struggle is a difficult one, and the obstacles in the way of success are great, but the party which shows itself capable of action under difficulties, and able to surmount great obstacles, is the party which shows itself worthy of power.

It is notorious that the weakness of the majority lies in certain Southern Senators who, for the sake of "making themselves solid" with the Populist party in their States, are opposing repeal. These men are indifferent to the welfare of their party, provided they can make their own reëlection sure. They reason that, since there is not to be another Presidential election for three years, they can afford to let the Republicans get the upper hand in a few Northern elections provided that by so doing they can save their local or State party interests. They do not seem to be able to comprehend that, if by their course they convince the country that the Democratic party is incapable of giving it safe and stable government, it will be impossible to elect another Democratic President or another Democratic Congress for many years. They are the blindest kind of Bourbons, as well as the most unpatriotic of men. They know well enough that if the Populist views they are conciliating were to be put into practice in either State or national affairs, the result would be irreparable confusion and disaster; but instead of standing up like honest men and true leaders and showing their constituents the folly and harm of the Populist doctrines, they fall in with them and do their utmost to perpetuate them. They are not merely bad party men; they are enemies of the whole country and of the welfare of all the people.

The supreme folly of their course lies in the fact that repeal must come in the end. No other outcome is possible. Compromise is out of the question. If it were to be agreed upon by the Senate, it would be rejected by the House; and even if the House were to accept it, the President would veto it. In the meantime where would the country be? Unquestionably, in the throes of the worst panic in its history.

*THE VAN ALEN CASE.*

THE charge that Mr. Van Alen of Rhode Island received the nomination for the Italian mission in return for a contribution of $50,000 to the Democratic campaign fund last fall has been current for some months. It was, we believe, first set afloat early in the winter, owing to the positive announcement of Mr. Van Alen and his friends that he was to have the mission. The uncharitable then promptly came forward and said that he was to have it in virtue of a "bargain" with Mr. W. C. Whitney. This bargain Mr. Van Alen vigorously denied from the beginning, while admitting the large contribution. But several friends of the Administration protested privately to the President against the nomination before it was made, on the ground that, whether there was a bargain or not, the bestowal of a great place on a man who had made an extraordinarily large contribution in aid of his election (a sum which would be a fortune to the vast majority of American citizens) would inevitably be considered by the public a *quid pro quo*—that is, an appointment to office for a pecuniary consideration.

It must not be forgotten that while it is important in a republic that justice and offices should not be sold, it is even more important that the people should not have any reason for believing that they are sold. On this principle Mr. Cleveland, we think, acted in his first term. He disappointed the expectations of several gentlemen who had made large donations in money to his campaign chest, and thus incurred their enmity, but, although the appointments would have been fit, his best friends and admirers warmly approved of his course. One of the strongest of his claims on public confidence and respect, in fact, in 1888, when he came up for reëlection, was his freedom from the alliances with and obligations to rich men which have proved the bane of the Republican party, and finally largely contributed to its overthrow.

Mr. Whitney, whose name has been mixed up in the affair a good deal, comes out at last in a long letter, and denies the "bargain," and alleges that when Mr Van Alen gave his money, there was no conversation between them as to his having the mission to Italy or any other office; that Mr. Van Alen never mentioned the subject to him, and that he had made no contracts for office during the canvass, and had never called on Mr. Cleveland to fulfil any campaign contract, and had assured Mr. Cleveland that he was under no obligation to him to appoint Mr. Van Alen or any one else. He also publishes a letter from Mr. Van Alen, dated May 11, which denies that he had "ever stated that he was to have a diplomatic position in exchange for money subscribed by him for political purposes." The most important part of the letter, however, is this:

> "There was absolutely no understanding between myself and any one that I should have any office under the Government. What was said on the subject was said after the election in November last, and was merely an expression of a wish on my part and a promise of assistance in carrying out my wishes."

This is worth all the other documents in the case, and is in fact the only one of any importance. Mr. Van Alen here admits by implication the large money subscription. About the exact amount there

is a curious reticence on all sides. Mr. Whitney "does not feel at liberty to state it," but why not state it if it was an instance of very patriotic, generous, and cordial support of the party in the late campaign? What is there to conceal about it if the making of it was a creditable thing to Mr. Van Alen? Although it is wise and right for a rich man to contribute largely to the party funds, there seems to be some mysterious impropriety in letting the party know how much he gave. Mr. Van Alen also admits that after the election, won in part at least, according to Mr. Whitney, by Mr. Van Alen's timely pecuniary aid, he "expressed a wish on his part," presumably to Mr. Whitney, for something not named, but presumably the Italian mission; and he got, presumably from Mr. Whitney, "a promise of assistance in carrying out his wishes." This promise was probably carried out by Mr. Whitney's letter of June 20 to the President warmly commending him for the place, for various reasons, prominent among them "his patriotic, generous, and cordial support in the canvass, when friends were few and calls were great." There can be no question as to what this means.

The real issue in this matter has been clouded by the charge that there was a formal "bargain" between Mr. Whitney and Mr. Van Alen. There evidently was nothing of the kind. Had there been, it would have been the first of its kind. Such bargains are never made. Mr. Van Alen gave a large sum of money, and, when the election was over, he mentioned something he would like to have, and got a promise of assistance in getting it. Here is the transaction as described by himself and by Mr. Whitney. Some confusion has also been created by personal attacks on Mr. Van Alen of a very gross character. They have been disgraceful. He is a gentleman, and a man of more accomplishments and greater fitness for the place than, we venture to say, any of his predecessors since Mr. Marsh. But he has one fatal disqualification, and that is the contribution of a large sum to aid in the election of the appointing officer. No explanations, or denials, or feats of interpretation will get over this. *The last man in the country to whom the President of the United States should give a great office, is the man who has given most money towards electing him.* The bestowal of offices on persons who support the party with great sums of money may, in some cases, be innocent, but nothing but a total change in human nature would prevent it very soon making every office, including the Presidency, an article of merchandise. The enormous venality into which the Republican party was plunged in order to maintain the tariff, was one of our strongest arguments for its expulsion from power. Let us not begin thus early to copy its errors or its quibbles.

### *DIPLOMATIC SALARIES.*

THE recent law of Congress promoting, in a roundabout way, changes in the titular designations of some of our diplomatic agents, has brought on Congress, as every one foresaw it would, an agitation for an increase of the salaries of those agents. That law has, in effect, placed in the hands of foreign governments the title and rank of our diplomatic agents, because it declares in effect that when a foreign government sends an ambassador to Washington, the President can, and should, reciprocate. It is possible, even probable, that the larger part of the great Powers will change the title of their diplomatic agents to ambassadors. Why should they not, if the name now implies so little in power and functions?

The giving of names by Congress to our diplomatic agents, and the regulating by Congress of their pay, is comparatively modern in our practice. Down to the end of Madison's second term a lump sum was appropriated by Congress "for the expenses of diplomatic intercourse," and the President distributed names and salaries in his discretion. That plan followed the constitutional rule that the President is the fountain of diplomatic agencies, and Congress has nothing to do therewith but to give money enough. It left the President free to nominate and, with consent of the Senate, appoint to any place with any rank, according to his appreciation of the public interest.

The President's power to appoint diplomatic agents is not derived from Congress, and cannot be limited by Congress excepting through its refusal to supply the needed money. Probably the Senate can control the President in that matter, under the second clause of section second of the second article of the Constitution, as a conjoint part of the Executive; but even then, when one has once been made an ambassador, or minister, the President should have power to send the ambassador, or minister, to any government, and change his post of duty as circumstances may require, and without asking the consent of the Senate. The President has, however, often sent diplomatic agents to foreign countries without consent of the Senate. President Fillmore, under the advice of Secretary Daniel Webster, sent Commodore Perry, in that way, as Ambassador to Japan in 1852. Mr. Bayard is not our first ambassador.

Obviously the President could, without the recent absurd law, change, during the recess of the Senate, the titular designation of every mission, although probably no President would thus exercise discretion. When Congress began to put its hands into the business by declaring that the President *shall* appoint, with a defined work and salary, Congress must be understood as declaring that he *may* appoint, and, if he does appoint, the salary shall be as prescribed. Congress cannot compel the President to send a diplomatic mission where he does not think it best that one be sent. The office of diplomatic agent is constitutional. If it be conceded, as it must be, that the President can supplement the statutory diplomatic agent at Hawaii, for example by a special commissioner or ambassador, not authorized by Congress or confirmed by the Senate, then there may be, in one sense, a statutory diplomacy and a President's diplomacy at the same court at the same moment.

As to salaries, the country must now expect a good deal of gabble over what England or some other government pays, and an endeavor to show that only "money makes the diplomatic mare go." Money is, and will be, useful up to a certain point, but it will be very silly for the United States to go beyond that point. Every one should appreciate the special reasons applying to our country and countrymen. To spend with grace and dignity a lot of money in a social way in Europe or in New York, one must be trained thereto or be a laughing-stock. The faculty will not come solely by appointment by any President. Inheritance, experience, observation, tact, feeling, must all combine. And then, too, Congress cannot be certain that the appointee will not pocket the salary, instead of spending it in the ways of the "smart set." Expensive houses may be bought by Congress and fitted up for our embassies, but how about filling them properly with a man and woman every four years under our present system of selection?

By what test shall Congress rearrange diplomatic salaries? It will cost not much more for an ambassador to live in London or Paris than for the Vice President in Washington, if each is on the same average plane of comfort or luxury. Shall the ambassador have more than the Vice-President? And if we are to pay such salaries to diplomatic agents as England pays, what shall our Vice-President, Secretary of State, and Chief Justice have? To a diplomatic agent to the Argentine Republic England pays $17,000; to Vienna, $40,000 and a house; to Brussels, $16,000; to Rio de Janeiro, $22,500; to Pekin, $27,500; to Copenhagen, $15,000; to Cairo, $30,000 and a house; to Paris, $45,000 and a house; to Berlin, $37,500; to Rome, $35,000 and a house; to The Hague, $20,000; to St. Petersburg, $39,000 and a house; to Washington, $30,000 and a house. As Congress has, in an absurd way, sent an ambassador to London only because the Queen sent an ambassador to Washington, why not take the next step and buy a swell house for our Embassy in London and pay our Ambassador $30,000, simply because England does all that for her Ambassador near President Cleveland? It is the first step that costs.

### *HONESTY AT A PRICE.*

A WOMAN who had purchased an excursion ticket from London to some point at a considerable distance was unfortunate

enough to lose it, and a certain member of the London County Council was, as it proved, so unfortunate as to find it. He at once took it to the railway authorities, and, representing that he had bought the ticket but was suddenly compelled to abandon the trip, induced them to refund him the price. But presently the true purchaser of the ticket appeared upon the scene, and as it happened that only one ticket had been sold that day for the station named, and the ticket-seller recollected selling this to the woman, a case was made out against the Councilman which sent him to prison. Mr. John Burns, who occupies a position in England not unlike that formerly occupied by Mr. Powderly in this country, and who is a member of the London Council, felt moved to address his constituents upon this painful subject. After euphemistically and, indeed, somewhat inconsistently referring to the offence of his colleague as committed "in a moment of forgetfulness," he proceeded to deduce from the event a very important political principle. The only safeguard, he maintained, against such lapses from virtue was to be found in the payment of members of governing bodies. The people "did not give the men whom they elected the money which would keep them consistent and patriotic in the discharge of their duties."

It is evident that this principle is of a somewhat far-reaching character. It appears to involve the assumption that men who choose to engage in occupations where the remuneration is insufficient for their support, are not to be blamed for making up the deficiency by stealing. The world not only owes every man a living, but, if he finds it inadequate, he may take it out of the world. The starving man may properly supply his wants, not only if he is unable in any way to procure food, but also if his starving condition is owing to his having deliberately undertaken to perform service without pecuniary compensation. But, however this may be, Mr. Burns certainly failed to consider the experience of other countries with paid legislators. Some very interesting revelations were at the time taking place no further off than across the Channel in connection with the Panama Canal legislation, which were of a nature to prove that a salary is not a talisman against pecuniary corruption. There are other countries which would make no better figure than France, and we regret to say that Mr. Burns's theory is not supported by our own experience. The body in the city of New York corresponding roughly to the London Council has not been preserved from venality by being paid, and several of its members have been sentenced to State prison for taking bribes.

We fear that the experience of our other large cities affords no more support to Mr. Burns's theory, and the Legislatures of several of our States are most outrageously and persistently libelled if they do not contain many dishonest men who are in receipt of salaries sufficient at least to avert starvation. Nor if the theory were modified so as to excuse stealing where the salaries paid to members of governing bodies were sufficient for support, but insufficient for the maintenance of "respectable" establishments, in Carlyle's sense, would it find much firmer basis in our experience. Salaries are very high in the city of New York, there being few instances where the public officer does not receive more than equal labor would bring him in private life, but it would be difficult to prove that these salaries have freed us from jobbery and venality. In fact, a good deal could be said in support of the paradox that there is less corruption and dishonesty when low salaries are paid than when salaries are high, and that there is least when no salaries are paid at all.

The truth is, that Mr. Burns's theory disregards some important elements. One element is that every human being makes efforts for which the compensation is not pecuniary, and another is that honesty is a virtuous habit and not a purchasable commodity or service. The work of the legislator would confer distinction, if no salary were attached to it, more than if paid for in money, and distinction appeals to a great many men more than money. This work, too, is of a nature to occupy but a part of the time of those who do it; in most communities, a very small part. There are hundreds and thousands of men giving without pay to the affairs of churches and hospitals and other beneficent institutions a much greater amount of time than would suffice for the work of legislation if they were to undertake it. But men of this class play a continually smaller figure in our governing bodies. They are crowded out by a class of men to whom the salary attached to the office of legislator is worth a struggle which it is not to the former class. It is undoubtedly true that if legislators were unpaid, a certain number of poor men could not go to the Legislature. Whether this would be a misfortune for the community or not would be determined by a study of the achievements of our paid representatives in the work of legislation. Their recent achievements are not of very distinguished merit; but the subject is too large for discussion within our limits. We certainly shall rejoice if the Government of England retains under a régime of paid legislators that immunity from corruption which has distinguished it under the order that is now passing away; but unless human nature is to be different in the future from what it has been in the past, experience does not encourage this hope.

## THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.—X.

### ENGINEERING.

CHICAGO, September, 1893.

THE charge has been made against the buildings of the World's Columbian Exposition that they have been designed for external effect rather than for the purpose for which they were supposed to be intended—in other words, that the use of the buildings, as safe and appropriate structures for the preservation and display of the articles exhibited, has been made to yield to the demands of external show. This criticism, though severe, is well taken: the exteriors of the buildings, seen grouped together, are magnificent; when considered as tools for their supposed purposes, to house and show off classified exhibits, they are less perfect. The interiors are generally poor, and, furthermore, the installation of the exhibits has often been such as to aggravate rather than relieve the defects. The one interior which could have been made very effective was that of the great Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building, and yet an unsightly clock-tower, placed in the centre, has been allowed to break up all vistas, and the grand effect is lost.

In no building, however, are these defects so apparent as in Machinery Hall. It seems especially unfortunate that a building devoted by its name to engineering subjects should be, from an engineering point of view, the most defective building in the Fair. Externally, Machinery Hall fits fairly well among the principal group of buildings, but is of a style singularly inappropriate to the purpose which its name indicates, while the great east entrance, with its classical pediment, and the north entrance, with its circular porch, both enclosing deep porticos, without interior pillars, and crossed by heavy walls resting on nothing, are constructive absurdities very inappropriate here. The faults of the exterior could readily be forgiven in a structure which will be removed before it has time to go out of fashion, but the defects of the interior are more glaring. The interior of this structure, devoted specially to engineering purposes, consists of three parallel aisles formed of semicircular ribbed arches supported on vertical continuations of the ribs, with no ties or change of section at the spring-line of the arches. The outline bears no relation to the strains which must exist, and, being contrary to correct lines of construction, is necessarily ugly. A cross aisle through the centre gives an opportunity for structures resembling domes, and the three domes are enough to suggest a method of accentuating the interior by an arrangement of prominent exhibits. Unfortunately this has not been done, and the general appearance is a disappointment from the start. Everything seems flat; it is like an oration from which all rhetoric has been eliminated, or like a dull book which can be studied but not read. The exhibits are there, but none has any prominence over another.

Those who remember the Philadelphia Exposition of 1876 know how very effective the interior of Machinery Hall was made, with the great Corliss engine in the centre, the Krupp gun in one corner, and a few very large exhibits standing out as prominent features which gave a rhetorical effect to the whole. At the Paris Exposition of 1889 the great Machinery Hall was second only to the Eiffel Tower, its superb roof and fine interior being the one feature of the Exposition proper which was universally admired. At Chicago, on the other hand, Machinery Hall is the one large building which attracts least attention, and the one building which is especially disappointing to those who should appreciate it most—the engineers. In Spanish-American cities, one is sometimes surprised to find the interior of a building, whose architecture shows that it was originally intended for a very different purpose, filled with tools and used as a machine-

shop. The impression formed on entering Machinery Hall is much the same, and the impression is so strong that the real worth of the things exhibited is overlooked.

The so-called Machinery Hall, however, is really misnamed; it is, in fact, little more than the power-house of the Exposition. The features which should have made the machinery department most effective are to be found elsewhere. The most striking thing to be seen in Machinery Hall is the long row of boilers in the annex on the south side. In a plain lean-to of corrugated iron is placed the series of boilers which provide power for the whole Exposition. They are arranged in a single row, one after another, occupying what seems an interminable length; they are all water-tube boilers, and they are all fired with oil; they develop over 20,000 horse-power. Visitors can see them from a gallery on the level of the main floor of the building, or from the lower level at which they are worked. Their arrangement in a single line tends to increase their apparent magnitude, and one can hardly believe that the effective power of this great battery of boilers is less than has lately been concentrated in the hull of a single ocean steamer. To all who visit Machinery Hall, I would say, visit the boiler-room first; if you have time for but one thing, see the boilers and go.

The distribution of steam from the boilers is made under the floor of the building. The engines are placed along the south side of the main building. The most prominent and the largest engine is the great Allis engine; nevertheless, it has no striking features which appeal to the eye of the layman. It is hard to realize that this unpretending horizontal engine, with its four cylinders and its big fly-wheel, develops nearly twice the power developed by the Corliss engine at Philadelphia; yet it is true, and it is a simple fact that the battery of boilers in the annex furnishes nearly ten times the power that the Philadelphia Corliss engine developed. Outside the electric plants, there is no machine in which greater changes have been made in the last seventeen years than in the steam engine. The Corliss engine at Philadelphia was a single long-stroke condensing beam-engine, working with comparatively high pressure for those days. Among the whole group of engines in Machinery Hall there is scarcely a simple engine to be found. They are generally either compound or triple-expansion, while the Allis engine is quadruple, working the same steam successively in each of its four cylinders. One has but to look carefully over these series of engines to see how completely the compounding principle has been accepted by the modern engineer.

A few of the engines run lines of shafting which supply power to looms and other small machines in Machinery Hall. For the most part, however, the engines, including the great Allis engine, simply run dynamos, and here, in this power-house improperly called Machinery Hall, is ground out the electric power by which the whole Exposition is run. Nothing indicates more than this the advance and limitations of electricity. So long as electric force was looked to as a source of power, its great cost defeated its use; since it has been accepted as a means of conveying power, there seems to be no limitation to its value. All the power begins in the great battery of boilers in the annex; it is converted into useful form by the group of engines along the south side of the building; it is conveyed over electric wires to illuminate the buildings at night, to the stalls south of the lagoon where the electric launches are charged, and to give power wherever power is wanted throughout Jackson Park.

The engines occupy perhaps one-quarter of the whole width of the building; north of this the space is devoted to machines, and to some other things which hardly seem appropriately placed here, varying from Mr. Schneider's exhibit of heavy steel forgings and shapes, from the Creusot Works in France, to the confectionery of the little candy-stands. There is the usual collection of Jacquard looms, weaving all kinds of figured ribbons which people are expected to buy. Here and there a group will be found around some special machine which has the advantage of making a noise. In the British section one notices a specially compact form of engine, known as the Willans central-valve engine, which is made either simple, compound, or triple, always using a single piston-rod, the cylinders being placed above each other, and the steam and exhaust both being taken through the hollow piston-rod. By searching, many matters of interest will be found in this building, which contains a great deal more than a first glance would lead one to expect.

In the Swedish section, buried like a diamond among larger surrounding objects, is found the gem of Machinery Hall. It is Dr. de Laval's steam turbine, which is in fact simply a little turbine wheel run by steam, but whose claims are of the most extraordinary character. Two sizes of turbines are exhibited, five and twenty horse-power. The twenty-horse-power wheel is a steel disc about six inches in diameter, with the buckets cut on the circumference and a tire shrunk around the whole, which is driven at the extraordinary speed of 22,000 revolutions a minute. The periphery of this tiny wheel moves at a speed of over six miles a minute, and this speed is so great that the mere different intensities of the solid steel forging form elements of disturbance, and quiet motion is obtained only by mounting the wheel on a slender shaft which, by springing between bearings, lets the wheel find the centre of gravity, which the builder's art is not delicate enough to determine. The five-horse-power turbine revolves 30,000 times per minute. These extreme velocities are geared down ten times by a gear-wheel and pinion with carefully cut spiral gears, and the turbines run dynamos at one-tenth their own speed. The steam is admitted through several nozzles, and, after passing through the wheel, escapes through an exhaust-box into the air or the vacuum of a condenser. The exhibitor claims an economy almost equal to that of a triple-expansion engine. It is certainly a wonderful machine, but, enclosed as it is in its cover, the casual visitor would never suspect the existence of the wonderful little tool. The suggestions which it makes are immense. In our grandfathers' days the big over-shot water-wheel, with its slow, impressive motion, was considered the highest example of hydraulic economy; to-day it has absolutely disappeared before the superiority of the turbine. The great steam-engine of to-day, with its large cylinders, its reciprocating motion, its disturbances which cannot be counterbalanced, is the most effective form of power we have, but it is as defective as it is effective. It may be that the tiny steam turbine which is seen in Machinery Hall is the precursor of an army of steam turbines before which the reciprocating steam-engine will absolutely disappear.

The redeeming feature, however, of the engineering portion of the World's Columbian Exposition lies in the fact that it is not found in Machinery Hall. The machines which its name would lead one to expect to find here must be looked for in three other departments. The Mining Building, the Electricity Building, and the Transportation Building are the real Machinery Hall. There is one other building which must not be forgotten. Next to the distribution of electricity the most important feature is the distribution of water; at Philadelphia this was accomplished by a pumping-station built by Mr. Henry R. Worthington, who was then living, and which, though located outside the grounds, formed a part of the Exhibition. At Chicago the corporation which has adopted as its name the individual name of this great engineer, has erected a pumping plant of far greater power than the one at Philadelphia, located in a small building near the southeast corner of Machinery Hall. This pumping-station is well worth a visit. The engines are of the well-known Worthington duplex pattern; of the two largest, one is vertical and one horizontal, the latter being fitted with the special high-duty attachment which has been adopted since Mr. Worthington's death. Not only is the general water-supply handled from this pumping-station, but it is these pumps which drive the fountains that are the principal attraction at the west end of the Court of Honor.

Of the three buildings referred to, the Mining Building is perhaps the most effective. It is almost the only building which has a good interior, and this interior has been effectively used. It would more properly be called the Metallurgical Building, as much more of its space is devoted to the products of mines, and to machinery which has an indirect connection with mining, than to actual mining matters. The products, moreover, are not confined to the crude output of the mine, but extend to finished metal work, the product of iron mills being distributed among the several buildings on a system which cannot be understood.

The Electricity Building stands next to the Mining Building, and its interior is rather effective, especially in the evening, advantage being taken of the brilliancy of the electric lights to illuminate in a great variety of ways. This building is really devoted to the use of which it bears the name, but it is hard to see why the comparatively small electric appliances which this building is filled with, should have been separated from the great array of dynamos in the power-house.

When one enters the Transportation Building, one feels that the defects of the so-called Machinery Hall are redeemed. The building itself is a wooden structure, and the interior is poor. The exterior is totally unlike that of any other building on the grounds, in that a departure has been made from classical outlines; color rather than shape has been relied on for decoration. There is an appropriateness in this departure: transportation is preeminently a matter of utility: everything relating to transportation must be regarded as a tool, and the difference between tools and monuments must not be forgotten. In the present condition of the arts, especially in America, metallic tools are the cheapest and best; masonry construction, though the best for monumental use and in positions of great stability, seldom makes an economical tool. The architect of the Transportation Building has recognized that the masonry forms of the classical styles are not adapted to metallic construction. The Transportation Building is of wood covered, as all the buildings are, with humbug, but the lines and general features of decoration are comparatively well adapted to metallic construction and are appropriate here.

The interior is cheap and rather poor, but the most has been made of it, and a collection of exhibits has been brought together here which, from the engineering view, is of more value than all the rest of the Exposition. While the American exhibits fill a considerable portion of the space, European nations are admirably represented, and many of the best and most interesting features are from abroad. There is one feature which may be criticised. The most prominent thing in the south nave of the building is a full-sized model of the great 125-pound steam-hammer at Bethlehem; this model should have been in Machinery Hall, and, if placed under the central dome of that building, would have served admirably to relieve the flatness of the present display. In the narrow nave of the Transportation Building it is less effective, and apparently its only relation to transportation is that it is used to forge guns which, when finished, start the transportation of projectiles.

Transportation may generally be divided into two classes, by land and water; each of these may be divided into transportation by animal and by mechanical power. The north portion of the building is perhaps the least interesting, and is occupied by articles of land transportation by animal power, from the different forms of light buggies in which young people like to drive, to those more gloomy four-wheeled vehicles in which the last journey is begun. The north end of the gallery is largely devoted to the most modern form of transportation by animal power, the bicycle. The old high wheel and the cushioned tire are hardly to be seen; the pneumatic tire and the ball bearing occupy prominent places, while among the bicycle exhibits are shown polished steel balls of sizes varying up to two and one-half inches, which lead the engineer to ask searching questions as to the use to which these larger balls can be put, without getting any answer until much more has been learned than is now known of the actual strength of this class of bearings.

Transportation by water is illustrated in many ways, but, in general, foreign nations, and especially England, are much better represented than America. The White Star Steamship Company shows nothing in the Transportation Building, but has constructed a building of its own in a different part of the grounds. The Cunard Steamship Company has a set of models representing the history of its fleet, all on the same scale, from the little wooden *Britannia* of 1840 to the *Campania*, whose merits and defects are now being discussed. The English builders have also similar exhibits, and models of sister ships, identical except in name, are in several instances found among builders' and owners' exhibits. The two principal German steamship lines also show models of their vessels, while a French company has occupied its space with pictures of harbors and the interior of steamships so lighted as to be interesting to the countryman, but of little value except for show. Besides these there are many models of more ancient craft, and one who has the privilege of the private office of the chief of the Department will find some illuminated Spanish manuscript volumes, in which the modern compiler has shown that the art of decorative writing is not lost, and which give a remarkable history of the development of navigation.

It is, however, in land transportation that the principal interest centres. One striking illustration occupies the whole southern portion of the annex. It is a selection from the Haarmann Museum at Osnabrück, which is intended to illustrate the different forms of railroad construction from the beginning to the latest. Not, however, satisfied with the modern railroad, these Germans, with the profundity which characterizes their race, have dug out from a bog in North Germany the remains of an ancient Roman road, built of timber, near the beginning of the Christian era. This road, which has been traced for something like forty miles, was formed of flat slabs, laid overlapping, held in place by stakes driven through square axe-cut holes, and evidently covered with earth so as to make a smooth-wearing surface. It was a Roman progenitor of George Stephenson's railroad across Chat Moss—the same principle of a broad bearing distributing weight over boggy soil; and the moisture of the bog has preserved this wooden road for two thousand years.

The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company has collected a large exhibit which it calls the World's Railway, and which is intended to illustrate the development of railroad construction from the very beginning to the present year. It consists of pictures, full-sized models, and actual locomotives, the latter being from its own lines. The "Grasshopper" is here and the "Camel," but the "Camel" is a ten-wheel engine with a truck, though there is also a full-sized model of the original eight-wheel "Camel," which was built to climb the seventeen-mile grade. The models are of wood and interesting; here are found the early forms when the value of the coefficient of friction was unknown, and among them is the little locomotive which kicked itself along with two legs. This is not the only amusing locomotive, but many fantastic forms of engines and cars may be found distributed among the pictures on the walls. One section, however, of this exhibit, as originally contemplated, is not here. Mr. Theodore Cooper was intrusted with the task of preparing a set of drawings and other illustrations which should show the historical development of American bridge-building. He made the collection, but the railroad has not included it in its exhibit; it is, however, to be found in the west gallery by itself.

Two English railroads, the London and Northwestern and the Great Western, make interesting exhibits. The London and Northwestern is the most striking. As everybody knows, this railroad includes the original Liverpool and Manchester Railway. At one end is shown a model of the famous "Rocket," which took the prize at the Rainhill competition; at the other is shown the very latest form of three-cylinder compound locomotive as constructed by Mr. Webb at Crewe. They are the extremes of English locomotive history. The Great Western Railway exhibits the locomotive "Lord of the Isles," the identical engine which was shown in the Crystal Palace at London in 1851, and which was for many years the typical fast broad-gauge passenger locomotive. It stands here in its original dimensions on Brunel's seven-foot gauge. This railway has devoted much of its space to photographic illustrations of the country through which it passes, and its exhibit appeals as an advertisement to the public as well as a lesson to the student.

A great many locomotives are here, generally on the main floor, and most in the annex on the west side. Here the evidences of compounding again appear. Though the compound locomotive is a rarity in actual operation, a large majority of the locomotives exhibited are compound. Like every tool which is comparatively new, the arrangements of the details are very different, the number of cylinders varying from two to four; except, however, one French locomotive, no engine is to be found in which advantage is taken of the use of four cylinders to place cranks opposite each other, and to compensate reciprocating motions by reciprocating motions. The Pullman Palace Car Company and the Wagner Company each exhibit a full passenger train, showing in its appointments a degree of elegance which one hopes will be exchanged for a corresponding degree of sense before the trains are actually put in service. The Pullman Company also exhibits a model of the town of Pullman; it occupies a well-lighted situation which one wishes might have have been devoted to something less like a toy, especially when the original town can be reached in half an hour from Chicago.

The various air-brake companies make rather unique exhibits, each in the shape of a full equipment for a train of a hundred cars, collected together into a very compact form. The full number of brake cylinders and the full length of piping are put together, the pipes being arranged in very different manners, but generally having a snaky effect which does not suggest the real object. The fact that each of these exhibits represents the equipment of a train of one hundred cars, and that a train of a hundred modern cars means the transportation in one lot of 2,500 tons of freight, is perhaps the most suggestive thing about them.

These larger things are simply, however, some of the more prominent objects in this very interesting department. The Pennsylvania Railroad and the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad have placed their exhibits outside, partly in special buildings for the purpose, and partly, as is eminently appropriate for track and rolling stock, out of doors. It is hard to decide which of the two is the better exhibit as a whole. The Pennsylvania Railroad has an original old train, the New York Central has a reproduction of an old train and its latest form of locomotive. The New York Central Railroad's building is decidedly the handsomer of the two; the exhibits inside the Pennsylvania building are more interesting than those in the other.

While these large objects are the most prominent, they are by no means all, and the superb exhibition of German engineering which occupies the whole south end of the gallery, illustrating great varieties of transportation and construction, is perhaps the finest thing in the whole building. But the French engineers are not much behind it, and even the Japanese show, by comparative illustrations of their ancient and modern work, that we may hope that the accuracy and strength of European and American engineering may yet be combined with the exquisite taste and finish of the Orient. On the whole, little more can be said of the Transportation Building than that it is a continual series of interesting, valuable, and instructive things. Mr. Willard A. Smith, Chief of the Department of Transportation Exhibits, has done a remarkable work. The skill and energy which he has shown both in getting together American exhibits and in persuading foreigners to send things which, in their nature, must be valuable purely for educational purposes, without hope of any direct return to the profit of the exhibitor, have been remarkable. If ever the visitor in the Exposition finds unappropriated time at his disposal, there is no better place to go to than the Transportation Building. G. S. M.

## PIKE'S PEAK AND COLORADO SPRINGS.

COLORADO SPRINGS, July 26, 1893.

FROM the wonders of the Midway Plaisance, where all nations jostle one another in amicable confusion—Turks, Zulus, Fiji Islanders, dignified Egyptians—where, indeed, as Emily Dickinson says,

> "The show is not the show,
> But they that go"

—from the real beauty and magnificence of the great White City, with its impressive Court of Honor and silent lagoons, its stately architecture and collections, we have come to monuments not made with hands—from the World's Columbian Exposition spread out beneath the eyes of the curious in the great Ferris Wheel, to the world and its glory spread out to the eyes of the adventurous from the summit of Pike's Peak.

Colorado Springs, a fair and sunny city reposing on the great plain at the foot of the Rocky Mountains, yet has itself an altitude nearly the same as the summit of Mount Washington, practically 6,000 feet above sea level. Its energetic electric cars fly swiftly along the broad and level streets, arc-lights make brilliant evenings, excellent hotels and handsome dwellings are surrounded by green lawns and shrubbery preserved only by the most painstaking care and watchfulness. Many things ought to be seen here—some must be; among them beautiful Cheyenne Cañon, so loved by "H. H.," and classed by her with the nine places of "divine worship" in Colorado Springs, and where, on the heights above, she lay after her death until tourists and general vandalism necessitated bringing her to the cemetery below. Nor can the "Garden of the Gods" be omitted. Its huge red sandstone monuments, rising perpendicularly more than 250 feet, weather-worn into fantastic shapes, are a sight to be never forgotten, but not easily described. And when, stopping on a ridge near the "balanced rock," not only is all the wild, titanic confusion of the Garden seen, but, behind, the lapping and overlapping heights of the Rocky Mountains, capped by Pike's Peak far up among the sunlit clouds, words fall silent, for the immensity is not assimilable at once. But the Peak itself must surely be ascended. Not all travellers accomplish this, nor is the summit always an entirely happy memory. But it may be reached now with much ease in any one of three ways. The hardy little burros so frequent here are entirely good for the climb, only they must be given their own time, often two or three days. By far the most usual way now to the summit is by the cog railroad, a quick and comfortable route. But we chose the third, by carriage from Cascade Cañon over a mountain road of seventeen miles, with six hours of magnificent views, and a sufficiently gradual ascent into the region of thin air.

Leaving Cascade, at once the road winds upwards very steeply along the side of the Cañon, until after a mile or more one seems all but overhanging the town below, while at the mouth of the ravine the far blue plains fill the distance like an etherealized ocean. The sharp-leaved yucca fringes the road, not lush and luxuriant as in Bermuda, but grayer and stiffer, though hardly less picturesque. Yellow pines root themselves in every possible crevice, and at last, when the banks of a little stream are reached, a myriad of lovely wild-flowers suddenly show their dainty faces, springing up from the hard, dry soil like fairy visitors. The humble, homely, well-beloved yarrow fills every available spot, its familiar odor pungent in the warm air, while close to the wheels large, short-stemmed white evening primroses rest on low, bluish-green foliage. When grown too tired and warm, the white petals turn a delicate pink and droop softly on the leaves below, in endless sleep. The American cowslip, or "shooting-star," is abundant, looking strangely dainty against the coarse dry grass; and blue mertensia grows rankly along the road. As the way becomes steeper, winding more deeply into the heart of the mountains, the beautiful blue penstemon appears, its blossoms so crowding in very rush of life upon the stem that many cannot open at all. Thickets of "quakin' aspen" line the way, soon so shut in that it might well be any country road at sea-level. Yet here the elevation exceeds 9,000 feet above that level.

Turning a sharp curve a sudden surprise is in store. The dryness and dust give place to a veritable valley of peace. No distant view obtrudes to fill the heart with far-off longings, and a tiny brook tinkles down the mountain to make here the sweetest, softest green meadow, where grasses are rank and tall and green, and bushes of spiræa and wild roses grow waist-high in the welcome moisture. Small ranches below also appreciate the dampness, and little homes could be seen far off under the trees. The four strong horses started in again after a moment's refreshing at the spring, but the memory of that sweet picture went with us far up the dry mountain side. The flowers, too, followed; wild roses and blue and scarlet penstemon, in seed below, were at these great heights yet in the prime of their blossoming Up and still up lay our course, the Cañon walls spreading further away, until, from the huge environment of rock and mountain shoulder, could be seen the glory of the whole range piling off to the north in colossal confusion. Near by, red spruce in place of pine, pale-green kinnikinnick hugging the soil, here and there a bit of wild cherry and elder, and an occasional willow shrub.

Many years ago fire swept over these mountain spaces, and miles of spruces now stand tall and gaunt, reaching ineffectual white fingers to the sky, while myriads of others, prostrate at their feet, are still undecayed in the dry solitudes where they lie. But, soon as may be, Nature takes back to her heart her wounded children, and the delicate aspen and acres of crimson "burnt-weed" cover the slopes, while, somewhat above, the spruces again have grown up, many of them almost as large as their ghostly ancestors. Golden-rod of several kinds appeared above 10,000 feet elevation, greatly dwarfed, but lavishly bright and sunny; and a superb mass of scarlet painted-cup.

A half-way house, so called, gave time for luncheon and a change of horses. It is, however, about ten miles from Cascade and seven from the summit. Just beyond came a superb view, with the Mosquito Range to the north, somewhere near which lies Leadville, 11,000 feet above the sea. Ranges seventy miles and more away filled the horizon, with lesser peaks on the other side, while the great plain to the east still lay under the sunshine, calm and reposeful. Onward the road curves to every point of the compass, but always up, until, looking almost straight down, nine of its dizzy loops were apparent at once, and the wonder was how foothold had been found on the steep and rocky slope. But even here was no desolation equal to Fuji's lonely peak in Japan. The spruces still followed, though leaning away from the fierce west winds, with a grotesquely greater growth in their eastern branches; and an occasional crow made haste across some wind-swept height, sharply silhouetted against a sky which seemed to grow an intenser blue with every mile.

After timber-line was passed, not quite 12,000 feet elevation, the vast sky and a primeval chaos of red granite rocks were all. No, not all, for then appeared a fairy garden of Alpine flowers, nestling in crevices and carpeting the stones with radiance. Brilliant yellow, blue, pale pink and white blossoms not an inch high stretched cheerfully in every direction, the whitish green foliage hugging the bleak rocks with insistent affection. The blue flowers, a species of forget-me-not, must indeed have caught their color from the sky so very near, for not a trace of purple marred their likeness to its blue depths. Almost no other flower except "succory to match the sky" is really blue. Shades of purple, faint or deep, obscure the purity of tint. The yellow flowers, looking like dwarf buttercups, though really Colorado saxifrage, hold the sunshine in their cups—a magic selective absorption indeed. Inexpressibly beautiful was this little flat flower garden, nurtured in storm and clouds and sun on these windy heights.

And now came a view into the "bottomless abyss," over a snowbank, where the red perpendicular walls dive indefinitely down, and just overhead the final Peak and the low Signal Service building. Far south glistened the Seven Lakes and the grand Cañon of the Arkansas; east, Colorado Springs, like a faint far checker-board; while the burnt spruces below showed like the confusion of some gigantic game of jackstraws. About 14,000 feet elevation, the flowers became fewer and finally ceased, though gladly they would have followed if a particle of soil had given the slightest pretence of foothold. Instead, brilliant lichens almost seemed to shine from the rocks—and in a moment the very summit was reached.

Here, then, was the mighty vantage-ground from which Prof. Langley had seen the total eclipse of the sun in 1878—when the blue-black shadow of the moon rushed with terrifying swiftness over the plains below—and where he had seen those tremendous streamers of the corona projected more than eleven million miles into space. When again will an eclipse-track deign to cross a station so favorable? Barren water-spaces, African or South American marshes, are too often the exasperating and seemingly lawless choice of these celestial happenings. Since the Boyden Fund for astronomical work on mountain peaks has been managed by Prof. Pickering of Harvard, a wide research upon the summits of high mountains has been conducted with a view to ascertain, first of all, the meteorological conditions there prevailing. The highest station ever permanently occupied for such a purpose being Pike's Peak, with records of a long series of these observations made by officers of the Signal Service, the Harvard Observatory has co-operated by publishing these records in its Annals, where they are now available for study. The station was established in October of 1873, and the splendid series of observations is quite unbroken to the present day. The extensive plains to the east offer particularly good opportunity for noting such cloud and storm phenomena as originate or move east of the Peak, which rises rather abruptly about 8,000 feet above Colorado Springs. Even to the west the mountains are so much lower than the station that fine observation is possible. Heavy wind-storms are, strangely enough, not usual, and the mean hourly velocity rarely exceeds fifty miles. But the Peak is celebrated for its electrical storms, occurring generally

when the air is moist, with perhaps a light snow-storm in progress. The whirling anemometer cups then frequently look like circles of fire.

The great elevation affects many persons, either in heart, lungs, or head; but for actual discomfort on a mountain-top, Fuji doubtless holds the palm. A certain light-headedness, or tendency to headache, characterized the best of us, but the intense pain and the sense of leaden oppression of that sacred height were absent from the Pike's Peak pilgrims. The Signal officers were courteous and attentive, the view almost appallingly grand—distant fires, acres in extent, looking like a hand's-breadth blaze; raging storms covering miles but a tiny incident in our horizon. Yet I fancy when the call to the carriages came, that few were inclined to grumble over the shortness of the hour upon this incomparable height. The curves in the downward road became even more apparent than before as the horses took them at a sharp trot, the leaders airily circling along the outer edge within an inch of the descending slope, as gayly as if with a misstep the wings of Pegasus were available. The lower Cañon was reached in less than half the time of the ascent, and the red walls and standing rocks, the pines and distant slopes, were even more wonderful and effective in the slanting sunshine of late afternoon than in the glow of early morning, and Cascade nestled more enticingly in its meadows. MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

## REMINISCENCES OF A ROMANTICIST.

PARIS, September 14, 1893.

"HABENT sua fata libelli." M. Maxime Du Camp has written many books and many articles. Of his work nothing will probably remain but his 'Convulsions of Paris,' written immediately after the Commune. These 'Convulsions' are what the modern historical school calls a "document"; they give an exact account of what became of Paris during the short triumph of the Commune. Future economists may perhaps consult what Maxime Du Camp has written on 'Paris et ses Organes,' on the municipal and what may be called the material life of Paris. Philanthropists will consult what he has written on 'Private Charity in Paris.' It is somewhat singular that M. Maxime Du Camp should, in his later years, have become a sort of economist and philanthropist. He began life as a pure *romantique;* he is one of the last remnants of the school, which has been replaced by the realistic school. He was well prepared to become a *romantique* by a wild and adventurous spirit. He travelled in the East at a time when Cook did not exist; he was later one of Garibaldi's Mille in Sicily. He is now one of the "Immortals" of the Academy. He enjoys rest; he spends most of his time in a house which he bought at Baden-Baden long before the war of 1870, and which he has not abandoned since the French defeats. He has lately employed his leisure hours in writing essays under the title of 'La Crépuscule: Propos du Soir.' The evening of life has come for him, and, like the traveller on the road, he looks back on the past. It is said, and not without truth, that old age returns naturally, by a sort of irresistible bent, to the feelings of youth and of infancy: the middle of life disappears; we see nothing but its dawn. The *romantique* is found on every page of these crepuscular memories of Maxime Du Camp, and I have read them with a sort of melancholy pleasure.

Maxime Du Camp says little about himself. He informs us, however, that he never knew what the ancients called "res angusta domi"; which means that he was born with a good fortune. He was not obliged to win his daily bread, and he abandoned himself completely to the fancies of his own imagination. Nature saved him from two great dangers: he had no inclination for gambling or for drinking. He jumped, to use his own expression, on the "back of the Romantic Pegasus"; all his admirations were for the great Romantic writers. He sees clearly that the gods of his youth are not the gods of the modern generation, but he is not surprised. "After the evening of the 16th of April, 1849, I nearly broke with a friend, who was thirty years older than myself, because he refused to admit that Meyerbeer's 'Prophet' was a masterpiece. Last winter I was severely scolded by a young man who thought that I was speaking of 'Parsifal' with too much reserve. I made allowance for the difference of ages, remembered my indignation when an opera of Meyerbeer was contested, and did not say a word."

Maxime Du Camp had an adventurous spirit, and in his youth made long journeys. Some of his descriptions of places in the East are the best pages in his volume.

"No city," he says, "ever kept me; I left them all with a sensation of deliverance. What most abides in my memory, what I wreathe with my regrets, it is not Cairo, or Damascus, or Constantinople, or Smyrna, where the girls are the joy of the eye, or Athens, where the Acropolis is the joy of the mind, or Rome, where I lived under Gregory VII., or even Venice, which is the most touching historical remains—no; this is not what I evoke when, lingering in the past, I go back to the happiest days of my existence."

And then come some descriptions of natural scenery which are very charming—the island of Chio, the plain of Cœle-Syria, Lebanon, certain places on the Nile or in Palestine.

"The 18th of August, 1850, I well remember, I remained sitting from morning till night on one of the hills which surround the Dead Sea, over the ravine which leads to the convent of Mar Saba. At my feet, in a bowl which is probably an immense crater now full of water, the Dead Sea, heavy and lustrous, like tin in a state of fusion; in the distance, the land of Hauran, where the doomed cities were, Moab and the Tribe of Reuben. . . ."

For a moment, Maxime Du Camp was tempted to settle in the East; he speaks with tenderness of some places in Egypt, of the island of Elephantine in the Nile, of sundry villages of Syria, of the neighborhood of Smyrna, of Beirut. "I feel now," he says, "that if I had abandoned an active life to bury myself in the Eastern countries, in some favorite retreat, I should have died, devoured by the idleness which is the greatest enemy of man, individually and socially."

The essays which compose this volume touch on the most various subjects. If they have some sort of unity, it must be found in a comparison between the feelings and aspirations of the generation to which M. Du Camp belongs and those of the present generation. Nothing can be, in truth, more different than the state of the soul (to use a very modern expression) of 1830 and of 1893. M. Du Camp tries to be just, and speaks of the youth of 1893 with complaisance:

"No, it is not just," he writes, "to abuse the modern generation. It seems to repudiate none of the tasks of life, it does not sulk before the duty of intellectual culture, and it accepts readily the task of military service, which for several years postpones the moment when paid labor will provide for the needs of existence. It is ready to say 'Here I am' when it is called. Its grandfathers bought themselves a substitute when they were seized by conscription; I know it well."

There is a special essay on "Military Service." Under Louis Philippe, a man was bought for an insurance premium of a thousand francs, and there were special insurance companies which furnished them. The soldiers remained seven years in the regiment and became thoroughly imbued with the spirit of discipline. Now, every young man has to be a soldier, but the term of service is very short, and the officers complain that the military spirit has not time to overcome the civil spirit. The terrible experience of war alone will show what the modern army is really worth. Maxime Du Camp regrets that the institution of one-year volunteers, copied from the German *Einjährige* after the war of 1871, has been abandoned. One year in a regiment would amply suffice for a well-educated and well-trained man. All the supplementary time spent, in obedience to our spirit of equality, under arms is lost, in his opinion.

Universal military service, universal suffrage, such are the two characteristics of modern France. In 1830 the suffrage was not universal, and young men were excluded from the electoral field. All young men, especially all law students, now revel in politics.

"Political preoccupations," says Maxime Du Camp, "did not torment us; a fine picture exhibited at the annual Salon, a fine verse in a poem, a sunset at sea, a new book, interested us more than a political manœuvre. In truth, what was it to us whether M. Guizot should keep his portfolio, or M. Thiers should take it away from him? The Revolution of February woke us suddenly, but only for a short time, and soon after we began anew to obey and to dream. Ah, we were very unpractical, I must confess. We also had eaten of the fruit of the lotus."

It is not certain that what preoccupied the younger generation in 1830 was more ephemeral than what engages the present; but political ambition has become more general, more universal.

"Among those who will try to be first in the electoral battle, who will sacrifice an honest occupation to the inconstant fortune of politics, many will successfully attain the object of their ambition. So many have succeeded, of such singular ignorance and such intellectual platitude, that the hope of ascending the ministerial heights cannot be interdicted to anybody. The future candidates, now on the school-benches, will bring with them their illusion about themselves and their mania for governing. Will it be a good? Will it be an evil? Nobody can answer. France will not know in a hundred years."

Maxime Du Camp dilates much on the change which has taken place in public opinion within sixty years on the subject of Napoleon. He has an essay on the Emperor. His generation, which was more poetical than practical, had a sort of Napoleonic religion. "If he had lived in the dark ages, when writing was not yet invented, he would have been placed in the ranks of the gods, between Apollo, the distributor of light, and Jupiter, the master of the thunderbolt." Whatever may be said of him, it is impossible to deny that "Nature had composed him of rare elements, as an instrument forged for some unaccustomed work." Lamartine was right when, in one of his 'Méditations,' he says to Napoleon:

"Rien d'humain ne battait sous ton épaisse armure."

Napoleon, in the opinion of Maxime Du Camp, saved the Revolution, which had devoured itself and was on the point of perishing when the *coup d'état* of the 18th Brumaire took place. "In my youth," he says, "I knew a man who had been mixed up in the events of

that period, and who belonged to the coterie of the Comte d'Artois. He told me that the 18th Brumaire did more harm to legitimacy than to the Republic." After the Restoration, Napoleon remained in the popular mind as the representative not only of the military grandeur of France, but also of the principles of the Revolution. Mme. de Staël had called him a "Robespierre *à cheval*."

The legend of Napoleon formed itself out of many elements; it was adopted by the Romantic school. Victor Hugo, even Chateaubriand, Béranger, Lamartine, afterwards Balzac, all the poets (and there are poets in prose as well as in verse), presented to the imagination of the people a glorified Napoleon. "Men of my time were brought up on the knees of the soldiers of the First Empire, the survivors of those gigantic wars which terrified and disturbed the world." In the essay "Les Illusions" Du Camp exhibits the transformations of the Napoleonic sentiment—how rapidly the legend was formed; how it became a part of liberalism and the essence of what we call "chauvinism." The idol fell only after the disasters of 1870; the Second Empire was fatal to the first. But was it really fatal? We are struck by a sort of Napoleonic revival. The new generation, however, now sees Napoleon in the light of history, not in the rays of the legend. The modern historical school is founded on documents. There is an essay "Le Document," in which Du Camp shows how many errors are now rectified by a careful study of Government and family archives.

# Correspondence.

## THE WALRUS AT THE FAIR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the issue of the *Nation* for the week of September 14th, in an interesting letter on "Science at the Fair," signed by "W. H. D.," appears the following: "A fine walrus might have been more life-like if the taxidermist had had a better guide than Elliott's caricatures of this unfortunate animal, which, in addition to extinction, seems to be doomed to posthumous misrepresentation."

Unfortunately, the writer of the above does not indicate wherein the specimen fails to agree with his apparently superior knowledge, but he falls into an error when he infers that Elliott's pictures were used as the model in mounting the specimen. As a matter of fact, the writer saw this specimen and seven others alive ten days before it was killed, though unfortunately he was not able to procure one personally. The impression he received at the time of the form, color, and movement of these ungainly beasts he has endeavored to portray in preparing this specimen, and he believes with some success.

Now, Elliott spent considerable time studying these animals in 1872–'73, and his pictures are the result. My own work is the result of a fairly good observation on one occasion of eight walruses, a rather limited view on another, and talks with people living on the islands. It seems somewhat strange, in view of "W. H. D.'s" description of these pictures as caricatures, that Mr. Elliott and myself should reach practically the same conclusion, though our observations were nearly twenty years apart and intended for different and definite purposes.

The conclusion may easily be reached that possibly the views of Mr. D. on this subject may not be unbiassed. The Taxidermist.

Washington, September 26, 1893.

[We have referred the above letter to "W. H. D.," and now subjoin his reply. —Ed. Nation.]

"In regard to the preparation of the walrus in the National Museum collection, the writer's intention was to criticise the taxidermist's opportunities, and not his ability. The animal in question was obtained at Walrus Island, near St. Paul, Bering Sea, by Capt. Coulson, in August, 1890. The Walrus Island herd is a small one, which in twenty years has not exceeded fifteen or twenty individuals. It has long been known that it contains only old males, who have separated from their kind and are in a state of senile degeneration. The writer has examined these animals, as others have, from a distance with an opera-glass, and his opinion is that neither Mr. Elliott's sketches nor the singularly similar mounted animal in question well represent even these old males. But if the taxidermist had been with the writer in the midst of a herd of several hundred in the full vigor of their prime, had looked into their red eyes and trumpet-shaped nostrils within an oar's length, and noted their movements, agile as those of a seal, he would realize that what he has seen is to the walrus at its best much as a statue of the drunken Silenus is to the Hermes of Olympia. The most prominent feature of a walrus on the alert, *i. e.*, the funicular nostrils, is not represented in any figure, drawing, or mounted specimen in any museum of Europe or America. If the National Museum specimen represents Mr. Palmer's idea of 'movement' in the walrus, one is tempted to ask how he would convey the idea of complete collapse!"

## GRADUATE COURSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We desire to correct through the *Nation* an error in the table on pp. 12, 13 of 'Graduate Courses,' edited by Graduate Students' Clubs of Cornell, Harvard, Johns Hopkins, and Yale, and just published by Ginn & Co. In 1892–93 Columbia had 185 graduate students in its faculties of philosophy, political science, and mines, and three degrees of Ph.D. were given in 1892. The numbers of graduate students given in the first column of our table are in so far not directly comparable as in different universities different disciplines are included in the "Graduate Department." The insufficiency of numbers to convey a true idea of the relative value of the different universities to a particular student led us to insist in the preface that our book was not intended to afford a basis for comparisons.

Respectfully yours,

A. W. Weysse, Secretary,
Harvard Committee on "Graduate Courses."

Cambridge, September 8, 1893.

## ENGLISH HISTORY FOR AMERICAN READERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Higginson and Channing's History you suggest that in future editions the existence of Darwin, Spencer, Kelvin, should not be ignored. May I venture to add the names of Dalton, Joule, and Maxwell? I think it will be admitted that the influence of their work upon our Anglo-Saxon thought has been profound and far-reaching.

Ought we not to acknowledge, also, that the influences from our "old home" have been powerful in the economic and humanitarian movements of our time—freedom of commerce, sanitation, prevention of cruelty to animals and children, the organization of charity, the emancipation of women, coöperation, friendly societies, etc.? Nor, if the coming generation is to grasp the true state of the case, should our return influence on the people of Britain be lost sight of, notably in matters of political organization and mechanical improvements.—Yours truly, Herbert Mott.

Providence, R. I., September 27, 1893.

## HAMILTON'S KNOWLEDGE OF FRENCH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his communication entitled "Randolph and Talleyrand," in your paper of last week, Mr. M. D. Conway, deeming the negative fact important to his purpose, says: "Unfortunately, Hamilton did not understand French." This statement surprised me, as I had always supposed that Alexander Hamilton's familiarity with the French language was universally known as a not insignificant item in his biography, his mother having been French. Furthermore, I knew that in memoirs of our Revolution, both French and English, Hamilton's usefulness to Washington as an intermedium between him and the French officers is often mentioned. See, for example, the 'Voyages' of the Marquis de Chastellux (Paris, 1788, tome i, pp. 311, 312). In his account of a visit he paid to Gen. Schuyler, the Marquis incidentally gives a brief sketch of the career of the General's son-in-law, Hamilton. From this sketch I transcribe a few words: "Dès lors la correspondance avec les Français, dont il parle et écrit parfaitement bien la langue, les détails de toute espèce, politiques et militaires, dont il fut chargé," etc.

From the use to which Mr. Conway applies Gen. Hamilton's assumed ignorance of French it seems worth while to make this correction. Doubtless there are many persons in New York able to correct the mistake, though they may not be able at once to lay their hand on a testimony so conclusive as this of the Marquis de Chastellux.—I am, respectfully yours,

R. E. W.

176 Federal Street, Allegheny, Pa.,
September 27, 1893.

## SEX AND INHERITANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of September 7, W. A. Stille challenges a position which one would not suppose needed challenge but for the fact that it is frequently assumed by good writers. Even such a woman as Harriet Prescott Spofford, than whom no one can be more devoted to the advancement of women, has blemished the pages of that most excellent book of hers called 'Home and Hearth' with this false philosophy. She argues:

"There is every reason that the masculine brain should be the superior up to the present moment, whether it is or not. Greater opportunity, in having at first no one to provide for but himself, and afterwards the necessity for fighting for what he would have, produced in man greater physical strength. Greater physical strength, then, made man master when no one thought of brains; the habit of mastery creates responsibility and fosters intellect. Having mastery, the man has placed himself in every favorable condition. . . . Has there been money to descend, it has descended to the son. Many exercises of the intellect, many studies, the culture of art and of philosophy, need money for their pursuit; it is the son and not the daughter that has had it. . . .

"The habit of receiving education has been for centuries, then, a masculine habit, almost as it were by special grant, in spite of the comparatively few instances of scholarly women. And as some forms of training are so disciplinary that what was education in sire becomes like intuition in son, sex itself might

be said to have exercised influence, and made the masculine brain at this date the superior" (pp. 167–9).

"It does not militate against their right to happiness if women are not the intellectual equals of men; but few will seriously deny that they are capable of developing into equals, and that it is the fault of men that they have not done so. When women have had the intellectual training for generations that men have had, so that if education itself does not become instinct, the habits of education do—when they have had for such time the same freedom, the friction, and the scope, equality will no longer be a matter of question" (p. 136).

In other words, inheritance along the line of sex seems to be assumed by the writer without question. I have always been taught that when inheritance was not from both parents, it very frequently, if not more frequently, was from father to daughter and from mother to son; and if education plays a part in inheritance, we should be inclined to pity the sons rather than the daughters of uneducated women.

Even Mrs. Spofford seems to admit this idea when she gets away from the past and her theories as to it, and regards the present and the future and what the advancement of women may do for coming generations:

"Their upward movement in the last two generations is already seen in its reaction on men, for it is impossible that their continued aspiration and struggle and achievement should not have had effect on their sons. Another century may see yet greater marvels than the present, since men only attain the whole of their own rights and a possibility for the whole of their growth when they inherit from the side of their mothers as well as from that of their fathers a complete and trained intellectual force" (p. 171).

GEORGE HEMPL.

ANN ARBOR, September 22, 1893.

## WAS COPERNICUS A GERMAN?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of Mr. Oliver Lodge's book on the 'Pioneers of Science,' I was quite surprised to read that the father of Copernicus—and Copernicus himself necessarily too—was believed to have been a German. I had always taken it for a well-established fact that Copernicus was a Pole by birth and nationality. Copernicus is merely a Latinized form of the original name Kopernik, which corresponds with it in sound; and Kopernik is not a German, but a Slavonic name. It is not Polish, but Bohemian, and in the light of documentary evidence the family of the Koperniks can really be traced back to Bohemian ancestry. The *zemani* (knights) of Kopernik were Bohemian noblemen whose name appears in the historical records of the fourteenth century, and has been preserved to this day in the name of the Bohemian village Kopernik, their former seat, situated between the cities of Kosmonosy and Bakov in northeastern Bohemia. In the records of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries the name can no longer be found, but a clue to its disappearance may be found in the archives of the city of Cracow. From the 'Acta Consularia Cracoviensia' (Proceedings of the Cracow City Council), *ad annum* 1396, we learn that A. D. 1396 citizenship was conferred upon Nicolaus Kopernik. The attesting witness, a citizen of Cracow named Dambrova, testifies that Nicolaus Kopernik had come to Cracow from Bohemia. This testimony is highly important. It is corroborated by the Bohemian origin of the name Kopernik, derived from the word *kopr*.

Historically, the naturalization of Nicolaus can easily be explained. The relations of the two Slavonic kingdoms, Bohemia and Poland, and notedly of the two great cities of Prague and Cracow, were friendly, and, as the two languages do not very materially differ, Mr. Nicolaus Kopernik found little difficulty in establishing himself at Cracow and finally obtaining its citizenship. He probably emigrated to Cracow towards the end of the fourteenth century. His family evidently was Bohemian, but his sons and grandsons spoke Polish. One of his grandsons, the eldest, also named Nicolaus (the frequent occurrence of this name in the Kopernik family is not to be overlooked), left Cracow in 1462 and settled at Thorn, where, on the 19th of February, 1464, his son Nicolaus, the great astronomer, was born.

These facts show pretty clearly, I think, that both Copernicus and his father were Poles of Bohemian ancestry, and, therefore, doubly Slavs. I add some minor facts which may throw more light upon this question: The coat-of-arms of the Bohemian Koperniks bears the figure of a man: so does the escutcheon of Copernicus. Copernicus went to study at a Polish University, Cracow, in preference to that of Leipzig, and when in Italy, at the University of Padua, he registered as a Pole and not as a German.

J. J. KRÁL.

CHICAGO, ILL., September 18, 1893.

[If our correspondent has not heard of Copernicus being called a German, then he has not heard of perhaps the bitterest and most loud-resounding literary dispute of our day. We simply followed the authority of Prowe, whose great biography in three volumes (Berlin, 1883, 1884) occupied many years of its author's life, and was, we fancy, chiefly written in Thorn. Prowe says that until the father Niklas married Barbara Watzelrode, the family was "ein durch und durch deutsches Geschlecht." The greatest living historian of mathematics, Moritz Cantor, in a letter published in the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung* for August 1, 1876, fully sustains this opinion. It has further been defended by Max Curtze, Perlbach, A. Knoetel, and S Günther. The Italians, who almost lead Europe upon questions of the history of science, seem to favor the German side. All the arguments advanced by our correspondent will be found fully considered in the above works.

Although Greek was not taught in Cracow, writings brought to light in 1873 show that Copernicus had more knowledge in that direction than one would suspect from the 'De Revolutionibus.' He gives a Greek form of his name, Νικολαυς ὁ Κοπφερνικος, showing that he understood the first two syllables to mean *copper*. The astronomer's family, in fact, was a family of coppersmiths; by copper they had made a fortune. Now, the Thorn directory for 1422 shows that Margaret Koppernigk had business connections in the town of Frankenstein in Silesia, and in other ways the family has been traced to that point. Near that town is a hamlet named Köppernick, where there is an old coppermine. This neighborhood is distinctly German, and always has been so, although it is on the very border of Bohemia, and was at one time in the kingdom of Bohemia.

As for the assertion that Copernicus was registered as a Pole at Padua, that was investigated, at the instance of Prince Boncompagni, by Favaro, and found utterly baseless. On the other hand, Carlo Malagola, in his admirable work on Urceo Codro, showed that "Niccolò Kopperlingk di Thorn" had registered as a law student at Bologna in the album of the "Nazione Al manna." This may not prove much, but it is, at least, not an invention. As for such coat-of-arms as this family of coppersmiths may have used, it can prove nothing at all. They never were ennobled. It may be granted that Copernicus (ἀνὴρ παντὸς λόγου κρείττων, Scaliger called him) was, as a member of the Polish Parliament, a sturdy adversary of the Teutonic knights. But, on his father's side, the evidence seems to be that his blood was German.

We take this opportunity to correct an inadvertence not pointed out by our correspondent, by which, in the notice under discussion, we spoke of the bishopric of "Regensburg" in place of Ermeland.—ED. NATION.]

## THE DIVISION OF WORDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me a few words on one of the subjects mentioned in a communication from me in the *Nation* of August 31? What you then said in answer to my objections to the division of words in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* seems to conflict with your practice, which is in accordance with the rule laid down by Lindley Murray and followed by the English press everywhere. This rule is to divide according to etymology, and, when this makes no demands, then *on the vowel*, as it is called, unless in the case of two or more consonants. Apparently, in the United States, the only rule followed is that of pronunciation, and this leads sometimes, even in the works of our best publishers, to such divisions as *noth-ing*. This has a high flavor of illiteracy, but I can't see that it is worse than some of the cases quoted, viz., *physiol-ogy*, *prom-ising*, etc.

You say truly that the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* is not an official publication, nor is it published at a university press; but a magazine issued under the sanction of a picked body of graduates, with a long list of distinguished officers and council, would never take shelter under such a plea, nor would these consider themselves otherwise than responsible for the reputation of their university.

Possibly your learned correspondent "F. H." might give us some light on this subject.

H. U., '31.

[We should not like to have our own practice scrutinized too closely for consistency. A narrow column like the *Nation's* precludes the uniformity which may be exacted in book-work. Some of our first printing-houses fall under our correspondent's censure, but for ourselves we regard the question rather as one of taste than of literacy. An authoritative treatise to harmonize usage is wanting.—ED. NATION.]

# Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS have in press Mrs. Burnett's autobiography, 'The One I Knew Best of All'; the 'Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier,' in three volumes; 'Customs and Fashions in Old New England,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle; and 'University Football,' by James R. Church.

Mr. George Haven Putnam will publish, through the firm of which he is head, 'Authors and their Public in Ancient Times'—to the invention of printing. The same firm have in preparation 'Wayside Music,' a collection of lyrics and sonnets by Charles H. Crandall.

Mr. Charles Dexter Allen's work on American bookplates will bear the imprint of Macmillan & Co.

Brentano's autumn list embraces 'Love in Letters,' compiled by Henri Pène du Bois, and illustrated by Frank M. Gregory; 'Modern Scientific Whist,' by C. D. P. Hamilton; and 'How to Keep Young,' by James E. Kelly.

A translation of Bertha Meyer's 'The Child, Physically and Mentally,' by Friederike Salomon, will be issued in November by M. L. Holbrook.

Ginn & Co. announce 'The Ethics of Hegel,' translated and edited by Prof. J. Macbride Sterrett, of Columbian University.

It is not easy to guess the *raison d'être* of Mr. Frederick A. Ober's 'In the Wake of Columbus' (D. Lothrop Co.), though the author qualifies himself as "Special Commissioner sent by the World's Columbian Exposition to the West Indies." The book seems to be a farrago of personal experiences in visiting the various places connected with the career of Columbus, combined with a certain amount of historical misinformation, the whole written in a slipshod style, and illustrated with a large number of woodcuts of very various degrees of intelligibility. It is difficult to comprehend how any one who has visited Spain should, in reviewing the history of the Peninsula, omit the Romans from a list of the invaders commencing with the Phœnicians and ending with the Moors (p. 5), or speak (p. 6) of "Castilian armies" sweeping down "from the Asturias and the Pyrenees" to the work of the reconquest, or tell us that "at last the union of Ferdinand and Isabella joined the forces of Leon and Castile."

Prof Williston Walker's 'Creeds and Platforms of Congregationalism' (Scribners) is a collection of twenty documents illustrating the progressive theology of the Congregational churches, from Robert Browne's 'Booke which Sheweth the life and manners of all true Christians and howe unlike they are unto Turkes and Papistes and Heathen folke,' down to the "Commission Creed" of 1883. In every case the original is followed even in the smallest details of typography, and this, with the running historical comment and exposition, makes the volume one which the theological student, for whom it is mainly intended, should welcome.

Several years ago we expressed a favorable opinion of Dr. Douglas Graham's 'Treatise on Massage.' 'Recent Developments in Massage,' by the same author (Detroit: George S. Davis), is a pamphlet that may be taken as a supplement to that volume. The style is not dignified, but the substance deserves serious consideration for the importance of its communications.

As a rule, books on professional topics for unprofessional readers are worthless in matter or unintelligible to them in construction. A marked exception is 'A Chapter on Cholera for Lay Readers,' by Walter Vought, Ph.B., M.D. (Philadelphia: The F. A. Davis Co.), which may be safely and heartily commended for its real worth and its lucidity. Holding it to be absolutely proved that the specific cause of cholera is the comma bacillus, which is the best working hypothesis and is almost universally accepted as the true theory of this grave and formerly misunderstood disease, Dr. Vought notes simply and assuringly the conditions that foster and those that destroy this germ. He emphasizes what cannot be too widely known, that the disease is contracted only by the entrance of this bacillus, derived from the discharges of the sick, into the mouth, and that complete disinfection of those discharges will effectively prevent an epidemic. The natural history of the disease is clearly described, and a special report is made of the viability of the germ in the ordinary articles of food, with explicit directions as to the best methods of disinfection for individuals and for communities. As its mystery is reduced, both the fear and the danger that belong to cholera are diminished, and this little work should be a valuable help in popularizing such knowledge. It may be depended upon, and it can be understood.

The outbreak, or the fear, of an epidemic of cholera is too frequently the signal for the issue of a new edition of an old writing. It is therefore very gratifying to find that Dr. Roberts Bartholow, a well-known therapeutist, has prepared for his professional brethren a monograph on the nature and treatment of that disease which is a perfectly new work, and which discards everything not bearing upon the disease as now understood, and includes the latest observations of medical science. 'Cholera' (Philadelphia: Lea Brothers) is a good book on an important subject.

'The Soil in Relation to Health,' by H. A. Miers and R. Crosskey, with illustrations (Macmillan), is a brief but admirable treatise on this branch of hygiene. It has long been recognized that the natural soil, and of course the ground charged with artificial products, is an important factor in public health; but we are not familiar with any connected discussion of the subject except as a section of systematic treatises. A handy volume like this, whether for reference or for direct study, is a useful accession to the literature, and this particular book is clear in expression, convenient in arrangement, and accurate in statement. The only omission that we note is that of the influence of continuous high soil-temperature upon the causation of diarrhœal disease.

'A Ready Reckoner of the World's Foreign and Colonial Exchanges' (Putnams) is a handbook of 164 pages, designed to simplify the present cumbrous methods of computing international exchange. The book is a sequel to a work previously compiled by the same author, Mr. J. H. Norman, of the London Chamber of Commerce, which was favorably received by all financial authorities. Mr. Norman's plea is for a reckoning of exchange values on the simple basis of intrinsic gold value of standard coins. The London par of exchange on Paris, for example, is to be computed by dividing the franc's weight in pure gold by that of the pound sterling, and multiplying by the number of pounds to be exchanged into francs. The deviation from par, due to transmission charges, cost of recoinage, money interest, broker's profit, or other causes, is then reckoned in as a premium or discount, as the case may be, on this result. The process for computing exchange on silver-standard countries is identical in principle, the first step in this computation being the division of the pure silver in the standard coin by the existing ratio between gold and silver. The silver coin is thus reduced to its equivalent in pure gold, after which the computation is similar to that of exchange between gold-using countries. Mr. Norman's principle is undoubtedly sound, and furnishes the only absolutely accurate method for reckoning foreign exchange. The second and larger part of the book is given up to tables of monetary signs and mint-issue weights, through which ready reckoning of all exchange values, on the above principles, is facilitated.

Parts 13–24 of 'Famous Composers and their Works' (Boston: J. B. Millet Co.; New York: Henry T. Thomas) begin with the conclusion of the notice of Wagner and end in the midst of the notice of Chopin. After Wagner, there is a summary of Music in Germany, in its turn succeeded by an account of the Netherland masters, and then Palestrina leads the Italian biographies and corresponding résumé. Lully introduces the French composers. Among these, for musical weight, J. J. Rousseau could certainly not claim a place; but he ought not to have been overlooked in the sketch of Rameau, and in reviewing the progress of music in France there should have been something more than incidental mention of the author of "Le Devin du Village," words and music both, of the 'Dictionnaire de la Musique,' and of the famous Letter on French Music, which is in itself a literary classic. It ought never to be forgotten that Rousseau was led to Paris and to literary fame by his musical p ssion, and that besides inventing a new method of musical notation he maintained his independence by copying music. A page of his musical autograph would have found an appropriate place among similar facsimiles in this handsome publication. The parts before us abound in portraits, views, and specimen pieces of music.

Mr. H. H. Bancroft's 'Book of the Fair' has reached its third part (Chicago: The Bancroft Co.; New York: Rhule, Thomas & Co.). The text comprehends even the naval review and parade in New York, and begins a detailed account of the Exposition with the Government and Administration Departments. The illustrations continue to be numerous and very helpful.

The third of the forty parts of Mr. William C. Harris's 'Fishes of North America that are Caught on Hook and Line' has just appeared (New York: Harris Publishing Co.). Nominally issued monthly, these instalments have met with provoking delays on account of the difficulties in the chromolithographic illustrations from original oil paintings, and it is nearly two years since Part 2 was issued. The genuine fisherman is doubtless more possessed of the patience necessary to bear such waiting than those who are bored by angling all day without a bite. The two plates in the present number represent the pike and the hybrid trout.

Another *recueil* from the inexhaustible Librairie de *l'Art*, viz., 'Peintres de Genre Contemporains' in two parts (Macmillan). It must be said of the hundred examples displayed that they possess rather more interest than the collection of landscapes which preceded them. They illustrate several schools and some great names, and several American artists are represented in the sketches, which vary greatly in carefulness as well as in the mode of production.

Japan, besides spending more than half a million dollars in order to be well represented at the World's Fair, has issued a little stack of publications. The 'General View of Commerce and Industry in the Empire of Japan' is a volume of nearly five hundred pages, in English, bound in silk and well printed, though the proof-reading has been badly done. It has a map of the empire and diagrams of the chief ports and cities, an outline of geography and resources, and a readable history of the foreign trade of the country, with abundant statistics, rules relating to custom-houses, ministers, and consuls. Especially valuable is the conspectus of Japanese and American trade, with all necessary details, from 1887 to 1891, together with the text of the treaties and regulations. The catalogues published include those treating of agricultural objects, education, weights and measures, manufactured articles, record of the national educational society, with an historical volume entitled 'Outlines of the Modern Education in Japan.' Two folio pamphlets tell of the 'Organization of the Meteorological System,' and give a 'Report on Earthquake Observations in Japan.' The former is the magnificent development on a national scale of an office opened in 1872 for tridaily observations; the latter, besides rich textual description and illustrations of apparatus, gives thirty-one maps on which, by means of colored and shaded lines, the great earthquakes since 1885 are figured. All these are Government publications.

M. Émile Terquem, the representative at Jackson Park of the well-known Paris Publishers' Club, has just presented in its name to the Cornell University library, apropos of the quarter-centennial celebration at Ithaca, a goodly parcel of books. Among the publishers participating in the gift are Ollendorff, Jouvet, Colin, Hachette, Delalain, Alcan, Hetzel, Delagrave, Masson, and Plon, and among the volumes may be mentioned Marshal MacDonald's 'Souvenirs,' Janet and Séailles's 'Histoire de la Philosophie,' Flammarion's 'Mars,' Mme. de Witt's 'Les Femmes dans l'Histoire,' Henri Martin's 'Les Capétiens et la France Féodale,' and the useful work on copyright by MM. Lyon Caen and Delalain reviewed by us at the time of its publication.

The campaigns of the year 1864 chiefly are exemplified in the sheets of Parts 17, 18 of the Atlas now issuing from the War Department, and among these Virginia has a large share, thanks to that excellent Confederate topographer, Capt. Jed. Hotchkiss. Sherman's campaign from Atlanta to Goldsborough, N. C., is also illustrated. We may further enumerate maps of the defences of Washington and of the approaches to New Orleans, and a large-scale plan of Richmond.

The Münster and Dresden sheets of Vogel's Map of the German Empire (Westermann) bring the end of this important work in sight, as only the Hanover, Stuttgart, and Munich sheets remain to fill Parts 13 and 14.

The recent bringing to light (or to remembrance, for it is in the British Museum) of the stoneware bust of Pepys's wife, lends interest to the paper on white salt-glazed ware in the illustrated series on "Old English Pottery" now running in the *Portfolio*. The August number has a fine specimen in the bust of Prince Rupert by John Dwight of Fulham.

Mr. F. Gutekunst's imperial panel photograph of Edward Eggleston is a shade less satisfactory than the notable series to which it belongs. It fails to suggest the large stature of the novelist; but we cannot say that the focussing of the plate is responsible for that.

—In the composition of *Harper's* for October the zest and charm of foreign travel and exploration play a leading part. Col. Dodge continues his now somewhat bewildering enumeration of the various characteristics of Eastern breeds of horses and their riders. Mrs. Pennell describes still another French town, Toulouse, in its typical summer brilliancy. Mr. Davis, in his usual fluent fashion, sketches the Oxford undergraduate in his hours of ease and mischief. Of far greater interest is the leading article, in which Mr. Weeks begins the story of the ill-fated caravan journey from the Black Sea to the Persian Gulf in which Mr. Child met his death. The present instalment, covering the ride from Trebizond to Tabreez, is only the prologue, but the tragic note is distinctly heard or felt throughout, and the strong relief into which Oriental picturesqueness throws personal peril recalls parts of Huc's famous and brilliant narrative of adventurous travel in the Farther East. Of domestic interest are Mr. Janvier's description of Lispenard's Meadows, another almost forgotten part of that strange New York which only old men remember, and Carl Schurz's clear definition, called forth by the recent attempt to "boom" a wild scheme of annexation, of what our "manifest destiny" seems to him to be. In brief, we may let the tropics alone, look only northwards for territorial extension, and preserve freedom, prosperity, and power; or we may yield to the allurements of the tropics and embark on a career of rapid deterioration, leading to a "future of turbulence, demoralization, and final decay." Miss Woolson's novel comes in this number to an ambiguous conclusion, and William Black's "The Handsome Humes" draws nigh to a characteristic ending.

—The October *Century*, with which the magazine completes its twenty-third year, is faithful to tradition in that its greatest interest lies in biographical and historical articles. Of these the chief in real importance may perhaps be the first half of the manuscript diary of Admiral Cockburn's secretary, kept on the voyage which consigned Napoleon to St. Helena. Nothing new or strange, however, appears so far in the very prim and very British account of the secretary's observations in regard to the "actions and conversation of Bonaparte, once the scourge of mankind." The officers on board evidently regarded and treated Napoleon as upper servants might treat their young master in disgrace—with mingled severity and servility. The Emperor himself meanwhile preserved his customary demeanor and habits of life, greatly shocking the secretary and his superiors by his first instinctive surprise at being given only the honors due a retired British general, by his playing at cards of a Sunday evening, and by his frank avowal of his proposal to end by opium the sufferings of the dying French at Jaffa who had to fall into the hands of the savage troops of Djezza Pasha. Not less strongly than Napoleon's unique personality in the martinet pages of the Admiral's secretary shine out in two other articles the familiar traits of Whitman and Salvini—those of Whitman in characteristic letters to his family from Washington in the early years of the war; those of Salvini in the concluding leaves from his autobiography. The latter has been throughout exceedingly pleasant reading, for Salvini's buoyant self-confidence and simple acceptance of his own power and rank give his narrative extraordinary vigor, while preserving it from the reproach of mere egotism or garrulousness. The leading article is Mr. Flynt's vivid account of his wanderings with German tramps. It is with patriotic pride that we learn of their inferiority to the American species.

—The fiction in the current *Atlantic* is dialectic to a degree that suggests the Tower of Babel, and, what with Yankee, Calabrian, and the jargon of the Tennessee mountains, makes the reader almost yearn for the good old-fashioned plan which innocently made all races and peoples use—so long as they figured in literature—the same conventional and intelligible means of communication. The bulk of the number consists of what Mr. Howells calls "contemporanics"—articles on subjects more or less alive in popular interest. One discusses the Central American Isthmus and its bearing on sea power, and others the humiliating failure of Tilden's will to insure the carrying into effect of his vague charitable plans, and the famous Electoral Commission of 1877. The most pertinent is an account of the Scandinavian, but almost hopelessly un-American, system for dispensing liquor to the community by corporations designated and organized by the community, for the investigation of which a commission has already been appointed in Massachusetts. Mr. Apthorp writes exhaustively of classicity in music and of Robert Franz and the late Otto Dresel. The only article that deals with literature is Prof. Jebbs's statement of the permanent influence exerted by Greek poetry.

—Conspicuous in the table of contents of *Scribner's* are the names of Mr. Stevenson and Mr. Howells. The former contributes an introductory note to his grandfather's reminiscences of Scott, whose guide and companion he had been in a northern voyage made in 1814 in the yacht of the Lighthouse Commissioners. The latter devotes a long article to expounding the mysteries of the business side of an author's life. Mr. Howells's successful career as a professional man of letters, and the well-known piquancy of some of his views in regard to the practice of his art, make all he says interesting and well worth the attention of all who are entering the trade of which he is past master. Only three of the points he makes, however, are so unexpected or so characteristic as to demand comment here. First, Mr. Howells insists throughout that the man of letters inevitably degrades himself and his art by bartering for money, as modern life forces him to do, that which by its very nature refuses to be weighed and priced in the terms of commerce. Second, the man of letters belongs economically to the great class of laborers and artisans, rather than to that of the middlemen, and should feel a genuine sympathy and kinship for them. Third, it is urged that the highest class of readers are to-day the readers of the magazines; that it is an "antiquated and ignorant prejudice which stamps the magazines as ephemeral"; and that literary reputations made through contributions to the magazines are far less likely to be fallacious than those made through books. This may in a way be true, so far as novel-writing goes, but literature is more than a good story here and there, and we should be loath to believe that the ministers of our amusements have so soon become the absolute masters of all our literary interests.

—In 'The Ancient Ways: Winchester Fifty Years Ago' (Macmillan), the Rev. W. Tuckwell has taken advantage of the recent celebration of the five-hundredth anniversary of his old school to print some pleasantly written reminiscences of his own time there. The

pretty little volume with its illustrations appeals, of course, chiefly to Wykehamists; but it contains what perhaps entitles it to a niche in the literature of the history of education, and that is a more complete account of the practice of "fagging" in its palmy days than is anywhere else easily accessible. Mr. Tuckwell—as we need hardly say of so good a Radical and so true a lover of flowers and gentle things—condemns the system unsparingly, chiefly by means of a simple recital of his own experiences: "Slavery is the only word which summed the three years' experience of a college junior. The details, whether cruel or grotesque, were all so contrived as to stamp upon the young boy's mind his grade of servile inferiority, and his dedication to the single virtue of abject, unquestioning obedience." Yet, as he remarks, it was "the best corrective," when once "the initial blunder" was fallen into of "leaving a mob of boys to self-government during great part of the day." A book like this helps us to understand how it was that such evils could arise as marked the beginnings of the factory system: the men of two generations ago were brutal in the treatment of the children not only of the poor but of their own class. It may be noticed that even the "ancient customs" of Harvard contained rules which might easily have developed into a fagging system like that of the great English schools; such as the rule that "all freshmen shall be obliged to go on any errand for any of their seniors." The ages at which boys entered Harvard and Winchester a century ago were probably not very different.

—'La Vita Italiana nel Rinascimento' is the publication of certain lectures delivered at Florence in 1892. They are third in a still continuing series of popular talks on Italian life, literature, and art. Preceding the present volume there has appeared one entitled 'Gli Albori della Vita Italiana,' and another, 'Vita Italiana nel Trecento'; the conferences of the present year were on the 'Cinquecento.' The publishers are Fratelli Treves, Milan. The titles of the several volumes suggest the scope and purpose of the whole series: too summary to aid much the scholar, it is, nevertheless, a useful compendium for the general public. The volume in hand deals in three parts, roughly equal, with history, literature, and art during the fourteenth century. The methods are naturally more suggestive than exact. According to Signor Masi, the Italians of the Quattrocento were the typical Renaissance people, and, among the Italians, *par excellence* the Florentines, and among the Florentines the Medici, and among the Medici Lorenzo the Magnificent. By this somewhat facile method of elimination, accordingly, study of the Italian Renaissance is reduced for the most part to a study of the immediate time and surroundings of Lorenzo de' Medici. His own poetry is the characteristic Renaissance lyric; his tutor, Politian, the characteristic humanist; his somewhat neglected protégé, Leonardo da Vinci, the characteristic artist. Certainly this concentration of interests, if from a scholarly point of view dubious, is conducive to sharpness of outline and to unity. Of Lorenzo as the protagonist of the Renaissance, there is much florid eulogy in the volume. Signor Masi, in his opening essay, does not hesitate to revive in its fullest intention the contemporary epithet of *pater patriæ*. Signor Nencioni compares the poetry of Lorenzo with that of Robert Burns. Lorenzo's shortcomings are ascribed to the spirit of the times; his excellences to his own credit. In fact, the whole volume, with one exception, has overmuch of the air of the rostrum: the lecturers hardly aim higher than their readers' ears. The exception is Vernon Lee's interesting account of the sculpture of the Renaissance. As usual, this gifted writer handles her subject in the large, running easily up and down the ages and bringing side by side their respective ideals, manners, methods, in such wise that we are enabled to compare them in a single *coup d'œil*, like specimens in a museum. For this essay alone the volume is worth examining.

## MACH'S SCIENCE OF MECHANICS.

*The Science of Mechanics:* A Critical and Historical Exposition of its Principles. By Dr. Ernst Mach, Professor of Physics in the University of Prague. Translated by Thomas J. McCormack. With 250 illustrations. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Company. 1893.

Dr. Ernst Mach's 'Die Mechanik in ihrer Entwickelung historisch-kritisch dargestellt' has for its ostensible purpose elementary instruction in the principles of mechanics. A secondary purpose is to narrate the history of that science. The ulterior design is to illustrate the author's views of the philosophy of science. This is the vital spark of the book; and doubtless this it is which recommends it to those who by "homilies" and "catechism" are engaged in propagating a "religion of science."

Considered as a history of mechanics, the work is admirable. It mentions all the great steps in the development of the science, down, at least, to 1847; it sets forth their nature, and explains them so lucidly that every reader will easily get a general understanding of them. We do not mean to defend all the criticisms upon the reasonings of Archimedes, of Galileo, of Newton, of Lagrange, of Gauss, and of many others, which cannot always meet the assent either of physicists or of logicians. Thus, when Mach objects to the assumption of Archimedes, that two equal weights at the ends of two equal arms of a lever will balance, that it is not evident, because the different colors of the lever-arms might affect the phenomenon, the obvious reply is that Archimedes did not mean that the two weights would balance in spite of everything. He did not mean, for instance, that nobody could push or blow one side down; nor, when we repeat the statement to-day, do we mean to deny that the magnetism of the lever might interfere with the experiment. When a physicist says that a certain phenomenon will happen under certain general conditions, he never means that no circumstances can possibly prevent it. What Archimedes meant was to lay down a proposition in regard to the geometrical relations of lever-arms to which nobody could object. Nor was he writing about the theory of cognition. He said nothing about the origin of the belief. He simply put forth the proposition as one to which, it was safe to assume, every sane man would assent.

Again, Galileo, being not much over twenty years old, investigated the law of falling bodies. It was not until he was past the age of eighty, and with failing powers, that he wrote out his reasonings. One point he made was that if the velocity of a falling body were proportional to the distance it had fallen from a state of rest, then, after it had fallen a unit of distance in a finite time, it would in precisely the same time have fallen double that distance. But the aged Galileo had evidently forgotten how the young Galileo had reached that conclusion, and his attempt to reproduce his former reasoning is impotent. Nevertheless, that conclusion does truly follow from that assumption. Mach flatly denies this, but he is wrong. Galileo's original reasoning was probably somewhat like this: Imagine two bodies, which we may designate as Achilles and the tortoise, to have fallen from the same height, but at such instants that at another and given instant the tortoise has fallen one yard and Achilles two. Then, on the assumption that the velocities are proportional to the spaces fallen from rest, Achilles will be falling twice as fast as the tortoise. Now, Galileo could easily show that this implies that Achilles had at *every* instant been twice as far from the starting point and had been falling twice as fast as the tortoise. Consequently, Achilles must have performed his total fall of two yards in the same time that the tortoise performed his total fall of one yard. But both bodies are supposed to fall by the same law. Hence, this is a law which would make them fall one foot in the same time as two feet. These instances illustrate how important it is that the reader should be upon his guard against Mach's very inaccurate reasoning.

The author declares that it is quite impossible to get a full comprehension of the different mechanical principles without being acquainted with the discussions which originally led to their acceptance. Probably he would extend the same remark to many other sciences. We might name this the embryological principle in pedagogy, since the embryologists inform us that each individual animal has in his growth to pass through a series of transformations which roughly copy those through which his race has passed in the pal ontological development. No doubt, this principle is important in teaching all those subjects in which the conceptions are really difficult, such as metaphysics, logic, ethics, political economy, and several branches of mathematics. Yet it might very easily be carried too far, and it probably has been carried too far in this very treatise. If a student's sole object is to learn mechanics as thoroughly and quickly as possible, there are certainly text-books enough in our own language which would better serve his turn.

For a good many years Germany has in philosophical matters been quite as anglomaniac as England and Anglo-Saxon America have been tudescomaniac. Dr. Mach's metaphysics belongs to the good old Lockian sect of sensationalism. The proposition that all our knowledge rests upon and represents experience is nowadays accepted by sensualists and their opponents alike, the latter taking "experience," in its ultimate sense, for whatever has been forced upon our minds, willy-nilly, in the course of our intellectual history. To major force we can only submit, and it is idle to dispute the reality of such things as food, money, beds, shoes, friends, enemies, sunshine, etc. But the anti-sensationalists, or perhaps the most advanced of them, say that, having once surrendered to the power of nature, and having allowed the futile ego in some measure to dissolve, man at once finds himself in synectic union with the circumambient non-ego, and partakes in its triumph. On the simple condition of obedience to the laws of nature, he can satisfy many of his selfish desires; a further surrender will bring him the higher delight of realizing to some extent his ideas; a still further surrender confers upon him the function of coöperating with nature and the course of things to grow new ideas and institutions. Al-

most everybody will admit there is truth in this: the question is how fundamental that truth may be. There are those who hold that while the brute compulsiveness of things may be said to constitute their reality, yet the whole fact of reality, with the relation of the ego to the non-ego, is not described until the individual Will is recognized as merging into the environing non-ego, as the individual instant of time merges into its past and future. For these thinkers, the line between fact and figment (which may or may not resemble and represent fact), so far as it can be drawn at all, is to be drawn between the involuntary and the voluntary parts of cognition; so that products of sense-perception—this chair, this table, this inkstand—belong to the realm of unquestionable reality. But they do not fail to remark that the process of compulsion exercised by the non-ego upon the ego is not altogether instantaneous. A part of it is continued through centuries. Nor is this compulsion always definitive. Resolute endeavor, aided by ingenuity and by favorable experiences, will often succeed in throwing off a part of the yoke. As for *immediate* experience, the individual sensation, it is the affair of an instant; it is transformed before it can be recognized; it is known to us as immediate only inferentially.

The sensationalists, and Dr. Mach with them, draw the line between fact and figment otherwise. Individual sensation is for them the only reality; all that results from the elaborative action of the mind is unreal. "Nature," says Mach, "is composed of sensations." A chair or a table is not real. "The *thing*," he tells us, "is only an abstraction." And again: "The world is not composed of things as its elements, but of colors, tones, pressures, . . . in short, what we ordinarily call individual sensations." Thus, all knowledge is based on and is merely representative of individual sensations, and all thought, all intellect, is of value only as subservient to peripheral or visceral sensation.

It was a favorite opinion of the pre-scientific sensationalists—Hobbes, Locke, and others—that abstraction and generalization were mere matters of convenience. Mach pushes this idea so far as to see no value in science except as an economy. "The end of science," he says, "is to *save* experiences, by the reproduction and anticipation of facts in thought." He does not make it quite clear why he should wish to save experiences, unless they are disagreeable, nor how he can save experiences except by slumbering. However, it is not our purpose to make objections, but only to outline Dr. Mach's opinion. It would seem that, all thought, memory, and higher feeling being held by the sensationalists as merely subservient to "individual sensations," if they could only be assured of a series of highly agreeable individual sensations for the rest of their lives, they should be content to forego all thought and all memory, and pass the time in an "Epicurus stye" of individual sensations.

In science, metaphysics may be useful in furnishing a system of pigeon-holes in which all possible facts may be conveniently arranged, but what the scientific inquirer chiefly asks of it is that it should efface itself, as the French say, and not block the road of experimental inquiry. But Dr. Mach's sensationalism appears upon most important points quite at odds with the conclusions of science, the nature of the difference being this, that the scientific men wish to leave questions to be settled by experiment, while Mach wishes to forestall this by deciding them by metaphysics.

For instance, the crowning doctrine of physics is that all the events in the physical universe are motions of matter. Heating and cooling, changes of color, sounds, electrification, all may have their physical qualities; but so far as they are extra-mental they are nothing but motions of particles in space. Many a metaphysician will offer to show you in advance that it must be so. The physicists at first propounded it as a question, and then went on to put that question to Nature in experiments. By this time they are pretty well satisfied that the answer is affirmative. But still they keep up their eternal teasing of the great mother, to see if the same answer will always be given. Mach, however, decides it is not so; his metaphysics has revealed that to him. He seems to deny the kinetic theory of gases, and regards the whole atomic theory as destined to be overthrown.

Again, Sir Isaac Newton formulated the three laws of motion which stand to-day in all the text-books. The first, due to Galileo, is that a body left to itself continues for ever to describe equal spaces in equal times on one straight line. The third, Newton s own achievement in great measure, the law of action and reaction, is that one body cannot be drawn back without other bodies on the same line being drawn forward to balance it. Now Newton, with his incomparable clearness of apprehension, saw that the third law implies that spatial displacement is not merely relative, and further that, this being granted, the first law implies that temporal duration is not merely relative. Hence, Newton drew the conclusion that there were such realities as Time and Space, and that they were something more than words expressive of relations between bodies and events. This was a scientific conclusion, based upon sound probable reasoning from established facts. It was fortified by Foucault's pendulum experiment, which showed that the earth has an absolute motion of rotation equal to its motion relative to the fixed stars. Moreover, Gauss and others were led to ask whether it be precisely true that he three angles of a triangle sum up to two right angles, and to say that observation alone can decide this question. Now, the mathematicians demonstrate that if that sum is not precisely two right angles, there is such a thing as an absolute velocity of translation. Whether there be or not is to the minds of scientific men a question for experiment and observation to decide. But Mach will not let it go so. His metaphysics tells him that there is no such thing as absolute space and time, and consequently no such thing as absolute motion. The laws of motion must be revised in such a way that they shall *not* predict that result of Foucault's experiment which they did successfully predict, and the non-Euclidean geometry must be put aside on metaphysical grounds. Is not this making fact bend to theory?

The English of this translation has received the emphatic approval of Prof. Mach himself.

## VILLARI'S FLORENTINE HISTORY.

*I primi due Secoli della Storia di Firenze:* Ricerche di Pasquale Villari. Vol. I. Florence: G. C. Sansoni. 1893.

THE history of Italy has still to be written, even if we regard the peninsula, with Metternich, as simply a geographical expression. No history, moreover, is more difficult to write, for, in place of the development of a single nation under institutions fairly well known and intelligible, we have a congeries of States, each working out its own ideals under social organizations and impulses of the most diverse and often of the most transitory character, and all of them dominated on the one side by the Holy Roman Empire and on the other by the Holy See. To accomplish this clearly and creditably is a task to daunt the courage of the most enterprising scholar, for he must not only assemble his material from an enormous mass of printed documents and an equally voluminous series of papers as yet accessible only in the archives, but he must coördinate an infinite variety of petty details, he must trace effects to remote and obscure causes, and he must weigh the interaction of opposing influences more complicated than those which have operated on the moral, social, and political evolution of any other nation.

So far has any adventurous historian been from accomplishing this task as a whole, that Prof. Villari informs us in his introduction that it yet remains to be done for the individual communities which formed the aggregate of mediæval Italy. His own undertaking is more modest, and yet it is by no means an easy one, viz., to ascertain and set forth the origin and the vicissitudes for two centuries of the community which shared with Venice the glory of being the most remarkable of the Italian republics—the little State which, under the name of Florence, at no time numbering within its walls a population of over a hundred thousand souls, made its influence felt from farthest Thule to central Asia, which organized a commerce embracing the then known habitable globe, and used the resultant wealth in stimulating literature and the arts till it became the acknowledged leader and teacher of European culture. The external facts of Florentine history are fairly well known and accessible, though the critical student has often to dissociate them from the legends which have encrusted them; but to seek the causes and occasions of those facts and to trace the influences which raised the little Florentine commune to a position so commanding, to investigate the social and moral condition of its people, and to find the key to the changes in its political organization which succeeded each other with such phantasmagoric rapidity, is a labor worthy of the well-known learning and acumen of the author.

The questions involved are of more than mere local interest, for though we may not wholly agree with Prof. Villari, that to the commune is due the idea of free institutions and the structure of modern political organizations, there can be no doubt that the free cities of the early Middle Ages exercised no little influence in determining the form and direction in which society has developed itself; and no study, by so able a writer, of the process in so active and intelligent a population as that of Florence can be without instruction for the student of human institutions in other lands. Florence, in fact, affords a peculiarly interesting field for such an investigation, for during the formative period its municipal constitution was remarkably plastic. One experiment succeeded another with a rapidity almost bewildering, as the people advanced towards the conception of a democratic republic. Yet this republic was in reality only an aristocracy. Even as late as the year 1494, not long before its final downfall under the power of the Medici, full citizenship was accorded to only about three thousand men.

This aristocracy consisted of merchants and manufacturers. The gradually growing independence of the Tuscan cities had become virtually complete in the disorders following the

death of the Countess Matilda in 1115, when the Empire was unable to vindicate its claims to feudal suzerainty and the Holy See was powerless to make good the testamentary provisions of the Countess, who had instituted the Church as her general legatee. One by one Florence dominated the feudal nobles in its neighborhood, and step by step it stripped them of influence within its walls. In the continual revisions of the Constitution which took place during the thirteenth century the seven *Arti Maggiori*, or principal mercantile guilds, gradually became the governing power. Long participation in the management of their own associations, as well as of public affairs, trained their members to be politicians and statesmen and diplomatists as well as merchants. The policy of the republic was wholly commercial —its wars and its negotiations, like those of England, were carried on almost exclusively with the object of opening new avenues of trade; and it is well worthy of consideration how great an influence Florence and Venice have exercised in the gradual subordination of the military to the industrial spirit, which is perhaps the most marked peculiarity of modern civilization.

In nothing was the shrewdness of the Florentine traders more strikingly manifested than in their regulations to maintain their commercial reputation. Under the statutes of the guilds every piece of merchandise was closely scrutinized by officials appointed for the purpose, and every defect in quality, weight, or measure was punished with heavy fines. The ticket of the guild placed on a bale of goods was a guarantee recognized and valued in every market. In the same spirit the weight and fineness of the florin were religiously maintained through every crisis, and while other States were suffering all the ills entailed by a debased coinage, the florin was everywhere recognized as a standard, giving to Florentine commerce an advantage which might be studied with profit by our own financial quacks.

Brilliant as were the achievements of this commercial aristocracy, the system carried within it the seeds of its own destruction. The *popolani grassi*, or plutocrats, were involved in an endless struggle, on the one hand to keep the nobles and the people in subjection, and on the other to deprive of all liberty the cities subdued by force of arms so that the republic actually became weaker the more its territory became extended and its apparent power increased. A further source of decadence was developed in the decay of the manlier virtues, when war was no longer the rising of a people in arms led by their fellow-citizens, but was carried on by mercenaries hired for the occasion from military adventurers who had succeeded in assembling Free Companies. The discontent of the mass of the population, deprived of all share in the government, and oppressed with taxes to defray the cost of the continual wars necessitated by the commercial expansion of the ruling class, paved the way for the usurpation of the Medici, which was not so much the destruction of the liberties of a republic as a revolution which reduced all classes to equality under a prince.

All this is set forth by Prof. Villari with his wonted clearness and ability, and we shall look forward with interest to the promised completion of his work.

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*The Ghost World.* By T. F. Thiselton Dyer. London: Ward & Downey; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1893. 16mo, pp. vi, 447.

*The Secret Commonwealth of Elves, Fauns, and Fairies:* A Study in Folk-Lore and Psychical Research. The Text by Robert Kirk, M.A., Minister of Aberfoyle, A. D. 1691. The Comment by Andrew Lang, M.A., A. D. 1893. London: Published by David Nutt. 1893. Crown 8vo, pp. lxiv, 92. (Bibliothèque de Carabas, Vol. VIII.)

HORACE, in the most charming of his Epistles, makes true wisdom consist in shunning not only avarice, but also all other distracting fears and passions, and asks the reader—

> "Somnia, terrores magicos, miracula, sagas,
> Nocturnos lemures portentaque Thessala rides?"

He would be greatly amazed, could he return to our modern life, to see how large a part these things still play. Our present interest in them, it is true, is largely antiquarian and scientific; still, that would not account for the widespread concern in manifestations of the spiritual world which makes a market for books like Mr. Dyer's. It is not necessary to seek for a survival of superstitious beliefs and observances among savage tribes. Enough yet remains in the most cultivated and enlightened circles of civilized society to prove the enormous tenacity of beliefs which our ancestors entertained for untold ages. Mr. Leland's 'Etruscan Roman Remains in Popular Tradition,' recently reviewed in this journal, shows how a great mass of classical Roman, and even ante-Roman, superstitions are found among the peasants of Italy, and Mr. Crawford, in his last delightful novel, 'Pietro Ghisleri,' gives a striking example of the survival of the belief in the *jettatura*, or "evil eye," among the cultivated Romans of the present day.

It is this universal, unscientific interest which leads us to draw our chairs closer about the fire on a winter's night and unconsciously fall to telling ghost stories, some of them taken from our own experience, or that of our intimate friends. For such occasions Mr. Dyer has furnished a convenient compend of the subject, arranged under suitable headings, and dealing with every phase of the "Ghost World," from the soul's exit at death to checks and spells against its further wanderings. The author is a practised hand at such collections, and the present volume is but one of a long series on 'English Folk-Lore,' 'British Popular Customs,' 'Domestic Folk-Lore,' 'Church Lore Gleanings,' 'Folk-Lore of Plants,' and 'Folk-Lore of Shakespeare.' These works are all made with care and taste and will be found agreeable reading. The present volume is no exception, and as it makes no claim to be an original contribution to the subject, it does not need any lengthy criticism. The author has adopted the modern method of comparative study, and draws upon the ghost stories of savages, using freely our own aboriginal lore as given in Dorman's 'The Origin of Primitive Superstitions,' etc., and the two remarkable articles in the *Nineteenth Century*, vol. xvii., by A. Lang, "Comparative Study of Ghost Stories," and in the *Contemporary Review*, vol. xlviii., by J. G. Frazer, "The Primitive Ghost." A remarkable proof of the universality of Shakspere is to be found in his frequent references to almost every phase of the present subject, and Mr. Dyer has aptly quoted him on many occasions.

A more curious work is that of the Rev. Robert Kirk, reprinted by Mr. Lang in the "Bibliothèque de Carabas." The author was a minister at Aberfoyle in Scotland, the youngest and *seventh* son of a minister of the same place. Little is known of his life; he was of scholarly tastes, publishing a Psalter in Gaelic and being engaged on an Irish translation of the Bible. He was twice married and had two sons. His end was a singular one, in view of the book we shall presently mention. Sir Walter Scott says ('Letters on Demonology and Witchcraft,' second edition, London, 1831, p. 160):

"Although the learned divine's monument, with his name duly inscribed, is to be seen at the east end of the churchyard at Aberfoyle, yet those acquainted with his real history do not believe that he enjoys the natural repose of the tomb. His successor, the Rev Dr. Grahame, has informed us of the general belief, that as Mr. Kirke was walking one evening in his night-gown upon a *Dun-shi*, or fairy mount, in the vicinity of the manse or parsonage, behold! he sunk down in what seemed to be a fit of apoplexy, which the unenlightened took for death, while the more understanding knew it to be a swoon produced by the supernatural influence of the people whose precincts he had violated. After the ceremony of a seeming funeral, the form of the Rev. Robert Kirke appeared to a relation, and commanded him to go to Grahame of Duchray, ancestor of the present Gen. Graham Stirling. 'Say to Duchray, who is my cousin, as well as your own, that I am not dead, but a captive in Fairy Land; and only one chance remains for my liberation. When the posthumous child, of which my wife has been delivered since my disappearance, shall be brought to baptism, I will appear in the room, when, if Duchray shall throw over my head the knife or dirk which he holds in his hand, I may be restored to society; but if this opportunity is neglected, I am lost for ever.' Duchray was apprised of what was to be done. The ceremony took place, and the apparition of Mr. Kirke was visibly seen while they were seated at table; but Grahame of Duchray, in his astonishment, failed to perform the ceremony enjoined, and it is to be feared that Mr. Kirke still 'drees his weird in Fairy Land.'"

Mr. Kirk's little book was written in 1691 and was probably not printed until 1815, when an edition of only one hundred copies appeared at Edinburgh from the press of James Ballantyne & Company for Longman & Company of London. The title-page to the presumed reprint (the printers say, "One hundred copies only reprinted") bears the date of 1691, but the title-page with that date was probably only the title-page of a manuscript; at least no copy of an edition of 1691 has yet been found in any of the great libraries of England or at Abbotsford, although Sir Walter Scott mentions it, and would probably have had it if it existed. The edition of 1815 is rare, but at least one copy is in this country, in the Andrew D. White collection on witchcraft in the Cornell University Library. It is a quarto of pp. vi, 97, of which pp. 47-97 are occupied, under the title of "Appendix," with "Extracts from a Treatise on the Second Sight, Dreams, Apparitions, etc. By Theophilus Insulanus. Edin., 1763, 8vo." This appendix is omitted in Mr. Lang's reprint.

Mr. Kirk's book is the most curious imaginable. Written in 1691 by a Scotch divine, it is nothing less than a calm assumption of the existence at that time of a commonwealth of elves, fauns, and fairies, whose government, habits, etc., are minutely described upon the authority of "Men of Second Sight" (it is not clear whether the author himself was one of these by virtue of his being a seventh son), the method of obtaining which gift is also carefully explained. These fairies are of a middle nature betwixt man and angel; they inhabit subterranean abodes, which they change at each quarter of the year. "They are distributed in tribes and orders, and have children, nurses, marriages, deaths, and burials; their apparel and speech is like that of the people and country under which they live: they are said to have aristocratical rulers and laws, but no discernible religion, love, or devotion to-

wards God," "their weapons are most what solid earthly bodies, nothing of iron, but much of stone, like to yellow soft flint spa, shaped liked a barbed arrow-head, but flung like a dart, with great force." The moral character of these "subterraneans" is minutely described on p. 25, and the conclusion is, "But for swearing and intemperance, they are not observed so subject to those irregularities, as to envy, spite, hypocrisy, lying, and dissimulation."

The author adds to the evidence given by his friends, etc., a letter from Lord Tarbott to the Hon. Robert Boyle, in which many additional instances of second sight are narrated. The remainder of the little work is taken up with a discussion of various questions relating to second sight and the objects upon which it is exercised, as, for instance, that it is not unsuitable to reason nor the Holy Scriptures; the difference between second sight and compact and witchcraft; the effect of acquiring second sight upon the acquirer's body, mind, or actions; whether the "subterraneans" are subject to vice, lust, passion, and injustice as we who live on the surface of the earth; how they are generated; and finally, as to the interposition of Satan.

Such is the curious little work which Mr. Lang has undertaken to edit, and to which he has prefixed an introduction of great interest and value. A few years ago Mr. David MacRitchie ('The Testimony of Tradition,' London, 1890) advanced the theory that the British Isles were once occupied by a race of dwarfs dwelling in artificial caves which still survive. The race yet lives in popular memory as fairies, and their former abodes are known as "fairy hills." Mr. Lang (as had already been done) shows the untenability of this theory, partly by historical proofs, and partly by arguments drawn from comparative folk-lore. Mr. Lang's own conclusion is given on p. lxv: "As to the fairy belief, we conceive it to be a complex matter, from which tradition, with its memory of earth-dwellers, is not wholly absent, while more is due to a survival of the pre-Christian Hades, and to the belief in local spirits." A still more interesting topic involved in Mr. Kirk's work is the origin of the belief in second sight and the phenomena (house-haunting, etc.) attributed to fairies. A large number of cases, old and new (the list is far from exhaustive), are examined without any satisfactory conclusion. As to second sight and telepathy, Mr. Lang thinks that they may owe their origin to events of an ordinary kind, illusions, cases of mistaken identity, or hallucination; but there are many instances of veridical second sight which cannot be explained in this way, and we must await further researches on the part of psychologists.

The volume, like all of the series, is beautifully printed, and is adorned with a frontispiece by Lockhart Bogle, representing a fairy appearing to a Highlander by moonlight. Mr. Lang also contributes a poetical dedication to Robert L. Stevenson, and a charming poem to the memory of Mr. Kirk (the inscription on whose tombstone, we learn from another source, has been renewed by the piety of his latest editor).

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*L'Art du Rire et de la Caricature.* Par Arsène Alexandre. Paris: Quantin (Librairies-Imprimeries Réunies.)

BECAUSE of the great difficulty of the task, Champfleury (we have his word for it) undertook the history of caricature in antiquity. To record the development of the art throughout the ages would mean labor far more arduous and prolonged; for this reason, probably, M. Arsène Alexandre was wise to evade it. Than such a record nothing would be more interesting. "Tell me what a man laughs at and I will tell you what that man is," has passed into a truism no less applicable to men taken collectively. In the jests and gibes of a nation is reflected the national character. The real history of caricature must prove as well the history of civilization. So extended a scheme, however, comes not within the scope of M. Alexandre's work, as he himself is the first to admit. There is no question with him, he says at the very outset, of compiling a learned chronicle: that would be scarce amusing enough (and here he may be right), nor could much be learned from it if he did (and here we find him wholly wrong). But if he gayly disclaims all pretensions to method, if he declares that, so far as he is concerned, dates may take care of themselves, it is not for us to criticise him when he leaves undone those things which he never proposed to do. We may believe it foolish not to relate facts essentially appropriate, if not indispensable, simply because they have been related before and elsewhere. We may hold it impossible to avoid politics when writing on caricature. In a word, we may not accept his attitude on the subject—indeed, we may think it one sadly to be deplored. But we must recognize it honestly if we would form a fair estimate of his book.

As a series of light articles, his chapters make very pleasant reading. They might have served as delightful *feuilletons* in any one of the Paris papers, and, for all we know, many of them may have appeared first in that form. M. Alexandre has an easy style—"chatty," the "new journalist" would call it. Moreover, despite his modest ambitions, he has evidently studied the caricature of many lands and many phases, and he succeeds in impressing the reader with his sympathetic knowledge and keen appreciations. The fact is, it is because he knows so much that one wishes he had been willing to learn—or think—a little more. While, nominally, he disdains method, practically he is not altogether superior to it. He begins at the beginning—with the broad, serene, primitive laughter of the builders of the Pyramids, the creators of the Sphinx. He traces the progress of caricature and its countless changes in the art of Greeks and Romans—ever graceful, for all its grotesqueness, with the former; too often verging to vulgarity with the latter. He follows it still further, until it develops into the grim humor and awful gayety of mediævalism, when men could laugh loudest at death and the devil and the very horrors they dreaded most. And so he continues to mark its progress through century after century, in country after country, down to the Forains and Schlittgens and Du Mauriers who are now the joy of readers of *Le Courrier Français*, *Fliegende Blätter*, and *Punch*. He even interrupts the smooth flow of his gossip to point out the influence of time and race on its manifestations—to explain that the caricature which was fantastic in the Middle Ages became theological with the Reformation, bloody with the Revolution; that the laughter which was brutal with the English Hogarth was terrible with the Spanish Goya, tragic with the French Daumier. He records also the appearance of the first type of genuine vitality in the illustrated press—Mounier's Prudhomme, the great figure of Philipon's *Caricature*, the first paper devoted to the art which gave it its name. But he touches upon these matters all too lightly; he may recognize their "profound philosophy," but he is content to note his recognition and pass on. Take the last-mentioned alone, for example. What could be more important and significant in the history of caricature than the transference of popular types from the stage to the newspapers—the conversion of Maccus and Pappus, of the characters of the "Commedia dell' Arte," into the *Robert Macaire* of Daumier, the *Beisele* and *Eisele* of German fame, the *Ally Sloper* and *British Workman* of British origin? But upon this he dwells not; no hint does he offer of the strange modern transformation scene, as it were. The fact is, throughout, prominence is given according to, not the importance of subject, or type, or development, but the strength of the author's own preferences.

This is most conspicuous when he comes to contemporary caricature. He is complete and exhaustive enough in dealing with French caricaturists, though friendship and personal prejudice no doubt influenced him not a little in his unstinted praise of Willette and Forain. But the caricature of foreign lands he has understood not so well, and therefore has cared for less: as a consequence, it is presented with a superficial treatment that is appalling, or with mistakes that amuse. To class Walter Crane's illustrations for fairy tales with the work of English caricaturists is a blunder not unworthy of a Frenchman. But his nationality is scarce an excuse when M. Alexandre records the death of Mr. Du Maurier in 1892! Grant that in the effort to adapt *Punch* to the British Matron, the vigor of English caricature has suffered, this is no reason why Charles Keene should be dismissed with a word and without a single example of his work, while pages are devoted to Randolph Caldecott. Caricature in Germany fares little better; in America it is disposed of in a couple of short paragraphs. M. Alexandre's arguments to hide what we fear is his own ignorance are not convincing; in *Judge* and *Puck* he has discovered too little art and too much politics. But these, if we mistake not, have been the chief characteristics of caricature in all time.

To realize that inartistic rendering is neither a new thing nor the special product of America, we have but to look at the illustrations. To publish them, the text most probably was a mere excuse. And yet, like the text, they show that M. Alexandre, if interested in his subject, has brought to its presentment no individuality of observation, no freshness of selection. He has collected together but the old stock examples, as inevitable in a book about caricature as are the early playing-cards and the St. Christopher in a treatise on engraving. In the last chapters, dealing with contemporary work, of course he has been able to reproduce drawings less hackneyed, and here his apparently intimate relations with Willette and Forain have stood him in good stead. But, for the rest, he has kept to the beaten track. In the whole collection, perhaps nothing is so striking as the lack of artistic distinction. Invention, humor, fantasy, originality, gayety, audacity, vigor, fearlessness—these are qualities found in almost every illustration. But artistic ability is seldom to the fore. It seems as if, in the effort to make his meaning clear, the artist had been compelled to sacrifice its artistic expression. There could be no better instance of the disastrous effect of the literary element when it prevails in art.

It is well worth noting, however, that in this respect the modern are somewhat in advance of the earlier caricaturists. There are exceptions, necessarily: the old men who recorded their jests on the stones of the parish church or the

stalls of the monastic choir, were not often entirely preoccupied with the story they had to tell. We are not sure that Holbein's Dance of Death should be included in such a series; but if it should, then it also we must except from the general rule. But few will dispute that in the work of Breughel and Callot, or again of Hogarth, Gillray, and Rowlandson, to whom M. Alexandre lends preëminence, the literary far outbalances the artistic interest. Goya was too great as an artist to be supreme as a caricaturist. Daumier's concessions to caricature interfered sorely with his art. We cannot re-echo the verdict of Baudelaire that he was one of the most important men, not only in caricature but in modern art. Only now and then (as in the drawing published by M. Alexandre, where Liberty, most dramatically conceived and executed, appears in the doorway at the last council of the ex-ministers) are we reminded of the really fine artist who was lost in the clever caricaturist. And so one might go on through the list. To-day, however, we see men like Charles Keene in England (for the present purpose he must still be counted among contemporary illustrators), Schlittgen and Reinecke in Germany, Willette, and Caran D'Ache, and Forain (at their best, be it understood: success threatens to make them careless), who are no less concerned with the manner in which they render their tale or jest than with its meaning; who, in order to raise a laugh, never find it imperative to forego all beauty of line and composition. Something of healthy vitality may have departed from modern work, but it has gained in artistic force and expression.

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*Thomas Jefferson.* By James Schouler, LL.D., author of 'History of the United States under the Constitution.' New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1893. ["Makers of America" Series.]

In treating of Jefferson as a "maker of America" it is not easy to draw the line between biography and history, and it certainly is not easy to write anything new which shall be true. But the history of great events with the biography of great characters is said to call for periodical reconstruction, according as the angle of human vision changes from age to age, and in this sense it was entirely proper that Dr. Schouler should essay rightly to divide the word of truth under both of these heads for the present generation. And he is well equipped for his task, alike by his historic studies and by sympathy for his subject, when Jefferson is regarded in the deeper relations which he bore to the politics of his time. Viewing American history in its more immediate connection with the personage whose life and labors are here passed under review, he finds in Jefferson, "stem-winding, as it were, in his mechanism," one of those spontaneous and creative natures which required "no extraneous key to set and keep him going." Dr. Schouler sees clearly that all the intuitions of Jefferson, whether they are to be characterized for his justification or for his condemnation, were presageful of the nineteenth century, with its liberalism in politics and its liberality in religion.

It may be said that the political *Aufklärung* of this century came to its first distinct expression in the American Revolution, of which Jefferson was the literary interpreter in the Declaration of Independence. It came to its second portentous expression in the French Revolution, of which Jefferson was a close observer, and in the beneficence of which he continued to believe despite all the excesses with which it was accompanied. He felt by the instincts of a natural sympathy what the student of history now perceives by cold analysis, that these two great epoch-making events were part and parcel of a great common movement for the emancipation of man from the thraldom of tyranny and superstition. As early as 1753 we find the Earl of Chesterfield writing that "all the symptoms which he had ever met with in history, previous to great changes and revolutions in government, were then existing and daily increasing in France," but he had no sympathy with the deep motive of this political unrest, and no comprehension of its significant place in the world-wide evolution of political thought and aspiration.

It must be admitted to the praise of Jefferson's sagacity as a political philosopher, that he seems to have attained "to something of prophetic strain" in the presence of this century's democratizing tendency long before that tendency had come to a fixed effect and had registered itself in our social institutes and political enactments. Indeed, one of Jefferson's biographers is bold to say that "if Jefferson was wrong, America is wrong"—so completely was the spirit of America foreshadowed in his perceptions. In the evolution of politics, the Past, to use the well-worn figure made so familiar by Goethe, is perpetually weaving itself with the Future in the loom of the Present, or, as Freeman has phrased it, in plain pedestrian prose, "History is past politics and politics present history"—that is, history getting itself made. The ordinary reader of history towards the close of the last century (who as an "ordinary" reader cannot be presumed to have been gifted with that prescience which is skilled to descry coming events in the shadows they cast before them) may well be pardoned if, before the American and the French Revolutions and for long years afterward, it should have seemed to him that what we call to-day the "historic forces," or the philosophy which teaches by example, were to be sought in alliance with the party of Alexander Hamilton rather than with the party of Jefferson. Prof. William G. Sumner, we remember, in his sketch of Hamilton considered as a "maker of America," attempted to find a providential mission for that constructive and at the same time reactionary statesman in the necessity that was at first laid on the country to retrieve itself from the popular license and military incivism incident to a revolutionary period. This necessity, however, was one which soon spent its force under the settled government of the Federal Constitution, and it was mainly because the Federalist party sought to pass off this necessity for more than it was worth in the domain of politics that the party itself was soon discharged of its reason for being. The Federalists could not understand their epoch because they never understood the new political era in which they were living. Jefferson understood his epoch because he not only understood the new political era, but helped to make it and was made by it.

Perhaps we cannot better measure the break which the Virginian statesman made with the conservative thought and the received political traditions of his time than by dropping our plummets here and there for deep-sea soundings in the well-nigh fathomless denunciation with which grave divines like Dr. Timothy Dwight, and flippant pamphleteers like Stephen Cullen Carpenter with his two-volume diatribe, once thought proper to pursue the "Apostle of Democracy." Perhaps, too, we cannot better measure the historic repute in which Jefferson is popularly held to-day than by gauging the depth at which we must dredge for this vituperation now that it has been sedimented at the bottom of what was once the Gulf Stream of American politics, after having been held for long years in such active solution by the cross-currents of a conflicting public opinion.

But if so much should be said in simple justice to the historic place which Jefferson holds as a creative force in American life, it becomes only the clearer from the perspective in which we can now survey his influence, that he had, as indeed must be the case with all agitators and reformers, the defects of his qualities. Dr. Schouler is not blind to Jefferson's faults of character, and, after designating some of them, he expresses the opinion that the Virginian philosopher, in consequence of his residence and experiences in France, grew at length more French than English in his political methods and temperament as well as in his viands and cookery. As during the whole of Jefferson's career the main distinctions in our domestic politics turned on questions of "Anglican" or "Gallican" predilections, and as Jefferson adhered unswervingly to the latter, it would indeed be strange if his fine political hand had not taken the color of the dye he worked in.

Dr. Schouler writes, as we have said, with an avowed sympathy for his subject. A careful consideration of certain facts cited by Prof. J. M. Merriam in a paper read before the American Historical Association, an abstract of which may be found in its reported Transactions (vol. ii., p. 47), would have perhaps moderated somewhat the praise bestowed on Jefferson for the reserve with which he is supposed to have exercised the power of removal on his accession to the Presidency. We could wish that Dr. Schouler, in vindicating the "originality" of the Declaration of Independence against certain loose asseverations of John Adams, had specified the probable sources from which Jefferson drew the counts of his indictment against the King. Those counts were doubtless floating in the air at that time, as indeed we know from other papers, preserved in 'Almon's Remembrancer' or 'Force's Archives,' in which similar specifications are to be found anterior to the Declaration.

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*Joan of Arc.* By Lord Ronald Gower. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

The leading motive of the noble author in making this latest contribution to the literature of the Maid appears to have been piety to the memory of his mother, who had, he says, a *culte* for the heroine. Judged by such a standard of intention, the book may fairly be called a success. The splendor of its outward appearance, the warmth of admiration expressed for the subject, and the evidence of careful reading of the material used, are enough to satisfy the most exacting worshipper. Other excuse for being the book has none. It is a very slight affair—nothing more, indeed, than a rambling summary of the materials published by Quicherat, whom Lord Ronald calls "Director of the Institute of the Charters," and filtered through the biographies of Wallon and Fabre. It is written in the apologetic-cynical tone, with abundant praise of all who believed in the heroine and plentiful abuse of all who opposed her. The whole psychological side of the question—after all, the most interesting—is untouched, and the proper relation of the dealings with Joan on the part of friends and foes alike to the contemporary view of the supernatural is not made clear. Very pretty illus-

trations of the various places connected with the Maid's brief career do not add to the usefulness of the work. A fair bibliography of French and English works is not without value.

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*Gun and Camera in Southern Africa.* By H. A. Bryden. Illustrations and map. London: E. Stanford. 1893. Pp. xiv, 544. 8vo.

THIS title hardly does justice to an unusually attractive book. It is far more than a mere hunter's record of game killed, though some of the adventures told recall those of Gordon-Cumming. The first part, in addition to the main incidents of life on a station in Bechuanaland, contains a clear and sober account of the present condition and prospects of this part of British South Africa. These are distinctly encouraging. Not only is the available land being rapidly taken up for ranches, mostly by syndicates, but the natives, also, are increasing in numbers and wealth, the wagon-transport service being now largely in their hands. "The main arbiter of life and death" to the Bechuana, however, is the drink-traffic, which has ruined the Hottentot and Cape Kaffir, but is up to this time prohibited in the Protectorate. If, as there is some reason to fear will be the case, "Bechuanaland is handed over to the uncontrolled mercies of the Cape Colony, and the old Dutch wine-farming, brandy-selling party (and it is a strong—almost a supreme—party in the Cape Parliament) is suffered to work its will, the country will be flooded with vile cheap liquor and the natives ruined irredeemably."

In a hunting trip to the northward the author passed through the territory of Khama, the most enlightened native whom South Africa has produced. He more than confirms what other travellers have reported of this remarkable chief. Here is the account of Khama's ordinary day's occupations: "From earliest dawn he is up and riding about, here directing native labor in the cornfields outside the town, there selling grain and oxen to the passing expedition, helping the hunter, traveller, and explorer in every possible way, administering justice in his 'kotla,' holding prayers for a short space in the afternoon for such as like to attend, buying and inspecting ploughs and other implements for his people, or seeing that they are fairly dealt by in their negotiations with the up-country traders." That his people are not unworthy their ruler the following incident shows:

"I saw in the compound of the Bechuana Trading Association 300 American ploughs ready for sale. After Khama had chosen the two or three required for his own use, his tribesmen were allowed to buy, and in one day the whole stock was bought, paid for, and taken away. Not bad business this when it is remembered that each plough sold for the price of £5 cash, or the up-country equivalent of a good ox."

The chief gave Mr. Bryden permission to shoot in his country, for, in addition to his other claims to respect, he preserves the large game which still roams, though in greatly diminished numbers, in the plains to the south of the Zambesi; and the second part of the book is devoted to an account of this trip, which was taken in wagons through the Kalahari desert nearly to the shores of Lake Ngami. While part of this region is absolutely waterless, a considerable part of the so-called desert is "one of the finest natural ranching countries in the world." Here our author had an opportunity of shooting giraffe, which still are to be found in the "thirstland" in troops numbering several score. There is apparently no immediate danger of the extinction of this interesting animal, especially if the British officials see that the existing game laws are observed. The natives hunt the giraffe for his hide, which sometimes attains the extraordinary thickness of an inch and a half, and is used by them for sandals and whips.

Interspersed with Mr. Bryden's very entertaining account of his sport are many valuable notes on the fauna of the country, the birds being described with unusual care and fulness of detail. There are also chapters on the giraffe, the game birds of the hunting-grounds, and the present distribution of large game in South Africa. The closing chapter contains some useful directions and suggestions for wagon travelling. The numerous illustrations, from photographs mostly taken by the author, are especially interesting and well-chosen. An admirable index and useful map add still further to the value of Mr. Bryden's very entertaining and instructive book.

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*A Short History of Ireland, from the Earliest Times to* 1608. By P. W. Joyce, LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893. vii, 565 pp.

STRANGE to say, one of the periods of Ireland's deepest suffering and degradation (that of the famine and exodus of 1846 to 1852) was a golden season in her literary history. The Ordnance Survey, instituted twenty years previously under Colby and Drummond, had brought forward Irish scholars like O'Curry and O'Donovan. The translation of the 'Annals of the Four Masters' was undertaken. The publications of the Archæological and Celtic Societies began to appear. Petrie cleared up the mystery in which the ignorance of previous antiquarians had involved the history of the round towers. The writings of Davis and the young Irelanders threw a patriotic glow over graver studies. Zeuss's 'Grammatica Celtica' lent a deeper and wider interest to the study of the Irish language and everything relating to the history and traditions of the country. It was for the first time fully realized what a unique place was held by Ireland in the European family of nations, as one where an old civilization had existed untouched by contact with Roman rule; one where the Celtic language and Celtic laws and a pastoral arrangement of society had been conserved down to the end of the sixteenth century. No man has done more than Dr. Joyce to render available for the ordinary reader the cream of the labors of such scholars. His 'Names of Irish Places,' his 'Celtic Romances,' have added enduring charm and interest to every hill and valley in Ireland. He has proved himself somewhat of an Admirable Crichton in the domain of Irish literature. Besides the books above named he has given us a scholarly introduction to Irish grammar, he has taken down and published ancient music that might otherwise have been lost, he has written on 'School Management' and on the 'Care and Use of Handicraft Tools,' and he has now ventured upon the troubled waters of Irish history.

The volume before us consists of two portions. We have a popular account of the language, manners, customs, and institutions of the ancient Irish. We have also a history of the island down to 1608. The first appears to us most to justify the care bestowed upon the work. It fills a long acknowledged want. We are not aware of any other source to which the ordinary reader could turn for reliable collected information within a reasonable compass concerning the subjects treated. The author's succinct exposition of the principal features of the Breton Institutes is peculiarly happy. The laws and customs comprised within the Breton Code came down from the remotest antiquity. They held sway over the minds and feelings of the greater portion of the inhabitants of Ireland until three hundred years ago. The change from them to English law was a complete wrench. The two systems did not fade one into the other. Whether for good or ill, the influence of the native system is still traceable in the character and thoughts of the people. Much which in late ages has been considered lawless in the inhabitants of Ireland was in truth, perhaps unconsciously in many instances, an adherence to the old principles ground into the race by immemorial usage. The most important portions of this code annotated by ancient jurists have, within late years, under the supervision of competent scholars, been published by the Government.

In the historical portion of Mr. Joyce's book are ably and clearly brought out the initial mistakes made in the "settlement" and government of the country, which have since led to such deplorable consequences. The Anglo-Norman policy of the thirteenth, fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries—that of regarding the mass of the Irish people as necessarily the "King's enemies"—is still, in the estimate of a powerful British party, the only true policy to be applied in the government of the country. Yet, upon the whole, the historical portions of this book disappoint us. They are honestly, conscientiously, and reliably done; but there is a certain stiffness, a certain want of breadth of view, especially in the chapters relating to the original inhabitants of the island and the introduction of Christianity. We miss the broad scholarship, the grasp and fervor of a Green. We are promised a further volume, carrying down the history of the country to the present day. The historical portion will then run to considerably more than twice the length of Mr. Walpole's 'Short History.'

Dr. Joyce has brought to his task a lore and an acquaintance with details of the history of his country which Mr. Walpole could not lay claim to. But, after the closest examination we have been able to give to the book before us, we are obliged to confess that the work of the latter writer still holds its place as the most satisfactory popular history of Ireland, whereas Dr. Joyce's early chapters, respecting the manners and customs, cannot, as we have already stated, be elsewhere matched.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

All But One. Raphael Tuck & Sons. $1.
Bacon, Alice M. A Japanese Interior. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Ball, J. D. Things Chinese. 2d ed., revised and enlarged. Scribners. $3.
Barlow, Jane. Irish Idylls. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Bezobrazow, Olga de. Poussière d'Etoiles. 2 vols. Paris: Albert Savine; New York: Christern.
Bigelow, M. M. Elements of the Law of Bills, Notes and Cheques. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Brooks, Rev. Phillips. Sermons. Sixth Series. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.75.
Carus, Paul. The Religion of Science. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Cobbett, G. T. B., and Jenkin, A. F. Indian Clubs. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Collar, W. C. Eysenbach's Practical German Grammar. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
De l'Unité des Religions. Paris: Chamuel; New York: Christern.
Dering, R. G. Dr. Mirabel's Theory. Harpers. 50 cents.
Dobson, Austin. Horace Walpole: A Memoir. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Dumas, Alexander. Andree de Taverney. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Esquemeling, John. The Buccaneers of America. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $5.
Fielding, Henry. Tom Jones. 4 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.: New York: Macmillan. $4.
Foreman, John. The Philippine Islands. Scribners. $5.
Fulton, Prof. R. I., and Trueblood, Prof. T. C. Practical Elements of Elocution. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Hassan, Vita. Die Wahrheit über Emin Pascha. Part II. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.

Jackson, B. D. Index Kewensis Plantarum Phanerogamarum. Fasciculus I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Jackson, G. A. The Son of a Prophet. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Leighton, Robert. The Wreck of the Golden Fleece. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Lœwinson-Lessing, Prof. F. Tables for the Determination of the Rock-Forming Minerals. Macmillan. $1.25.
Lorentz, A. M. Pleasure and Progress. *Truth Seeker* Co. 50 cents.
Malleson, Col. G. B. Lord Clive. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Marcotte, Charles. Governments and Politicians, Ancient and Modern. Chicago: The Author. $2.
Martin, E. S. Windfalls of Observation. Scribners. $1.25.
Merriam, G. S. Noah Porter: A Memorial by Friends. Scribners. $2.
Merry, Rev. W. W. The Wasps of Aristophanes. Part I. Introduction and Text. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Montague, Prof. W. L. Modern Italian Readings. Boston: Schoenhof.
Müller, Prof. F. M. Three Lectures on the Science of Thought. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co, 25 cents.
Palmer, Lynde. A Question of Honor. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Peeps into Pictureland. Raphael Tuck & Sons. 75 cents.
Preece, W. H., and Stubbs, A. J. A Manual of Telephony. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $4.50.
Ray, Anna C. Margaret Davis, Tutor. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Repplier, Agnes. Essays in Idleness. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Roads, Rev. Charles. Little Children in the Church of Christ. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Romanes, G. J. An Examination of Weismannism. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. The Court of Louis XIV. Scribners. $1.25.
Sand, George. Episodes from François le Champi. Longmans, Green & Co. 40 cents.
Sanford, H. R. The Limited Speller. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 35 cents.
Sangster, Mrs. Margaret E. On the Road Home: Poems. Harpers. $1.25.
Scott, Sir Walter. Kenilworth. [Dryburgh Edition.] Macmillan. $1.25.
Smith, A. W. Thalassa, and Other Poems. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Smith, Goldwin, Bay Leaves: Translations from the Latin Poets. Macmillan. $1.25.
Spelling, T. C. A Treatise on Extraordinary Relief in Equity and at Law. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $11.
Spofford, Mrs. O. M. A Norse Romance. Putnams.
Sprague, H. H. A Brief History of the Massachusetts Charitable Fire Society. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.
Stallo, J. B. Reden, Abhandlungen und Briefe. E. Steiger & Co.
Stables, Gordon. Westward with Columbus. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Stephens, Thomas. Madoc: An Essay on the Discovery of America by Madoc ap Owen Gwynedd. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Sunny Tales for Snowy Days. Raphael Tuck & Sons $1.50.
The Economizer: How and Where to Find the Gems of the Fair. Rand, McNally & Co, 25 cents.
The Imitation of Christ. New ed. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
The King and the Kingdom: A Study of the Four Gospels. 3 vols. London: Williams & Norgate: New York: Putnams.
Tinseau, Leon de. In Norway. Brentanos. 25 cents.
Todhunter, Isaac, and Pearson, Karl. A History of the Theory of Elasticity and of the Strength of Materials. Vol. II., Parts I. and II. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $7.50.
Told by the Sunbeams and Me. Raphael Tuck & Sons. $2.
Trebutien, G. S. Journal of Eugénie de Guérin. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Vanamee, Lida O. An Adirondack Idyl. C. T. Dillingham & Co. 75 cents.
Wheatley, Louise K. Ashes of Roses. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Ziwet, Prof. Alexander. An Elementary Treatise on Theoretical Mechanics. Part I. Kinematics. Macmillan. $2.25.


OCTOBER

**EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.**

ARTICLES—Mental Defect and Disorder from the Teacher's Point of View, Josiah Royce; Different Methods of Admission to College, Lucy M. Salmon; Grammar School Physics, Edwin H. Hall; Recent School Legislation in the United States, William B. Shaw; A Foreigner's Impressions of the Chicago Educational Congresses, Gabriel Compayré; Educational Exhibits at the Columbian Exposition, Richard Waterman, Jr.
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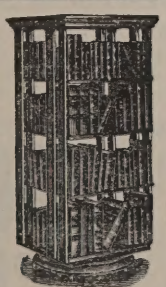

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 12, 1893.

## The Week.

THE Cincinnati *Enquirer* publishes an interview with Senator Sherman in which he expresses the opinion that, although the Silver Repeal bill has a decided majority in the Senate, it cannot be passed, and that it will be necessary to agree upon a compromise. The kind of compromise that he thinks could pass would be a reduction of silver purchases to 2,500,000 ounces per month, and the continuance of the same for three years. This would mean the payment of a bonus of about $65,200,000 to the silver mine-owners in order to get rid of the silver nightmare at the end of three years. The objections to this plan are exceedingly weighty, and are not wholly financial. It is doubtful, in the first place, whether such a compromise would relieve the tension in the business of the country. It would not do so without some visible means of strengthening the gold reserve in the Treasury, which is running down simply because its expenditures are greater than its receipts. Such a compromise would smash the Democratic party in the North; but naturally this would not be an objection in Senator Sherman's view. Such a compromise would not put an end to the contest over silver, but would merely intensify it and obscure other political issues. It would start a war against the Senate as a branch of government representing the rule of the minority, and would intensify and harden the contempt which the public now entertains for that body. It would put a stop to any legislation hereafter which should be very distasteful to as many as one-third of the members of the Senate, since their partisans throughout the country would insist that they should exhaust their powers before allowing an obnoxious measure to pass. This feeling would probably lead to a change in our form of government. The best thing to be done is to fight for unconditional repeal until the public sentiment of the country scares the anti-repealers into common decency.

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If anything were needed to prove the absurdity of compromise on a basis of further silver purchases for three years, the situation of the Federal Treasury would be enough. It was early in June, during the first stress of panic, that the Treasury's gold reserve reached its lowest figure. It sank then to $89,578,363. The country was then treated to the humiliating spectacle of the Secretary of the Treasury advertising, arguing, and pleading with bank presidents to lend the Government gold; for that was precisely the meaning of an exchange of bank gold for United States notes. The banks responded more liberally than might have been expected, and the gold reserve, thus replenished, rose slowly again to a point above the $100,000,000 mark. The gold imports, which, while paper money was hoarded, were speedily used in ordinary payments, helped along the movement, and by August 10 the reserve had reached $103,873,290. Like most of the sudden gains of that month, this expansion was artificial and temporary. With the slackening of the gold-import movement, the Treasury gold reserve began again to decrease. Last Saturday it practically touched the minimum figure of June. On Monday it fell $1,000,000 below that figure, nor is there any reason to believe that the decrease, in existing circumstances, will be stopped. If gold exports were to be resumed—which in all probability would happen if unconditional repeal should fail—the shrinkage would be rapid.

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In any case, unless confidence is very speedily restored through the Senate's vote, the loss can hardly fail to be continuous. Last year the heavy drain of gold for export purposes was partially made good by an active merchandise import trade. It was this which supplied the Treasury with currency on which to borrow bank gold in its time of need. To-day the whole Government revenue is under a paralysis. Customs and internal-tax receipts are smaller by two millions a week than in the corresponding weeks of 1892. Expenses are not diminished. Low as the Treasury stock of gold has run, the Government is forced to use that metal in its ordinary payments, and it has no longer other currency with which to purchase gold. Within two months the net available balance of all kinds of money has decreased $15,000,000. Within a week it has fallen $5,000,000. In the face of such conditions, the proposition to continue the disastrous drain of silver-bullion purchases is little short of madness. That some energetic measures will be necessary, in any case, to fill the Government's coffers, exhausted by the last administration's vicious legislation, is probably true. But it is hard to see what measures will suffice, if the nation's resources and credit are at once assailed by further persistence in the silver-purchase policy. With their good name once restored to the Treasury and the currency, means of relief will easily suggest themselves. Without such restoration, all that the Government can do will resemble only the frantic efforts of an embarrassed business concern to stave off bankruptcy.

One of the curious and memorable features of the obstruction in the Senate from which the country is now suffering is the obscurity and poor character of the leaders in it. Even if they were men of any political eminence or personal respectability in their respective communities, the public would be little disposed to put up, for any purpose whatever, with persistent attempts to prevent the will of the majority in a legislative body from being carried into effect. But one of the oddities of the present crisis is that they are not men of political or other eminence, and many of them are wanting even in personal respectability. Take the case of Senator Stewart, the head and front of the band. It is now seventeen years since he was shown by congressional investigation to be a dishonest lawyer and a conspirator in the Emma Mine case, which became famous in consequence of the connection with it of Gen. Schenck, then the American minister in London. The exposure then made of Stewart should, and would, in communities whose morality was better set, have driven him into obscurity. Among his constituents it probably had the effect of endearing him to them. He is now in the United States Senate, heaping gross personal abuse on the President, whose pardon, had he then got his due, he would be at this moment soliciting from the recesses of some state-prison, and not blocking legislation on the simple ground that it would be injurious to some of his own industrial enterprises.

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The Denver and Rio Grande Railroad is an enterprise in which a large amount of foreign money is understood to be invested, and it will need to obtain much more than can be furnished by the communities through which it runs before its development is completed. But the general counsel of this road (we believe) is Senator Wolcott of Colorado, who is also one of the directors, and he is perhaps the most audaciously defiant, of the desperate minority in the Senate. Is it probable that capitalists, either of the Eastern States or of Europe, will add to their investments in enterprises and communities thus represented? More than one-fifth of the revenue of this road last year came from the carriage of precious ores, but would it not be better to lose all this revenue than to lose credit? A poor man known to be inflexibly honest can borrow at a low rate of interest when a rich man of different reputation cannot borrow at all. Much the same is true of communities; but when a poor community not only needs to borrow but has got the name of dishonesty, its prospects are not good. Capital will avoid it, settlers will keep away from it, and pros-

perity will come to it only when the people who take pride in honorably fulfilling their obligations refuse to be dominated by the people who spend their time in ranting against the greed of capitalists.

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The evidence is overwhelming that there is almost no popular support in the South of the policy of obstruction to the repeal of the Silver Purchase act. Mississippi is a State which one would expect to show as much favor to such tactics as any, but the editor of the Greenville *Times*, after having "carefully and closely examined the State press," reports that, out of a total of 81 papers, 45 favor unconditional repeal, while only 18 oppose it; the remainder expressing no positive convictions. Moreover, the *Times* says that of the eighty-one "there are not six which do not favor a vote upon this question—which do not view with serious concern the effect of the revolutionary tactics adopted by the silver-State Senators backed by the cotton-State Senators." The Mobile *Register* recently made a similar canvass of the Alabama press, and found that, besides a few papers which are committed to the Populists, there are none that support the obstructive policy to which Senator Pugh has given his adhesion.

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The action of the Nebraska Democratic State convention on the financial question is full of significance and encouragement. Nebraska is a State where the Populists have been very strong, and Weaver came within about 5,000 votes of Harrison's poll last fall, drawing strength from both of the old parties, but especially the Democratic. Many of the Democratic managers have yielded to the craze, and favored making terms with the third party this year. Congressman Bryan, who has won a reputation as a brilliant speaker at Washington, cast in his lot with the free-coinage element when that question first came up, and he has been against repeal of the Sherman act at this session. He went home to attend last week's convention, confident that he could easily carry a majority with him in opposition to the President's position, but he found that in the atmosphere of Washington he had utterly misinterpreted the public sentiment of his State. The convention not only refused to follow his lead, but adopted resolutions fully endorsing the President's policy and declaring for the immediate repeal of the Sherman act. Mr. Bryan thereupon announced that he should join the Populists, and the Democrats are to be congratulated upon their loss.

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It will be a great surprise to the disciples of the Peffer-Stewart-Jones-Wolcott school of finance to learn from the Treasury statement for September that the per-capita circulation of the country has been increasing during the past month. Their theory is that the recent stringency was caused by the absorption of money by the gold-bugs, and that relief could come only by enlarging the circulation. Mr. Frank B. Tracy, in an article on the Populist party in the current number of the *Forum*, gives the following as their view of money as it was stated to him by "one of the ablest Populists in the West":

> "The money market is like the pork market in which John Cudahy lost his millions. Eastern financiers and gold-bugs are attempting to corner the money market, just as Mr. Cudahy attempted to corner the pork market. Mr. Cudahy failed because the supply of pork was beyond his estimation. Wall Street is succeeding because the supply of money is limited. We insist that the Government should increase the circulating medium to fifty dollars per capita and keep it there. As fast as the plutocrats gather in the money, the Government should issue more money until the money-corner is broken."

We have never been able to get from a Populist or cheap-money advocate a statement of the way in which a new issue of money could be got into the pockets of the people unless the people had something to sell for it. We should like to have them explain now how it is that the "plutocrats" are able to "gather in" all the money that the Government issues—how does it get into their pockets? And if it all flows there, what is the use of the Government trying to put the per capita at $50 and "keep it there"? The only result would be to burst the pockets of the plutocrats.

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The platform of the Saratoga convention very appropriately hitches the theft of the Senate to Maynard's candidacy, and puts both before the people of the State for approval. Its opening declaration congratulates the people on the fact that the Democrats had a majority in both branches of the Legislature last year, and following this comes a long and very cheap stump speech upon the alleged public benefits which that majority conferred upon the people. As everybody knows that the majority in the Senate was secured by theft, this arrangement of the platform puts that issue first in the canvass, side by side with the candidacy of the chief agent in the thievery. It was a characteristic bit of machine insolence to reverse the usual order and put all reference to national politics in the second place. The ticket is made up in the same way. The opposition in the party was directed mainly against Maynard, and the only basis for "harmony" that ought to have been accepted was the withdrawal of Maynard. Instead of this, he was put at the head of the ticket, and two anti-machine men of very complacent political disposition were put on below him. The arrangement may please the persons who acquiesced in it, but it will not please many others, least of all the thousands of Democratic voters who have made up their minds not to vote for Maynard.

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What the Saratoga platform says upon the silver-repeal question is direct and forcible, and was the only thing that any political party in this State with ordinary sagacity could say at the present time. There is only one opinion held in the State, and that is represented by the demand of the platform for the "speedy and unconditional repeal of the law's obnoxious and injurious provisions." Before the election comes around the repeal ought to be an accomplished fact, but, whether it is or not, the main questions before the people of this State will be the election of a criminal to the bench of their highest court, and the approval by the people of the theft by Maynard and his associates of a seat in the State Senate by which the Democrats secured a majority. No amount of "sops" to anti-snappers, and no amount of carefully worded support of the Cleveland administration in the platform, will avail to blind the voters to this fact.

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The Senate committee on foreign relations has made a favorable report on the nomination of Van Alen as ambassador to Italy, on the ground that no reasons were known for rejecting him, his fitness for the place being conceded, and there being no evidence of any bargain when he paid his money into the campaign fund. Every rich man not in public life who has a desire for office will, of course, take notice of the senatorial opinion that for a cash contribution, if there is no bargain, or none that the parties to it will acknowledge, there is no objection to the delivery of the office *for and in consideration of the money.* We say for and in consideration of the money because Mr. Van Alen never was in public life at all; never held so much as a seat in a State Legislature; was never voted for and never took part in any kind of political campaign; never wrote a political article for any magazine or newspaper; never made a political speech; was never heard of in any political capacity whatever until he was nominated as ambassador to Italy. Therefore the office must have been given for and in consideration of money. The Senate may share in the ignominy of this transaction, but it cannot lessen it by confirming him.

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Several newspapers, and among them the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, have improved the occasion of the appointment of Van Alen as ambassador to Italy to recommend the raising of the salaries of our ambassadors, so that there will be no excuse for appointing rich men to those positions merely be-

cause they are rich. There is one defect in this argument. There is no clause in the Constitution which requires an ambassador to spend all of his salary during the year for which it is appropriated. Some of them might be like the wife of John Gilpin, of whom it was said that,

> "——though on pleasure she was bent,
> She had a frugal mind"

It would not help us very much in the esteem of foreigners to enact that the ambassador to England, for example, should have $40,000 per year provided he would spend the whole of it. Moreover, such a proviso would not be self-executing. It would be necessary to charge some officer of the Treasury with the duty of seeing that he did spend it. If we should couple with the appropriation a requirement that the ambassador should spend the full amount of his salary, questions would arise eventually as to his method of spending it. If the pay were given on such conditions, the public would have rights in the matter, and among others the right to know what the money was spent for, and we may be sure that the newspaper reporters would not lose sight of these rights. Whichever way we turn, our embassies take on a ridiculous air. In Europe, from time immemorial, the "balance of power" has been the great question of nations, and is as great today as ever. Embassies exist in order to gain or keep influence at court. The governing classes are to be conciliated and kept in good humor, by all possible means, among which good cheer and a liberal expenditure of money always count largely. We have no such motive for spending money. The "balance of power" is nothing to us. A salary corresponding to those paid by European powers to their ambassadors, with a requirement that it be spent, would have no aim except imitation. We should ape their manners without their *raison d'être*.

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Mr. Quincy, who for some years had figured as a prominent civil-service reformer in Boston, but has lately been distributing consulships on the old spoils system in Washington, was called sharply to account by Mr. Moorfield Storey at the dinner of the Massachusetts Reform Club on Saturday, and made his explanation. The reason why he has distributed the consulships as spoils is, that there is no law to prohibit his doing so, and as long as this is the case, he must let Congressmen have their way with them. This "is an unfortunate fact," he says, but it is a fact. It is also a remarkable fact, but a fact, that the men whom the Congressmen wanted appointed were always fit for the places, so that the appointments have been good, owing, of course, to the wisdom and self-denial of the Congressmen. He has given a great many consulships to editors of country newspapers. Why was this? Because the editors had supported the Democratic candidate? Perish the thought. It was because "they had lived and travelled abroad and were generally men of wide information, who took a great interest in the development of the commercial interests of the United States in foreign countries, and were in every way fitted for the consular service." There was hardly an original word in Mr. Quincy's speech, as we have seen it reported in the Boston *Herald*. His defence of his proceedings is the old one by which every attack on the abuses of the civil service has been met during the past thirty years by the spoilsmen. No point in it is so familiar as the impossibility of appointments for merit, under "our system of government." "Our system of government" has, somehow, according to Mr. Quincy's school of politicians, a chemical affinity for abuses of all kinds, including, according to the silver men, a debased currency. We cannot have good money, or good consuls, or anything first-rate, because, somehow, "the system" forbids it. His reasons for corrupting the newspaper press hardly call for comment. They do not seem to have caused merriment at the dinner, but that they have certainly been received with peals of laughter in all the newspaper offices of the country we are quite sure.

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There is food for reflection in the failure of a fashionable church on a fashionable avenue in this city to make itself, after trying the experiment for two years, a "people's church." There was no lack of talent or enthusiasm or money on the part of those undertaking the movement; but the attempt to restore on Madison Avenue the idea of a church which St. James had, where the rich and poor would sit together, is now confessed to have been thoroughly unsuccessful. Mixing oil and water is as easy as mixing the classes in New York churches. The poor themselves do not want to go to the same church with the rich, and the rich do not really want them to come. This is simply the weak side of what is, on the whole, the greatest advantage of the church in this city—its social prestige. With that a true people's church is incompatible, inasmuch as it would mean a mixing of rich and poor on weekdays as well as Sundays, and in each other's homes as well as in the sanctuary.

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M. Zola was received with effusive enthusiasm in London, whither he went to read a paper on "Anonymity in the Press" before the Institute of Journalists. This was the more surprising inasmuch as, while she was embracing the writer, England was at the same time sending a publisher to jail for bringing out a translation of his works. The novelist's address itself was decidedly eclectic, practically urging unsigned political articles and criticism for those who liked that sort of thing, and the signed article or critique for those who preferred the thing that way. We observe, by the by, that he has been picked up pretty sharply by some French writers for having blundered in describing French practice, one critic remarking, in view of certain specified mistakes, that it was somewhat startling to find the father of "the human document" so poorly documented. But this is a charge which has been brought with no little justice against his most boasted realism in his novels, a writer in the *Athenæum* going so far as to assert lately that Zola would be known to future criticism as the most romantic of the romanticists, his world being as purely one of the imagination as theirs, the only difference being that his was filthily imagined.

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A diversity of view, not without its amusing features, has sprung up among Paris artists over the question whether they ought to send paintings to the Vienna Exposition next March. The question is not so simple as it might seem. One cannot be too careful in such matters. Suppose your sending a canvas to Vienna should be taken as an endorsement of the Triple Alliance? Are you prepared to strengthen the enemies of your country in that way? Should you not rather seize with avidity upon this opportunity to make a grand demonstration and protest against the Triple Alliance? Those are the queries which are going the rounds of the Parisian ateliers, and not a few of the men who mix their paints with patriotism have declared that they are not going to play into the hands of Humbert and Joseph and William in any such treasonable fashion. The affair has become a question of the day, and reporters have been sent out to interview the better-known artists. Benjamin Constant was disposed to take a flippant view of the case, and asked the reporter: "When an Englishman desires me to paint his portrait, am I to gnash my teeth and growl out, 'Remember Egypt! Think of Madagascar!' and drive him out of my studio?" And even M. Detaille was so lost to true love of country as to suggest: "Those among us who have the patriotic fever would do much better to send to Vienna some *chef-d'œuvre* which would win a tremendous victory for French art." But such opinions as these do not move the resolute painters who are determined to cultivate art for politics' sake, and who will not send a single canvas to Vienna so long as they can get more *réclame* and orders in Paris by abstaining.

*THE SENATORIAL "TUG OF WAR."*

THE minority in the Senate, as we go to press, is entering on the process of obstruction pure and simple. Mr. Voorhees's demand for a continuous session until a vote on the repeal bill is taken means that the Senate, "the most august body in the world," as one of its members recently called it, will endeavor, at the close of two months' deliberation, to reach a decision on a most important public question by a trial of physical strength. That is to say, a most important problem in the national finances will be solved by ascertaining which of two small bodies of elderly men can go longest without sleep and without taking off their clothes. Another mode of reaching the same result, and one fully as likely to prove satisfactory, would be what athletes call the "tug of war"—that is, hauling on a rope in opposite directions by the contending parties. Under this process, if Mr. Voorhees and the majority succeeded in pulling Mr. Stewart and the minority over a chalked line on the floor, the repeal bill would pass. On the other hand, if Mr. Stewart and his men succeeded in pulling Mr. Voorhees and his men over the line, the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver per month would continue.

The superiority of this to "the continuous-session" plan must be plain to the meanest capacity. It would, in the first place, be a very speedy process. The result could be reached in half an hour, whereas the continuous-session struggle may last for ten days. In the second place, it would be very much less injurious to the health of the Senators. The wear and tear of sleepless nights and irregular meals on elderly men will of course be very great. It may carry some of them to their graves. The "tug of war," on the other hand, could hurt none but those with weak hearts, and they could be excluded by a careful examination by the Senate's physician. But, no matter which process is resorted to, we venture to say the spectacle of a decision in financial policy reached in this way by the most famous second chamber in the world will be a heavy blow to constitution-makers all over the earth. When they see Voorhees and Stewart trying to starve each other out on a currency question, their brains will reel.

The United States Senate is the prototype of all the artificial upper houses in the modern world, and indeed may be said to be the lineal descendant of the Roman Senate. It was intended by the founders of the Constitution to be what the Roman Senate was in its best days; that is, an assembly of distinguished "exes," if we may use the expression—ex-governors, ex-judges, ex-generals, and so forth; of men who had served with distinction in inferior positions, and would bring to its debates tested, as distinguished from probable or expected, character and judgment. All the other second chambers, at the close of the last century and beginning of this, were based on birth and wealth. The first one set up after the French Revolution—the Chamber of Peers under the Restoration—was an almost exact copy of the English House of Lords. Since its failure the American Senate has furnished the model for the new constitutions. Every parliamentary country except Germany and Austria has copied it within the present century, and, more than this, the arguments by which second chambers are defended are generally drawn from the 'Federalist.' In most of the essays and speeches which either advocate the creation of a senate or defend a chamber of peers against popular reproach, the lower house usually appears as a passionate, tumultuous, headstrong body, which may at any moment rush into the wildest excesses. The Senate, on the other hand, always appears sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought. The members are middle-aged men surrounded by honor, love, and obedience in their respective communities, and bringing to the consideration of public affairs the ripened judgment and experience of more or less illustrious careers in the arts, in arms, in commerce, and in jurisprudence. Such is the Senate of the poets, the literary men, the jurists, and the professors of political science.

The effect on these gentlemen of the approaching "tug of war" may be more readily imagined than described. When Stewart and his men go down, as they doubtless will, before the superior physical vigor of Voorhees and his men, the effect on modern second chambers will be hardly inferior to that on the Roman Senate of Cæsar's arrival in Rome after Pompey's flight. The senatorial dignity, not to say majesty, cannot survive "the tug of war." People will say that if such a body has to reach a vote on the gravest of measures through a trial of physical endurance—that is, through a process for which Italian or Irish laborers at $1.25 a day are fully as competent as the hardiest silver-man now in the Senate—they will not care to go to the expense and trouble of a Senate very much longer. A deliberative body in which, under its own rules, the minority cannot be made to vote without reducing them to a state of physical exhaustion, as with chloroform or cocaine, is an absurdity which the modern world will not tolerate or imitate very long. It can get that sort of legislation done for much less than $5,000 a year.

*THE ETHICS OF CAMPAIGN FUNDS.*

WE have received several communications apropos of the Van Alen affair, asking whether we mean to take the ground that the contribution of money to a campaign fund ought to disqualify a man for office in case his party is victorious at the election. If so, say the writers, it would in England shut out a man like Lord Rosebery or Arnold Morley, both heavy contributors to the electioneering expenses, and in this country men like the late Samuel J. Tilden, or Abram S. Hewitt, or the late Hamilton Fish. These men, having plenty of money, gave freely and properly to the legitimate expenses of a party canvass, and no party canvass can be conducted without great outlay. The work of organization in modern democratic states—of "bringing out the vote," as we call it—is necessarily expensive, and the cost must be, and always largely will be, borne by the rich men of the party. Are such men to be deprived of the right to hold office, therefore, simply because they are rich, and are greatly interested in politics, and have aided in a perfectly legitimate manner in winning the party victory?

It seems at first sight as if this raised a difficult question, but the practice both of England and America shows the question to be a very simple one and easily answered. In truth, the English mode of producing candidates for high office leaves no room for it in that country whatever. In the first place, there are in the diplomatic and consular service no places to be bestowed in return for electioneering services of any kind. Both are regularly organized, like the army or navy, in which men hold their offices during good behavior, are promoted through seniority or for special service, and are expected to possess a proper equipment for their particular posts in the matter of language and experience.

Every now and then, however, a man who is not in the regular diplomatic service gets a great embassy, like that of Paris, or Rome, or Constantinople, because of special fitness for some extraordinary crisis. Lord Dufferin is a conspicuous example of this, but we can recall no case when such a distinction was conferred on a very rich man, or on any man for activity in home politics. There thus remain only places in the cabinet to be given in return for "heavy checks." But in the first place, if any English minister were fool enough to load himself with incompetent rich men in the cabinet, as they would have to maintain themselves in the House of Commons, their obscurity and want of debating capacity would cover him with ridicule and drive him out of office in a few weeks.

In the second place, English practice ever since 1688 requires candidates for high office to have served an apprenticeship either in Parliament or in subordinate offices, and to have become known to the country in one or other of these places. So that when a minister comes to make up his cabinet, the possible men are designated for him by a process of selection which has been going on for years, and out of this cir-

cle he cannot travel. Mr. Gladstone, for instance, could no more go to a dry-goods store in Regent Street and take Marshall or Snellgrove for the Postmaster-Generalship, because either of them had made a handsome contribution to the Liberal chest, than he could sell the furniture in his official residence in Downing Street and pocket the proceeds. In other words, the Wanamaker transaction, or any transaction like it, would be impossible in England. A man in English politics may be rich, very rich, and give freely to the party treasury, but in order to get high office he must be something else than rich, and must have made himself known to the public, as well as to the ministers, by the display of some kind of talent or acquirement. To take three or four of the most recent entries into official life: Balfour had been fifteen years in the House of Commons before he became Irish Secretary; Chamberlain had been the leader of the Radical wing of the Liberals in the Midland counties for twelve years, and had won great distinction as a municipal reformer in Birmingham and served in one Parliament; Bryce had sat twelve years in Parliament, and become famous as an author and professor of law; and Asquith had achieved high distinction at the bar and served in one Parliament—before obtaining seats in the cabinet.

The process of selection with us is by no means either so elaborate or so sure, but it is sure enough to make it quite easy to avoid mistakes. In each party there are enough men marked out for high places by other signs than wealth to prevent any misapprehension as to the reason for appointing them, no matter what their contributions to the campaign fund may have been. If the late James Russell Lowell had given $100,000 to aid in electing President Hayes in 1876, his appointment to the Spanish mission would nevertheless have been universally recognized as fit and pure. The same thing might have been said in 1884 if the London mission had been given to George William Curtis. No gift could have disqualified Charles Francis Adams for the London mission in 1861. Neither Samuel J. Tilden nor Abram S. Hewitt could have unfitted himself for the Treasury Department by any donation, however large. It is true, we freely allow the selection of obscure men for high places every now and then, because of local party service, or some special personal relation to the President, but it may be said to be an unwritten popular requirement that such appointees shall be poor or in moderate circumstances. Much tolerance as there is for venality of one sort or another, the American people are not prepared to allow obscure wealthy men to be popped suddenly into high offices of state, because they will never believe that a rich man of whom they have never heard before, got his place without paying for it. This natural and valuable popular distrust must be taken into account by all Presidents. It is the salt of public life. It may be the salvation of the republic. It is not enough that there are other reasons than his wealth for making a man a cabinet officer or an ambassador. They must be patent reasons, reasons that the humblest voter can see and understand.

## *THE FEDERAL ELECTION LAW.*

THE discussion of the Federal Election law and its proposed repeal, which has been in progress for some three weeks, has attracted little attention, either in the House of Representatives or in the country at large. Few people in Washington have cared enough about the speeches to hear them, and the newspapers have but reflected popular indifference in the scant space given to the reports. It is safe to say that no supposably important measure has come before Congress for a long time about which the people seemed to care so little.

One reason for this popular indifference is the fact that the question of repealing the law was practically settled last year. The long controversy over the Force bill during the Harrison administration was virtually a contest as to whether the attempt to regulate elections through the exercise of the federal power should be abandoned, or pushed further than had before been attempted. It was universally felt last year that, if the Democrats should win, they would repeal the law. They did win by a great majority, and since then everybody has taken its repeal for granted.

Such support as the existing statutes on the subject receive is largely perfunctory. Every candid Republican admits that the law has utterly failed to accomplish what was expected of it. It was advocated originally on the ground that it would secure "a free election and a fair count" at the South, which would mean Republican majorities, largely composed of negroes, in more than half of the congressional districts in that part of the country. The system has been tried for more than twenty years, and there is not a Republican from a single district having a large negro population, with the single exception of one from South Carolina. In other words, it has been just as practicable to keep the blacks from voting or to miscount their votes with a federal election law as without one. To advocate its retention on the ground that it does any good in that section is therefore absurd.

The system has been equally worthless in the North. The perfection of its application has been seen in New York city under "Johnny" Davenport, who used it simply as a means of paying a lot of political "strikers" out of the Treasury at Washington for alleged help to the Republican party. As a matter of fact, these strikers only hurt the party by disgusting fair-minded men with an organization which resorted to such methods. The utter uselessness of the law as a partisan device was demonstrated last November, when in the face of it there was rolled up in this city an enormous Democratic majority. Of course it would be absurd to discuss it in any other than its partisan aspect here, where Davenport is so well known, because the idea of getting any assistance towards honest elections from him is preposterous.

The theory of the system is radically wrong. This theory was that the way to secure fair elections in any State was, not through the governmental methods of that State, but through the interference of federal authority. Elections will be honest or dishonest according as the people of a community will to have them. It is with elections as with other things—public order, for example. Indiana has for years suffered from "whitecaps," and Mississippi is now terribly ravaged by such bands of outlaws. Such lawlessness will go on until the people of those States make up their minds to suppress it. If there were any way by which an excuse could be found for the interposition of the Federal Government through its courts, the cure could not be wrought through them, because courts, whether federal or State, depend for their efficiency upon popular sentiment, and when that sentiment is lacking in a State, such criminals will go unpunished. That has been the trouble with the Federal Election law in every Southern State—there has been so little support of it on the part of the people that juries could not be got to convict offenders against it.

Progress has been making towards fairer elections of late years, both North and South, but it has not been through the federal authorities. In every case it has been because the people of a State became convinced of its necessity, and ordained it through State laws. Anybody familiar with the spirit of our institutions might have predicted in advance that the experiment would have worked precisely as it has done. So, too, might any one who has studied our political history have informed the Republican managers that "Johnny" Davenports would do the party far more harm than good. It seems to be regarded as necessary, for consistency's sake, by most Republicans in Congress and in the press to "make a howl" over the proposed repeal of the Federal Election law, but there is little sincerity in the outcry, and a great many members of the party will be glad to get rid of a system which has been tried in the balance and found wanting.

## *INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES.*

THE example set at Paris in 1889 has been duly followed at Chicago, and a series of "congresses" on all sorts of sub-

jects has been one of the features of the World's Fair. But the number and prominence of such assemblages at international expositions only accentuate the tendency towards holding them, which has been distinctly on the increase during the past few years. Scarcely a topic of large scientific or philanthropic interest can be mentioned which has not had, or is not planning to have, its international congress. Whether due or not to a growing sentiment of cosmopolitanism, or to the desire of investigators and reformers to adopt something of the comparative method, the fact must have fallen under the observation of everybody.

It must be admitted that too often these international congresses have had their ludicrous aspects. In allusion to them, a French writer recently defined an international congress as a gathering where the speakers or essayists rarely understood each other, and never succeeded in making themselves understood, though the members would nevertheless separate in a state of mutual complacency and good-will, conscious of having worthily played a great rôle, proud of having touched elbows with official personages, and joyful at the sight of their names in the newspapers. Such results are, indeed, inevitable to a greater or less extent when diversity of language is added to difficulty of subject. How the thing worked in one case is wittily described by the Frenchman mentioned, M. Édouard Rod, when he tells of his own experiences at a Peace Congress held at Berne a few years ago. First they had some general and eloquent remarks on the horrors of war and the blessings of peace, and then they took up the practical question of "neutralizing" various countries so as to withdraw them from the possible range of a "general war in Europe." Egypt was satisfactorily neutralized by acclamation, and Tunis by resolution. So was Rumania by a good majority, and Norway and Sweden by a close vote. After that, affairs grew critical, and the Peace Congress was in danger of becoming a general scrimmage, being saved from such a painful ending only by a strategic motion to adjourn for one year, until public sentiment should have had time to "ripen."

It is evident that the subject under discussion has a great deal to do with the success or failure, the dignity or absurdity, of international congresses. Where the gathering is simply one of workers in a broad field of scientific inquiry, who come together to compare notes and to block out work for the future, there is no difficulty, and the published proceedings are often of great value. The Congress of Americanists, or international medical congresses, are instances in point. In these a certain amount of special knowledge is necessary to secure membership and a hearing, and the very need of sticking to a body of ascertained fact cuts down the theorizers and discourages faddists. But as soon as we approach questions of social reform, the case at once alters. Benevolence is then made the equivalent of competence as a basis for an invitation to "read a paper," and performers on wind instruments are apt to abound.

When an international congress takes up what may fairly be called "an open question," it is as good as settled that its proceedings will be futile. If the management is fair, and gives both sides a hearing, the result will be very much like a drawn battle. If it is partial and prejudiced, and arranges for speakers on only one side of the case, as was done at the World's Temperance Congress at Chicago, all the opinions are discounted and discredited from the start. Moreover, in either case, it is almost impossible to get a man to read a paper on an open question who will be willing to treat it as open. The reason he is ready to read is, that he thinks he has closed the question, and that he can close it for his hearers, and finally for the whole world, if only he is given a chance. Hence, we almost surely get intemperate and positive assertion, instead of cautious discussion, and the only question that will appear to the dispassionate observer to be closed is the question of the futility of such exhibitions. This is particularly true when men who, for years, have been compelled to discuss their favorite projects for reforming the race within the circle of their luckless friends and neighbors, at last get a foothold on an international platform, and let loose on all mankind their plans for forming a World's Society for Badgering the Poor, or an International Congress of Parents to emphasize the importance of training children.

Another common failing of international congresses arises from their tacit assumption of legislative powers. They forget that their legitimate function is to appeal to and to educate public opinion, and they go ahead with their solemn resolves and acts as if a new Amphictyonic Council making laws for the whole world. But reform by resolution is really no more impressive on an international than on a local scale. The abuse of alcohol is just as apt to be ended by a series of thirteen whereases and a score of resolveds in a county temperance convention in Rhode Island, as it is in a World's Temperance Congress at Chicago. In short, it is clear that the true function of international congresses, called to debate unsolved and perhaps insoluble problems, is that of intelligent and all-sided discussion, with the aim of stimulating inquiry and experiment and influencing public opinion, and not at all that of acting as lawgivers for the whole human race.

## THE SOUTHERN FARM SINCE THE CIVIL WAR.

CLARK'S HILL, S. C., September, 1893.

THE changes wrought in the South by Mr. Lincoln's proclamation of emancipation were enormous and far-reaching. To a native returning here after some years' absence they appear more clearly than to one who has remained on the spot all the time. The locality from which I write is in that broad band of hill country, gradually sloping towards the Atlantic, neither mountainous nor level, lying between the Appalachian chain and the sandy belt along the coast. It is a strip about five miles wide in the western part of South Carolina, with the Savannah River on one side and a creek on the other. The plantations here in the days of slavery averaged about a thousand acres and fifty to sixty negroes. All the conditions make this place and the surrounding district fairly typical of the large undulating region in which it lies.

In this broken country, water has been man's chief enemy, for outside of the "low grounds" along both streams there is hardly a level acre to be found. The most shiftless system of agriculture the world has ever seen has been practised here since the first "new grounds" were cleared. In no instance was any attempt made to prevent washing, and in many cases gullies were deliberately courted by laying off cotton and corn-rows up and down the hill-side. To replace the seamed and gashed fields, the axe would ring nearly all the winter, and a new "patch" would be prepared for the plough. This reckless squandering of mother earth's gifts destroyed perhaps half of the arable surface by 1865.

For the first year or so after that era the negro remained with his former slave-master and worked the old land on shares, furnishing the labor only and receiving one-third to one-half of the gross product. Afterwards the black seemed frenzied to break away from all his previous humiliating associations. A wholesale spirit of swapping bosses came over him, and wagonloads of household stuff passed from "quarter" to "quarter." He next wanted to become a renter, though with few exceptions he had nothing besides his "naked human strength." The landowner had to credit him, without security, for stock, seed, food, implements. The universal custom was to charge two bales of cotton—about 800 pounds lint—for a one-mule farm. More fresh land was wanted, and the black agreed to fell the forests on condition of using the ground rent free for two crops. Under this stimulus, the dark woods soon gave way before their keen-edged enemy. With the folly of their fathers, the planters put forth no effort to save their land. Rotation, even if thought of, was practically impossible with the negro so determined to make cotton; manuring has never been tried to the present day. With a clean-culture crop like cotton on the hills, season after season, the fierce showers of summer soon justified the colloquial expression, "No man here has a title to his land."

The conclusion of such careless methods was plain and the end not far. The soil being gone, the negro had to go too. Generally he went in the same direction that the cause of his departure had gone—down stream towards the ocean, and farther southward and westward to Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Large numbers went to the towns and villages lately sprung up in this belt. It is astonishing to see how mobile these people have become in a third of a century of free-

dom. Negroes who were never more than a few miles from home, and then only on Sundays with a pass, are now ready to go anywhere, and have as keen an eye for the main chance as the dominant race. From this agricultural community, which until a few years ago was twenty miles from the nearest railway, rough field hands and the descendants of field hands have drifted to New Orleans, Louisville, Washington, Baltimore, New York, and Boston. They have gone mostly as waiters, one or two going as ministers. In one respect they suffer from the same limitations that the whites do. Neither can make the change from the hill country to the sands without serious impairment of health, and many die in the acclimatizing process.

As a result of the destruction of the soil, the same land maintains fewer people than it did in slavery. It is impossible to get exact figures, but the best judges believe that only about three-fifths as many people live on this strip as lived here in former days. A few reliable data are fairly typical of the whole. On one plantation at the upper end about a hundred slaves dwelt; now it has about twenty-five or thirty negroes. Another, about the middle, had forty-one slaves; it now supports one family of about five. A third, alongside of this, which had forty, now has twenty-one. As might be expected, almost all the more intelligent of the blacks went from the farms. The picturesque plantation, that formed a little world-unit in itself, with its carpenter, wheelwright, blacksmith, mason, spinners, weavers, tailors, and shoemakers, has disappeared. Scarcely a negro artisan is to be found in this locality. On the other hand, the whites have increased slightly.

While this movement has gone on in the population, significant changes have taken place in the conduct and condition of those remaining. Emancipation was a revolution in the life of both white and black, but, if one may base a conclusion on narrow limits, the negro has stood the test better than his former owner. The circumstances of old slave-owners (at least those who counted many slaves), as a class, have decidedly not improved. They have seen their lands torn by rains and eaten up by claims. They often go on foot where they used to ride in carriages. Their table is supplied with less quantity, but probably greater variety, than of old, though "hog and hominy" is still the chief diet. "Store-clothes" have replaced home-spun. Not so many of the boys go to college. Sermons are still heard once a month, shorter and more moderate and not so theological. Unable to accommodate himself to the new order, and with debts hanging over him, the course of the old slavocrat is painful and halting. To add to his perplexities, some of his sons have caught the urban fever, and others have ceased to look to the farm for a living. Of some twenty young men grown up in this neighborhood in the past ten years, only six have become farmers.

While his master has been struggling to hold his own, the black has bounded forward. Cast forth a child, with scarcely more than clothes on his back, he had to combat the bitter prejudice of the whites against his elevation. I can remember when a sneer greeted the report that a negro was trying to learn to read, when there was a feeling of hot resentment at his purchase of a horse or cow, while a mob might have been gathered to prevent him from buying land among white neighbors. Now nearly every family has a cow, and many of them a horse, while there are three farms owned by negroes, and land is as readily sold to them as to any one.

With this gathering of property have come more wants, greater variety in dress, more dishes for the palate, better churches, education, travelling. The black pinches to get a ready-made suit once a year or so. Flour has largely replaced corn-meal on his table. For a few years after 1865 he did as the Druids of old did—built up a leafy bower in the forest and lifted up his voice in worship. This was replaced by a rude board shelter with log seats. Now the blacks have just completed a large, commodious frame house, well supplied with benches, glazed windows, and a gallery.

Their passion for learning is well known, but the earnest, noble efforts of this poverty-stricken people for education can never be too highly appreciated. The religious feeling has worked in this direction among them as it has among the whites. The negroes of this locality are Baptists, and an organization of this church, the Union, composed of some ten churches, has undertaken to provide a good "macademy," as so many of them call an academy. A farm of 140 acres, with a fine school site centrally located, has been bargained for, and the school will open next year under competent teachers. The farm will be divided into smaller lots, to be sold or rented, in order to raise revenue for the school.

With the construction of the railway about a decade since, the blacks here could more easily indulge their fancy for seeing something of the world. They pack excursion trains to Augusta, the nearest large city, twenty-five miles away; more adventurous spirits go much further and spend a large part of their earnings in this way. One of the simplest-minded negroes I ever knew has bloomed into a local Marco Polo, and can tell great tales about the high mountains, the broad ocean, about tobacco farms in North Carolina, rice plantations near Charleston, and orange groves in Florida. In spite of the great sacrifice necessary to keep his two sons, Robert Henry George Washington and Solomon Grundy, at school, he says, "I'se got to set out every other year and trabble somewhar."

With this development and multiplication of the negro's wants there could be no decline in efficiency, and it is gratifying to know that no one believes that he has lost in value as a laborer, while many hold he has improved—and this in spite of the almost universal fear, after Lee's surrender, that the blacks would be worthless as soon as all the "old black whip niggers" had died off. It is still more pleasant and still more surprising to learn that many experienced observers say that the black is more prompt in paying his debts than the white, and all say he is equally good. But all this material advance has more sharply defined social grades. In a very small and select circle aristocracy is distinguished by ownership of land, but it is generally marked by possession of an animal, either horse, mule, cow, or jackass. There is as much talk among blacks as among whites about marrying for money. It is more amusing, because louder and less concealed, and because the amount of wealth involved is smaller. A young girl has made an extra-fine catch if her husband has a horse, cow, and pig. Just as with their blue-blooded brethren everywhere, those who ride to church are far above those who walk. This pride especially aroused my attention the first Sunday morning after I returned home. I sat on the front piazza to watch the streams of colored worshippers go walking by to their devotions as in years long past. They went in considerable numbers, but on horseback and in buggies, with a small percentage on foot. Along with this growth of family pride has come the desire to preserve the memory of the dead. Only a few are able to afford such a luxury, and the churchyard here, containing a hundred or more graves, has only two or three small marble headstones, and these have been set up in the last ten years.

The plant of civilization must needs be disfigured with excrescences. Up to fifteen years ago, tramps of any sort were unknown. Now, whites go by, at some seasons, daily, and gangs of colored wandering beggars have also begun. Usually such negroes are willing to work on odd jobs *only*. It is probable that these vagrant bands furnish the wretched victims for the horrible lynchings described with so much detail in the local papers. The problem of house-servants has also arisen down here. The domestics trained in slavery have all either died or scornfully left the boss's house. The fat old colored mammy that presided with such severity in the kitchen is now only a reminiscence. It is difficult to get a negro for such personal service at all, and none but the rawest, gawkiest girls can be obtained. The price paid may have something to do with this: an average girl gets only $20 a year. The women work in the field if the crop belongs to the family; otherwise they hardly work at all, as they will not hire.

While the negro has been slowly improving in his habits and ways of life, there has been also a gradual advance in the financial system among the farmers. Those of this neighborhood have been one year behind, and the returns from each year's crop have always been spent before harvest time. At first the merchant furnished the food and implements, charging a time price which was from 25 to 100 per cent. above the cash price. With the borrower at his mercy, the dealer paid no attention to either time element or interest rate in fixing his terms. The farmer in turn used his credit as capital and made it the basis for a still more advanced price, and the negro in most cases paid double for all he got. As supplies were procured at different times, it required a skilled accountant to tell what rate of interest either white or black paid. There was no hope of getting out of this mire until more money was available in this section. This came when the cotton factor could furnish money at a stated charge, he himself looking to the banks. Of late years, however, with the establishment of a few local banks, some farmers in the surrounding district have been enabled to apply directly to them, with a consequent lowering of their interest rate to about 10 or 12 per cent. Relief has also come in a corresponding way, though not so fully, to the negro renter. Until within a few years, each one had to look to the owner of his land for all credit. In this locality, as in many others, a few farmers have accumulated a sufficiency to become capitalists to some trustworthy negroes. The interest is high, from 20 to 75 per cent., but the ignorant fellow knows exactly what he has to pay, and there is no chance for nimble white fingers to "figure up" a big account. At one time hopes were high when the Land Loan Companies began to do business in the State, but the interest—20 per cent. and upwards, running over the entire year—was too heavy a burden, especially with the steady drop in cotton. Advantage was taken of the usury laws, and the companies have withdrawn from this section.

In another way capital has come to lighten the load on the farm. Steam has supplanted horse power in ginning the cotton. One engine releases the capital locked up in a dozen

houses and cumbrous outfits. But, of late, centralization has gone a step further. A large plant, in combination with an oil mill at a town twenty miles off, is driving to the wall a dozen or more rivals in a radius of ten miles. The farmer sells both lint and seed, and saves the haul home, or carries back commercial fertilizer. He has still, in all the hill country of the South, to face the problem of constant destruction of the soil by rain, and the crushing competition of the Mississippi bottoms and Texas prairies in the production of cotton—practically the only market crop in all this belt. The wearing force of water is a most serious menace to future prosperity. There are plantations here with 500 acres of gullies out of a total of 1,000 acres. Nature does her best at recuperation with the "old-field" pine (short-leaf variety), but even this sombre tree must labor for a millennium before covering up man's hideous butchery. It is almost sickening to see a broad, sloping hill which, fifteen years ago, made a bale of cotton to the acre, now a mesh of leaping torrents at every rain. Forestry is as little talked of here as an expedition to the moon, and yet no spot more needs something of the sort. The declivities have been denuded of vegetation, and the rich valleys are becoming useless for agriculture. When I was a boy, it was entirely safe to plant along the creek; now for the past three seasons the angry waters have deluged the growing corn. Terracing is being timidly tried, and on gradual slopes with success, but there must be more thrift and energy before the farmer here can carry this handicap in the race against the level lands.

The waste of soil, coupled with the decline in the price of cotton, is slowly forcing a change in farming, in the direction of greater diversity in production. In this immediate locality several have begun to raise fruit. A few miles away, some active men have started dairying, and drive weekly some fifteen or twenty miles across the country to sell butter in Augusta. Others raise stock horses, mules, beeves, and small flocks of sheep. Here and there a hennery has been set up on a limited scale. Nearly all produce more corn and meat than in former days. It is an open expression among a few, and silent conviction among the many, that King Cotton has passed his day of undisputed supremacy on hill farms. Under such conditions intelligence in studying the markets and energy of management will be on the side of the white; but whether these qualities will offset the black's toughness of fibre and power of abstinence can be decided only by time. One special class, the old slavocrats and their descendants, are additionally weighted by the slipshod habits and careless methods that have descended as a legacy to them from slavery. Brought up with broad, generous notions of life, it was only natural that they should try to keep up something of their former style. It was only incapacity of poor human foresight that led them into mortgages in hopes that a future rise in cotton would enable them to meet the demands. Reared in idleness, with untrained muscles and unpunctual ways, they neither wanted to work nor could endure steady manual effort, even if they had so desired. Their children have imbibed some of this spirit of leisurely dignity and have inherited some of this weakness of physical constitution. But the majority of the whites were not large slave-owners. By actual daily contact with the sun's rays, they have got hardened to the summer heat. Men of this class (and it is an extensive one) can stand the scorch and blister of the hottest spells side by side with the black. But neither in the days of slavery nor since have they been the influential class in thought, in industry, or in politics. It seems an open question whether a man can do hard manual labor, day after day, in this hot climate while still preserving that firm yet elastic spirit and fertility of resource so necessary for supremacy.

Still, no matter how low prices may fall, the thrifty farmer here can insure himself against want because he can raise nearly all he needs on his own land and with his own hands. Fruits, beef, mutton, poultry, dairy products, meal, vegetables—all these he can get in profusion by his own efforts. In fact, nearly everything for his table, except sugar, this soil will yield, though wheat is a rather uncertain crop, and its cheapness in the West has about killed its cultivation with us. Even a substitute for sugar can be found in the sorghum molasses rather abundantly produced for one or two years during the civil war. For implements and appliances of metal and for cloth (though the farmer can go back to primitive methods and make that) he must have a small money crop—four or five bales per family—which he can grow on half-a-dozen acres. Such a life would not be a full one or a liberal one, but it would be a comfortable one. Only laziness can bring a healthy land-owning family here anywhere near want. C. MERIWETHER.

## THE MASTER OF BALLIOL.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., October 6, 1893.

To old Oxford men the news of Jowett's death brings a peculiar sense of desolation. One by one the unique personalities are passing away from university life. Pusey has gone, and Green and Liddon and Freeman and Matthew Arnold; Ruskin is in distant seclusion. There remain in Oxford some great scholars and more able administrators; but where shall we look for men of that indefinable charm, that unceasing attractiveness repelling familiarity, which we felt in the Master of Balliol? Perhaps this is the old mistake of the *laudator temporis acti:* every fresh generation of undergraduates finds, let us hope, its own gods to worship; but to those who are no longer undergraduates, Oxford, in spite of all its material beauty, becomes more and more commonplace. And to a Balliol man the feeling of loss is incomparably more vivid. To us "the Jowler" *was* the college. Other colleges, Magdalen or New, might have noble buildings and lovely parks; in our austerity we thought them enervating. Other colleges might be "at the head of the river," and most of us did not greatly care; hat we considered appropriate enough for a college like Brasenose. What we prided ourselves upon was a real or imaginary intellectual preëminence, a mental alertness, a combination of old-fashioned scholarship with new-fashioned hospitality to ideas; and of these qualities the Master was to us the incarnation. Of course we were proud of our dons; we thought there were none like them. We enjoyed Nettleship's supposed inability to make up his indubitably keen mind; we caught fire from Toynbee's rapt enthusiasm; but these were but parts of the college, while Jowett summed up the whole. The men of other colleges doubtless often called us prigs, and our stories of "the Master" sometimes bored them; but that was what we felt.

Jowett's person was, like his mind, dainty. An irreverent writer once spoke of his face as of the tombstone-cherub order; and the phrase was descriptive. But cherubs too frequently have something gross in their chubbiness; and everything about the Master was delicate and fine. Perhaps it was his appearance which helped to create the affection which mingled with our awe and respect; he was the *Doctor Seraphicus* of the college. Yet we trembled when we had to go and see him, even at a breakfast party, to say nothing of less agreeable occasions. In his clear little staccato voice he could say such biting things. Many were the stories of breakfast parties with long silences, broken by the more adventurous, who suffered accordingly; of undergraduates taken for walks and left to make the conversation, with painful results to themselves. What was the explanation? we asked ourselves. Did the Master enjoy discomfiting the shallow with his rapier thrusts? or could it possibly be that, after all these years, he was still shy himself, and said what he did because he could not help it? Probably the last theory, if not complete, was the truer. And certainly the undergraduate or young graduate who had anything really to say, however contrary it might be to the Master's opinion, and was so interested in the subject that he forgot the mastership and spoke out freely, was sure to win Jowett's esteem. Such a conversation, which the young man when he came to his ordinary self thought of with wonder and a flushed face, was not seldom followed by an invitation to dinner.

On the first and fifth Sundays of each term the Master preached to us in the College chapel. Strange sermons they seemed to those accustomed to hear from the pulpit of the problems of faith and immortality and the soul. As a rule he gave us nothing but the truisms of wholesome living and kindly good fellowship: how that the older men should call upon the newcomers, and how mistaken were diffidence and introspection—like the old college sermon which he is said, when staying with his friend, Principal Shairp, to have preached to a congregation of Scotch fishwives, on the duty of small-talk. The connection between sermon and text was sometimes slight. Thus, on the text, "Man does not live by bread alone, but by every word that proceedeth out of the mouth" ("of God" being, he remarked, an unnecessary addition of some of the manuscripts), he preached every five or six years a discourse "on what our ancestors might have called 'The Governance of the Tongue,' but what I prefer to call 'The Art of Conversation.'" We admired the style; we were on the lookout for quaint turns of expression; we chuckled over glimpses of heterodoxy; but the wisdom of it was in large measure beyond our years. So far as we did understand it, some of us occasionally thought the wisdom was of the world—not meanly worldly, but worldly still. Let your object, he seemed to say, be distinction of some sort. Be a martyr, if you like, but a distinguished martyr. To us then he hardly seemed to have a gospel for the average man; and perhaps this impression was not altogether an unfair one.

It was this æsthetic appreciation of distinction which made Jowett welcome young earls to the college. We made jest of this, but none of us thought the Master a tuft-hunter. The penniless Scotchman with a reputation from Glasgow was just as welcome. The Master liked to think of the college as sending forth men who in various ways were to influence the world. Yet he could be very kind to the obscure. Meeting a young graduate making a living by "coaching" or private tuition, he asked him how he was getting on. He was told that there had been few pupils that term, and that the coach had been obliged to give up his hope of going to Germany in the vacation. A

few days later the coach was sent for, and given an envelope with the words: "I hope you will go to Germany; good-bye." Four years later the Master had quite forgotten he had ever drawn that check.

In all old members of the college who made the smallest mark for themselves in after life, the Master had an unfailing interest. Critics said that all his geese were swans. Whether swans or geese, they all received from him the same antique courtesy. When recovering from his last severe illness, he was able to spend part of his time in dictating letters to his secretary, and in one of these, to a former undergraduate who had sent him a book, it is touching to see the note appended to his signature in microscopic characters: "Excuse my writing to you by the hand of Miss K." In these type-writing days the painfully scribbled line is eloquent.

Hitherto I have been trying to give some impression of the place the Master occupied in the minds of the young men around him. This is hardly the time to attempt that broader view which would show what he has been to Oxford, to literature, and to speculation during the last half century. To the outside world he became known first as a heretic, as one of the authors of 'Essays and Reviews.' But he never became the active "leader" of a movement; he was content with his own belief, which was, apparently, an old-fashioned Deism, without striving to persuade the world that it was compatible with the Anglican formularies, though his own position implied it. In his latter years, at any rate, he took but little interest in technical theology. When he appealed to the public again, it was with his translation of Plato. It is a commonplace to say that Jowett made Plato an English classic, but it is true. There are many who could reëcho the remark made by a studious woman living away in the country and far from the babble about contemporary reputations: "I never enjoyed a book more than Jowett's translation of the *Republic;* it marks an epoch in my life." For no one ever succeeded in making the readers of Plato realize, as he did, the essential modernness of Greek thought.

But it was as a tutor, and afterwards as Master, of Balliol that Jowett made the deepest impression upon his time. I suppose it is true to say that to him is largely due the tutorial system in its present Oxford shape. That system is one, there can be no question, of enormous benefit to the ordinary student. Its defect is that it imposes all-devouring obligations on the tutor, and sacrifices to education the advancement of learning. It will break down ultimately of its own sheer weight: but it must be remembered that the worst excesses of the system are the growth of the last few years; and perhaps the Master hardly realized what a momentum the movement had acquired to which he had helped to give the initial impulse. To Balliol and Jowett, again, is largely due the excessive importance to-day of the honor examinations of the University. There is unquestionably a good deal that is unhealthy in the present stress of preparation for tests of various kinds which marks the life of a large number of the abler students at Oxford, especially among the poorer men. But the system may well have seemed the only practicable method, under English conditions, of securing for moneyless brains a fair chance in the University, and, through the University, in English society. The defects which we deplore alike in the tutorial system and in the examination system are, after all, the well-nigh unavoidable excesses associated with a reforming movement in the main salutary. W. J. A.

## IN THE BALEARIC ISLANDS.—V.

VALLDEMOSA, August, 1893.

THERE seem to be at times inadjustable differences between facts and feelings, for while we were convinced, on consulting the statistics of summer temperature for Mallorca, that the maximum given would be quite bearable, yet when our thermometer registered but 75 degrees, we found ourselves unaccountably uncomfortable in Palma. It was, perhaps, a foregone conclusion that, having fallen under the spell of Valldemosa, we should return, and, a "celda" being vacant in the Cartuja, retire within its walls. Its cool retreats, where mortification of the flesh must have been a none too easy task, consist of suites of large and lofty rooms opening on charming little gardens which overlook the valley. A vaulted corridor, over four hundred feet long, divides the chapel and cloisters on the right from the cells on the left, its grated windows framing lovely bits of this earthly paradise. Coming out from the chapel, where an elaborately inlaid reading-desk and the ingenious indicator, by means of which the silent brotherhood announced themselves, are mute reminders of the former occupants of the Cartuja, the merry voices of children riding their *borricos* down the long corridor, the easy chairs placed sociably together before the cell doors, through which we get glimpses of cosey tea-tables, give one a bewildered feeling of incongruity; and if by chance we see the gray-bearded, emaciated figure, clad in long brown cassock, that sometimes steals, ghost-like, along the corridor, it only serves to intensify this feeling.

One of the kings of Mallorca, finding that the pure air of Valldemosa gave him immunity from asthma, built a royal residence here. A later king, Don Martin, presented this palace, in 1399, to the Carthusian brothers, for whom he had a great affection. The growth of the community made enlargement necessary from time to time, and a great part of the picturesque irregular pile known as La Cartuja was built within this century. But, although much of the ancient monastery has been destroyed, and the encroachments of modern life have somewhat concealed its original character, there still remain sculptured walls, doorways, and windows, and half-obliterated frescoing to tell of former glories; while from the quaint old clock-tower, roofless and without dial, bells, grown rusty from long exposure, still note with hoarse tone the passing hours. The chemist's shop is tucked away in the same dark corner, in search of which George Sand used to stumble at night through the gloomy cloisters; and while the letters of the old inscription on the ceiling, *Non in verbis, sed in herbis, fac medicamentum*, have disappeared, its spirit remains in bunches of herbs drying in one of the old guest rooms, now used as a storeroom. Considering the ferment of feeling excited at the time of George Sand's residence here, it seems strange that the location of her cell should now be a matter of doubt. Then her presence in the Cartuja was considered a "desecration." Now the rivalry between the owners of the various cells reminds us of Homer dead. Diligent inquiry has resulted in no positive evidence as to its location, and when we question the old villagers, they slowly shake their heads and reply, "No sabe."

Fear of invasion in times past, and, later, the need of cultivating every inch of soil, have huddled the village houses close together, giving dark interiors, which make a fitting background for the old women with ugly, wrinkled, pleasant faces, sitting in their doorways with their distaffs. At this season the doorstone is the centre of family life, and serves as an open book from which to read the daily annals of these simple folk. Dark-eyed, youthful St. Johns look up at us with serious glance as we pass by, and sometimes we see a benignant-looking goat step over the threshold and stand, with almost human patience, suckling a brown-limbed baby rejoicing in the freedom of a single short garment. Early and late, as we go up and down the steep, narrow streets, we hear the intermittent droning of paternosters mingled with the various sounds of industry, for this is eminently a religious village, proud of having been the birthplace of the Beata Catalina, of miracle-working fame, to whose chapel, on a pine-crowned crag above the Cartuja, the pious resort for their evening devotions.

Descendants of the old Aragonese, these peasants maintain the sturdy self-respect that characterized their ancestors. We sometimes meet on the highways a day-laborer with as haughty a mien as any hidalgo, while the maidens have the noble bearing of the Frisian woman. On the day of our arrival three peasant women came to bid us welcome. They bore themselves with a rude dignity quite refreshing, and although their unfamiliar dialect, vociferated in harvest-field tones, threatened to prove an insurmountable barrier, mutual good-will and descriptive gestures soon established an understanding. A grave, ceremonious handshaking accompanied the leave-taking, and has since been repeated with the daily delivery of milk and bread. Even in the dance this gravity of deportment is not relaxed. On the occasion of a recent festival, we secured front seats, on a plank supported by candle-boxes, in the plaza, where pine knots, placed in iron frames fastened to tall poles, smoked and blazed and threw a lurid light over the scene. The maidens, in bright petticoats, low-cut black bodices, the sleeves fastened at the elbow with rows of gold buttons, tulle head-dresses, and heavy chains of gold around neck and waist, were invited to dance by the alcalde, or mayor. The partners, with eyes fixed upon the ground, advanced, retreated, circled round each other, but never came in contact. As sugared almonds were thrown over the heads of the most graceful, it required the alcalde's most official aspect to keep the children from rushing in pell-mell, but the moment the dancing ceased there was a mad scramble. This was the only note of hilarity in the whole performance. But the dance itself! The slow, measured movement of lifted arms and hands keeping time with the graceful swaying of the supple figures that seemed to float above the ground, the quickened step as a wild song rose above the rhythmic clicking of the castanets, skilfully used by the dancers, the lithe spring into the air, and, as the song abruptly ceased, the suddenly stiffened muscles of outstretched arm and pointed foot, as if touched by magic charm—all this needs a winged pen to describe.

The *predios*, or farm estates, tilted down the mountain slopes, or perched on bluffs commanding the sea, conceal unsuspected material for the artist. The cluster of buildings forms a small, isolated hamlet, picturesque in detail, each dwelling having an individuality of its own, several rising in massive towers which give a mediæval character to the whole. Here are giant olive-presses, dating back nearly three centuries, still in use; but he who would

be tranquil, let him not investigate too closely under what conditions the fruit of the olive is made to yield its rich golden oil. Wherever we go among the country or village people, we hear the kindly "Bon di' tenga," and the *casa* with all it contains is placed at our disposal with true Spanish grandiloquence of word and gesture. This we know is the usual exaggeration of courtesy, yet, accompanied as it is by a frank, engaging smile and a genuine offer of fruit, we are not disposed to quarrel with formulas.

Centuries of patient toil have developed wonderful skill in agriculture, notwithstanding the use of primitive, awkward implements. A straight, clean-cut furrow follows the one-handled Arab plough, and the rich soil grows light under the heavy *caveg*, the island implement which unites in itself the functions of shovel, hoe, and pickaxe. The grain is all cut by hand, and threshed only on open-air threshing-floors, prepared in accordance with Virgil's instructions, where, above the regular hoof-beat, as the fluted stone rollers are dragged over the floor, rises the monotonous chant of the driver, with a melancholy cadence calling to mind old plantation melodies. A breezy day is chosen for the winnowing, which is as primitive a process as the threshing; and when the harvesting is over, and the trees have felt the pruning-hook, the rubbish is carefully piled into heaps with limestones in the midst, and slowly burned for the fertilizing ashes. These summer days are long days of unwearied toil, but as the sun dips into the sea the angelus sounds from the hermitage on the heights above; and when the evening star appears and the glow-worms light their diamond lamps in the hollow olive trees, a wonderful stillness broods over the earth, broken only by the shepherd's pipe blending in pleasant symphony with the tinkling sheep bells.

The shriek of the locomotive that was to carry us to Manacor, the starting-point for the caves of Drach and Artá, sounded strangely dissonant to ears grown accustomed to Arcadian sounds, yet we were conscious of a pleasant thrill of excitement as we "embarked," as Spaniards say, for our first ride on the only railroad in the islands. It passes through extensive vineyards, where low, sturdy vines support heavy clusters of the rich grapes that go to make the golden-brown wine of Binisalem. Ripe figs were drying in the sun, and the almonds, having burst their purple husks, were being dislodged from the trees by means of long, slender canes. Inca, a little above the railroad, makes a striking picture with its background of bleak, sterile mountains, its ancient-looking buildings and lofty palms; and, faintly discerned on an almost inaccessible crag, the ruins of a castle, the last stronghold of the Moors, seem to mock at nature's apparently impregnable defences.

The numerous windmills of Manacor give it a picturesque aspect from a distance, but the enchantment is dispelled on near approach, for the town, which is the second in importance in Mallorca, is pervaded by a dreary air of commonplaceness relieved by nothing to detain the traveller. At the end of an hour's drive through a rather desolate country overgrown with heather and lentisk, we came to a pretty little basin of the Mediterranean, where a few staringly new houses suggested the nucleus of a watering-place. Crossing the bed of a winter torrent, a short walk led to the entrance of the cave of El Drach (the dragon), low and dark, and unpleasantly suggestive of the fabulous monster. But, after the first plunge into darkness, our attention was absorbed by the beautiful, lace-like formations, some of delicate opal tints, and the still, deep pools of water in which, like a magic mirror, were reflected our lights and even the fire and flame of the guide's cigarette. Of the names given to different portions, that of "Lago de las Delicias" (Lake of Delights) seemed most fitting. There are still unexplored chambers, and deeps from which, on casting in a stone, come back faint and fainter reverberations until an ominous splash denotes that it has found a resting-place in water that would seem to be below the level of the adjacent sea. The whole interior, which it took nearly two hours to explore, left an impression of fairy beauty which even the dread "Purgatorio" failed to obscure.

Of quite a different character are the caves of Artá. We made an early start from Manacor, for the road is long and rough and the caves extensive. Passing through the village of Artá, which is not uninteresting, at some distance beyond we left the carriage and walked along by the sea, where white lilies with golden hearts were blossoming in the sand, climbed a steep, wooded hill, and, creeping round a sharp angle hung over the waves, found ourselves before a magnificent rocky portal in the sea face of a perpendicular cliff, and fifty metres above the water. The promise of the entrance is well fulfilled as we penetrate the interior. Everything is on a massive scale, and so different as in no way to suggest a comparison with the neighboring cave of Drach. Here there is no soft coloring; all is white and black, and water is absent. Stalactites and stalagmites meet to form gigantic columns, and glistening white banners of a fantastic reality are flung out high above our heads in the obscurity of lofty halls whose gloomy recesses the flare of the Roman candles only serves to make more strange and fathomless. In one instance a lofty roof is supported by a single slender column rising up in the centre of the great chamber to a height of twenty-two metres, and bearing a striking resemblance to the stem of a giant palm. After a stay of three hours in these underground workshops of nature, the sudden vision of the smiling blue sea before us as we emerged from the cave deepened an impression that will remain long in the memory.

S. G.

# Correspondence.

## THE WEST IN THE SENATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In several issues of the *Nation* during the past summer, and particularly in the one of August 31, you have complained most bitterly of the votes cast by the new States of the West in the Senate. Knowing that you aim to be just and fair with your readers, however much you may differ with the people of the West upon the silver question, I desire to call attention to a few facts disclosed by the Census of 1890.

Two of "the six youngest States of the Union in the Northwest," South Dakota and Washington, have a total population of 678,198. Two of the original thirteen States, Delaware and Rhode Island, have a population of 513,999. Have not the people of Colorado, who number more than any one of the four, and almost as many as the two Eastern States combined, as much right to complain of Delaware and Rhode Island as you to complain of South Dakota and Washington?

Three of "the six youngest States of the Union in the Northwest," the two Dakotas, and Washington, have a total population of 860,917. Three of the original thirteen States, Delaware, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire, have a population of 890,529. Were all these six States fully represented in the Senate, the population for each Senator would be practically the same; with Washington deprived of one Senator, the Eastern States have a decided advantage. The Senators from the two New England States and Delaware are solid, of course, for unconditional repeal; it remains to be seen whether the five Senators for the Northwest will vote together in favor of silver coinage.

"The six youngest States of the Union in the Northwest, the two Dakotas, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, and Washington," have a total population of 1,138,166. Six of the oldest States of the Union, Delaware, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont, Florida, and Oregon, have a total population of 1,928,140. Six of the largest States of the Union, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Missouri, and Texas, have a population of 23,669,241. The disparity between the first two groups is insignificant when either is compared with the last. Missouri and Texas, with a population of nearly five millions, practically united in favor of the free coinage of silver, have as much right to complain of the Eastern group voting against silver as Ohio and Illinois, with seven millions of people, have to complain of the Western group voting for it. As a matter of fact, each of the nine Senators now representing the Western group has practically as large a constituency behind him as each of the twelve Senators coming from the other group.

Senators Teller and Wolcott represent a larger constituency than is to be found in Delaware, New Hampshire, Rhode Island (three of the original thirteen States), Vermont, Florida, or Oregon. For the whole Union, Colorado ranks 31 in population, leading thirteen of her sisters; while Delaware stands only 42, one better than the Territory of New Mexico, and two below the Territory of Utah; Florida ranks 32, New Hampshire 33, Rhode Island 35, Vermont 36, and Oregon 38.

The four silver States, Colorado, Montana, Idaho, and Nevada, have a total population of 674,503. Four of the Atlantic-coast States, Delaware, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont, have a total population of 1,222,951. The four largest States of the Union have a total population of 18,754,534. The disparity between the silver group and our old New England sisters is scarcely noticeable when either total is compared with the four leaders.

When the contest on tariff reform comes, and the great States of Texas and Missouri, Kentucky, and Georgia, backed by the teeming millions of the South and West, are clamoring for relief, aided by your powerful voice, and we find these pocket boroughs of the East—Rhode Island, Vermont, New Hampshire, and Delaware—are all solid for the protected barons, the shoe will be pinching the other foot. No section will more gladly change from the present method of representation in the Senate to one based on population than the West. Fifty years from to-day, if a change is not sooner made, it will be the West and South complaining of the strength in the Senate wielded by rotten boroughs of the East, rather than the East finding fault with the thinly settled States of the West. In the meantime neither section can justly complain of the other.

W. H. Bryant.

Denver, Col., October 3, 1893.

[The inequality of the original thir-

teen States was, of course, deplored from the beginning, since the territorial limitations rendered it permanent for the very smallest. Still, their integrity had to be guaranteed in the Constitution, and it must be said that every one of them has more than maintained its population, while Rhode Island stands at the very front in point of density. Had either Rhode Island or Delaware, like Nevada, steadily fallen off in the number of its inhabitants after its admission to the Union, there can be no doubt that the country would long ago have been moved to abolish these States by annexation, using all possible pressure to that end. The constitutional situation would also have been felt to be scandalous if Delaware and Rhode Island, which have generally been in opposition, had in combination held the balance of power in the Senate, or had availed themselves of the license of the Senate rules to defeat a vote upon a measure overwhelmingly passed by the lower house, and notoriously commanding a majority of the suffrages of the Senate itself.

We cannot allow that the population of Missouri and Texas are "practically united in favor of the free coinage of silver." Finally, we admonish our correspondent that "the contest on tariff reform" has come now, and that the overthrow of the existing protection to silver-mining is the necessary first step in coming to close quarters with McKinley and his abominations.—Ed. Nation.]

## JUDICIAL POWER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The court of North Carolina has the distinction of sharing with Rhode Island the honor (given by a correspondent in your issue of September 28 to Rhode Island and Virginia) of having, some years before the federal court, held that a court has the power to declare null and void an act of the Legislature.

In 1785 the Assembly of North Carolina passed an act entitled "An act to secure and quiet in their possession all such persons who have purchased, or may hereafter purchase, lands, etc., which have been sold, or may hereafter be sold, by commissioners of forfeited estates, legally appointed for that purpose." The act also required the court, in all cases where the defendant made affidavit that he held the disputed property under a sale from such a commissioner of forfeited estate, *to dismiss the suit on motion.*

Such a case (Bayard vs. Singleton, Martin's Rep., vol. i., pp. 42–48) came before the court at the May term, 1786. The judges had the nerve to deny the motion to dismiss. Justice Ashe observed, among other things, that "the people of this country, with a general union of sentiment, by their delegates, met in congress and formed that system or those fundamental principles comprised in the Constitution, dividing the powers of government into separate and distinct branches, to wit: the legislative, the judicial, and executive, and assigning to each several and distinct powers, and prescribing their several limits and boundaries." We find added to his remarks, "Curia advisare vult." At the November term of the following year the court took up the case, and decided that the act above alluded to was unconstitutional and void. And so we may say the North Carolina court intimated an intention to hold to the doctrine mentioned several months before the decision of the Rhode Island court, though the decision was not rendered till the year following.

The justices sitting at the hearing of this case were Ashe, Spencer, and Williams. The last-named occupied the place resigned by James Iredell. Iredell was counsel for the plaintiff in this case. He wrote a strong pamphlet vindicating the power of the judiciary. The judges were eventually sustained by public opinion. Iredell was afterwards Associate Justice of the Supreme Court. It is not impossible that this decision and the weight of Judge Iredell's opinion may have had some influence on the court in arriving at the decision of Marbury vs. Madison, as well as the fact, mentioned by your correspondent, that the doctrine was recognized by Chancellor Wythe, under whom Chief Justice Marshall studied law.

Wm. Myers Little.

Charlotte, N. C., September 30, 1893.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Rombauer's communication in your issue of September 28 relative to Wythe's influence on Marshall called to my mind some rather copious notes that I made a few years ago in the same connection, and I concluded that a résumé of the results then obtained might be not uninteresting to your readers. I write without access to many of the authorities cited, but I made my notes with considerable care.

It is curious that while many writers upon our constitutional law and history have recognized the importance of the famous case of Trevett vs. Weeden, few of them have seemed to be aware of the fact that that case was by no means the first in which a judicial body held an act of a State Legislature to be unconstitutional. Prof. Henry Wade Rogers, in his preface to that admirable work, 'Constitutional History of the United States as Seen in the Development of American Law,' for which our thanks are due to the University of Michigan, has not fallen into this mistake. He refers to the well-known New Jersey case of Holmes and Ketchum vs. Walton, tried in 1780, which, I believe, was first unearthed by President Austin Scott of Rutgers in a paper read by him before the American Historical Association (see their Papers, vol. ii). Prof. Rogers next refers to Trevett vs. Weeden (1786), and concludes by citing the South Carolina case of Bowman vs. Middleton decided in 1792. It is strange that he says nothing of certain Virginia cases which must have been familiar to Marshall and have influenced his decisions far more than the three cases named above. These cases have been ably discussed by President Lyon G. Tyler in his 'Letters and Times of the Tylers,' but they are well worth study in the original reports.

In 1782, four years before the decision in Trevett vs. Weeden, the case of the Commonwealth vs. Caton (4 Call, pp. 5-21) was tried in the General Court. The constitutionality of a pardon to traitors authorized by the lower house of the Assembly alone was involved and was denied by the court. Edmund Pendleton was the only judge who seemed chary of expressing an opinion; George Wythe was as thoroughgoing in the expression of his as Marshall could have been. He said:

"Nay, more, if the whole Legislature, an event to be deprecated, should attempt to overleap the bounds prescribed to them by the people, I, in administering the public justice of the country, will meet the united powers at my seat in this tribunal; and, pointing to the Constitution, will say to them, Here is the limit of your authority; hither shall you go, but no further."

Whatever may be thought of the Canute-like eloquence of the justly distinguished chancellor, it can hardly be denied that Marshall, who studied law under him, must have been influenced by his views on this important matter. It may be noted that John Blair, who was one of the first justices appointed by Washington to the Supreme Court, was equally outspoken in his opinion.

The next case in Virginia occurred in 1788, two years after Trevett vs. Weeden. The Legislature had passed an act (Hening xii., 532, 644, 764) by which duties in the new district courts were devolved upon the judges of the Court of Appeals, who already had duties in the General Court and in the courts of admiralty and chancery. This increase of duties without a corresponding increase of salaries was deemed unconstitutional by the judges, and they determined to protest, although conscious that the case was a delicate one since their own pockets were involved. They, therefore, drew up what Mr. Tyler rightly terms "a most elevated and dignified remonstrance" (printed in 4 Call and 1 Virginia Cases), which was transmitted to the Legislature at a special session (June 23 to June 30, 1788) called by Gov. Edmund Randolph for the purpose of reconsidering the act. The Legislature promptly repealed the obnoxious act, but at their regular meeting, in the fall of the same year, they thoughtlessly passed a new law reconstituting the Court of Appeals and practically removing all the old judges. This was plainly unconstitutional; but the judges were now as graceful as the Assembly had been, for they resigned their positions while protesting against the principles of the act (Tyler's 'Tylers' i., pp. 175-6). It is obvious that we have here no judicial decision, properly speaking, but we certainly have a very emphatic statement of the principle of constitutional law under discussion.

In 1793 the General Court was confronted with a very similar question in Kamper vs. Hawkins (1 Virginia Cases, p. 20). This case involved the constitutionality of an act of the previous year, which gave judges of the General Court, when sitting in district courts, powers belonging to chancery. The court pronounced the act to be unconstitutional, all of the judges delivering long and weighty opinions. Not one is at all in doubt as to the propriety of declaring acts of legislature unconstitutional. One, Judge Henry, shows that he knew as clearly as any modern publicist the difference between an omnipotent parliament and a legislature serving under a constitution. Judge Roane stated that he had been doubtful on the point, but that his opinion had changed. Judge Tyler, too, delivered an excellent opinion, which his grandson has done well to reproduce at length. He saw as clearly as Marshall did afterwards that a judge can decide on the constitutionality of a law only when it is brought to his notice in a definite case; in his own words, he would not "in an extra-judicial manner assume the right to negative a law." Finally, Judge Tucker delivered an opinion which seemed to me, when I read it some years ago, to be but little less lucid than Marshall's far more celebrated opinion in Marbury vs. Madison. I write, of course, as an amateur in legal matters and subject to correction.

We are now brought down to the case of Page vs. Pendleton, cited by Mr. Rombauer, for which I wish to thank him, as it had escaped my notice. We see that from 1782 there is a chain of cases in Virginia in which the great doctrine of the right of the judiciary to pronounce on the constitutionality of laws is laid down with ever-increasing force and clearness. We need not forget the colonial precedents (Wilson's 'The State,' p. 474; Bryce's 'American Commonwealth,' chap. xxiii.) that helped these early judges, but we must remember that it took some boldness to apply those precedents after the changes brought about by the Revolution, just as it took some boldness in Marshall to apply State precedents to such a body as the Congress of the United States. That he did extend and apply these precedents is evident, for the effect upon him of the cases cited above must have been great. They took place while his mind was in the formative period, and he had been Wythe's pupil only two years before the latter delivered his opinion in Commonwealth vs. Caton. It is, I believe, generally conceded that Marshall was not a great lawyer in the sense of being widely read; he was, therefore, thrown all the more upon precedents familiar to him from his early training and practice in Virginia. His essential greatness is not diminished by the acknowledgment of his indebtedness to such men as Wythe, Blair, Henry, Tyler, and Tucker.

W. P. TRENT.

SEWANEE, TENN., October 1st, 1893.

P. S.—I have assumed above that Commonwealth vs. Caton (1782) is the first Virginia case of the kind under discussion, and Holmes vs. Walton (1780) the first case in the United States. This is not incontestably true. Judge Tucker, in his edition of Blackstone (Part I., Appendix, p. 293), published in 1803, expressly stated that in the case of the attainder passed by the Virginia Legislature in 1778 upon a notorious freebooter, Josiah Philips, the General Court refused to pass sentence without trial, and put the prisoner "upon his trial, according to the ordinary course of law." He then drew the conclusion—"This is a decisive proof of the importance of the separation of the powers of government, and of the independence of the judiciary; a dependent judiciary might have executed the law, whilst they execrated the principles on which it was founded."

This case of Josiah Philips is one of the most remarkable that have ever occurred in the United States. It has been treated, but without the necessary fulness, in the lives of Patrick Henry by Wirt and William Wirt Henry, and was the subject of more than one of Jefferson's letters. It played an important and curious part in the Virginia Convention of 1788, and is probably the most typical case of attainder known to our judicial annals. If Judge Tucker is right, it is also a case of great constitutional importance, as it antedates Holmes vs. Walton by two years. I have in manuscript a laborious analysis of the whole case, an abstract of which I had the honor of reading before the American Historical Association three years ago. In this analysis I have given my reasons for believing that Judge Tucker was mistaken in his assertion that the General Court actually pronounced upon the constitutionality of the act of attainder against Philips—reasons of an historical nature, and wholly independent of those laid down subsequently by the Supreme Court in the famous case of Cooper vs. Telfair (4 Dallas, 14), in which it was held that, unless bills of attainder were specially prohibited by the State Constitution, the right to make use of them inhered in the State legislatures prior to the adoption of the Federal Constitution. I cannot trespass upon the patience of your readers by detailing these reasons here; but it seems proper to refer to the case of Philips as a possible instance of judicial overruling of a legislative act, on account of the weight that must always attach to the statements of so able a jurist as Judge Tucker. I may at some future time make bold to submit to you a brief account of this curious and important case.

W. P. T.

## THE DIVISION OF WORDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to state that the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* is printed at the Riverside Press, Cambridge, and that the system of syllabic division adopted in its pages is the system which has been in operation there for many years. To imply, as your esteemed correspondent "H. U., '31," implies, that the *Magazine*, by printing *prom-ise* instead of *pro-mise*, or *reg-ister* instead of *re-gister*, lays itself open to the charge of illiteracy, seems to me to be as unjustifiable as to impute illiteracy to Emerson, Longfellow, and Lowell—not to mention living authors—who had their books put in type at this same Riverside Press.

The fact is, that in this method of dividing words one method prevails in England and another in America; being Americans, we follow the usage which Webster and Worcester and other dictionaries have warranted. "H. U., '31," regards Lindley Murray's rule as infallible: Americans do not. Lindley Murray's method is as arbitrary as ours, and it would require but little pains to show incongruities in both methods. The main purpose of any method is to secure uniformity. "H. U., '31," suffers from a misapprehension in imagining that literacy or illiteracy in these matters depends on the adoption or rejection of English custom. Would he accuse Mr. Lowell or Prof. Norton of illiteracy because they use the American form *honor* instead of the English form *honour?* Would he imply that such scholars as Prof. Lane and Prof. Goodwin are illiterate because they do not pronounce Latin and Greek according to Oxford usage? And even in English printing-houses there is not the uniformity which "H. U., '31," supposes. In the course of a few pages of the first edition of Ruskin's 'Modern Painters,' one of the most carefully printed books which England has produced, I find such contradictions as *difference* and *refe-rence;* but not on this account would I charge Ruskin or the English with illiteracy. In short, the hyphen as a test of culture seems to be uncertain, and happily the reputation of Harvard University does not depend on so slight a thing.

I should refrain from trespassing on your space to present these self-evident facts, did I not fear that, by silence, I might appear to desire to shift your correspondent's charge of illiteracy from myself, to whom it belongs, to either Harvard University or the gentlemen who compose the council of the *Graduates' Magazine* Association.

WILLIAM R. THAYER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., October 7, 1893.

# Notes.

ROBERTS BROS. will shortly publish 'Public Libraries in America,' an historical and descriptive account by William I. Fletcher, Librarian of Amherst College; 'Such As They Are,' poems by Thomas W. and Mary Thacher Higginson; and 'Allegretto,' poems by Miss Gertrude Hall.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. announce 'The Englishman at Home: His Privileges and Responsibilities,' by Edward Porritt; a Life of the wife of Rembrandt, by Charles Knowles Bolton; and a volume of verse by E. F. Fenollosa.

'Twenty Years at Sea; or, Leaves from My Old Log-Books,' by Frederick S. Hill; 'Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan,' by Lafcadio Hearn, in two volumes; 'An Old Town by the Sea,' namely, Portsmouth, N. H., by T. B. Aldrich; and 'In Exile, and Other Stories,' by Mary Hallock Foote, are in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., together with illustrated holiday editions of the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table' (illustrations by Howard Pyle); Mrs. Deland's 'Old Garden' (with more than a hundred color designs by Walter Crane); and Miss Jewett's 'Deephaven' (illustrated by Charles A. and Marcia O. Woodbury).

'From Sunrise to Sunset,' poems by Curtis Guild, is promised by Lee & Shepard.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish a diary of travel, 'In the Track of the Sun,' by Frederick D. Thompson, illustrated by Harry Fenn; Bryant's 'Poems of Nature,' a selection, with illustrations by Paul de Longpré; 'Picciola,' with copious drawings by J. T. Gueldry; and 'The Country School,' a study of New England schoolboy life, by Clifton Johnson.

The fall list of Charles Scribner's Sons includes the 'Life and Correspondence of Dean Stanley,' by R. E. Prothero and Dean Bradley; a book on New Mexican customs and types, 'The Land of Poco Tiempo,' by Charles F. Lummis; nineteen African legends picked up by Henry M. Stanley and told in 'My Dark Companions and their Strange Stories'; 'Stelligeri, and Other Essays concerning America,' by Prof. Barrett Wendell; 'An Old Master, and Other Political Essays,' by Prof. Woodrow Wilson; a popular edition of the 'Cyclopædia of Music and Musicians'; a limited portfolio edition of 'French Illustrators,' by Louis Morin, with many reproductions after more than sixty artists; and 'Rembrandt: His Life, His Work, and His Time,' by Émile Michel, edited by Frederick Wedmore, and illustrated most abundantly with photogravures, cuts, and color reproductions.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will supply the American market with a new edition of Goldsmith's works, illustrated by Herbert Railton.

Ginn & Co. have in press 'The Beginnings of the English Romantic Movement,' by Wm. Lyon Phelps, instructor in English literature at Yale. The book gives the results of an examination of the minor literature from 1725 to 1765, with a view to tracing the early growth of English Romanticism.

We commended last spring Miss Jane Barlow's 'Irish Idylls,' with its equivocal title, which might rather suggest verse, whereas her metrical 'Bogland Studies' would by the same token have been taken for prose. We are glad to see an American edition of so pathetic, humorous, and truthful a work (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Miss Barlow launches it with a little preface by way of propitiation. The same firm renew the 'Journal of Eugénie de Guérin' in two pretty blue volumes with gilt tops, and Austin Dobson's 'Memoir of Horace Walpole,' one of the less valuable of this author's numerous productions. The third edition of Mr. Winter's 'Shakespeare's England' to bear the imprint of Macmillan & Co. is the second issue

for the present year, but the work has been revised and wholly reset, furnished with a variety of cuts and a portrait of the author, and bound in holiday or gift-book fashion. No doubt the illustrations and the general attire will increase the popularity of this sentimental tour among literary haunts. In conjunction with the Messrs. Black, Macmillan & Co. add volumes xi. and xii. to the Dryburgh Edition of the Waverley Novels, being 'The Abbot' and 'Kenilworth,' still excelling rather in typography than in illustrations; and in conjunction with J. M. Dent & Co. extend the captivating edition of Fielding's Works by 'Tom Jones' in four volumes, with vignettes of scrupulously decent selection and design. From the Harpers we receive three more volumes in the uniform edition of William Black's novels, viz., 'White Heather,' 'Sabina Zembra,' and 'The Wise Women of Inverness.' 'Stories of the Army' is the latest in the pocket series of "Stories from *Scribner*." 'Alice's Adventures in Wonderland' has been copyrighted to T. Y. Crowell & Co., perhaps as to its decorative borders and such of its illustrations as are not Tenniel's and therefore, we feel like saying, have no excuse for existence, so intimately associated in the minds of the rising generation are the original cuts and the classic text. Tenniel-and-water is, literally, what the new designs amount to, and the mixture of real and counterfeit, of process line and process wash, greatly detracts from the comeliness of the volume.

It would be hard to account for the revival of buccaneer literature except on the familiar principle that it never rains but it pours. Year before last we had Mr. Howard Pyle's 'Buccaneers and Marooners of America' and the reprint of Capt. Burney's 'History of the Buccaneers of America.' Both these writers drew largely upon Esquemeling's 'Buccaneers of America' (1678), which in turn is now reprinted together with the narrative of another authority, Basil Ringrose. The volume, which is published in this country by Charles Scribner's Sons, is a handsome octavo of 500 pages, indexed and illustrated in facsimile with buccaneer portraits, scenes, charts, and coast contours. The introduction, by Henry Powell, adds little value to the work, and should not be trusted implicitly: St. Kitts was not simultaneously settled by English and French (pp. xvi, xvii.); the Mosquito Coast has not "for some time past been absorbed into the adjacent republic of Honduras" (p. xi.). Descriptions of primitive peoples, manners, and customs occasionally relieve the tale of rapine and adventure.

Superficial learning is, after all, better than ignorance, and many are the books which are written in its interest. Of this class is 'Chapters in Modern Botany,' by Prof. Geddes of University College, Dundee (Scribners). The book avowedly begins "with something rare or strange—at any rate unfamiliar," in order to avoid the "prejudice that botany deals mainly in hard names," and to awaken at once interest in the subject, so that the reader may be tempted to learn something of the forms and processes of plant-life, and at least acquaint himself with the methods of study. Accordingly, the writer begins with an account of pitcher-plants, and presently finds himself obliged to assume that somehow or other a Sarracenia has been improved into a Darlingtonia, and then he wants some experimentalist to catch a young and ambitious plant of the one genus trying to assume the form of the other. From pitcher-plants the book passes naturally to fly-traps, and from these to the wonderful man-eating (or at least dog-eating) plant of Central America, which perhaps was nothing more than some kind of a cat-brier. Later chapters deal with many phases and functions of vegetation, and are interesting reading for one who knows something of the subject already. One or two pages near the end of the book commend systematic botany as at least a subject from which accuracy in the use of language may be learned—a kind of accuracy which must have been asleep when *Monotropa Hypopitys* was called an orchid.

A less ambitious book is 'Recreations in Botany,' by Caroline A. Creevey (Harpers). At the outset the reader is warned against poison-ivy and poison-sumac, which is well; and in the second chapter the use of a botany-box, a lead-pencil, a sharp knife, and a pocket microscope is recommended, while 'Gray's Manual' must be within reach. The student is also told to look up the meaning of "obcordate" and other hard words in the glossary, and to refer occasionally to the 'Lessons.' This is surely a fair beginning, and disposes the reviewer to look leniently upon an occasional misspelled name of a plant, such as "Epiphagus" for Epiphegus, "asparinoides" for aparinoides, and "cœrula" for cœrulea. The authoress confesses to having waded, shoes and stockings off, into a swamp in search of *Arethusa bulbosa*, "though clumps of poison-sumach were growing near by," and, as an older swamp-wader knows very well, mosquitoes, snakes, and snapping-turtles may have been watching her. She may, therefore, be forgiven for saying that numbers of the Arethusa "would spring up and bloom in a single night," and for calling *Calopogon pulchellum* a barbarous name, which it really is—for does not Calopogon signify a beautiful *beard*, and is it not barbarous to force a neuter adjective to qualify a masculine noun?

The author of 'The Trees of Northeastern America' has now followed that work with 'The Shrubs of Northeastern America' (Putnams). Here the species are arranged in natural orders, and in this respect the book is better than its predecessor. The same effort is made to avoid the usual language of botany, and with the same result. One sentence is enough to quote: "In some regions, an old opinion is said still to linger, that the presence of the barberry causes blight in the grainfield." Surely some of the botanists to whom the author acknowledges his obligations could have directed him to the literature concerning the connection of *Æcidium berberidis* and *Puccinia graminis*.

In 'How to Judge a Horse,' by Capt. F. W. Bach (William R. Jenkins), we have a treatise of really practical convenience. The anatomy of the animal is so clearly explained as to make the structural and dynamic importance of the bones intelligible to the ordinary man. There is much else, upon training and driving and upon bits, saddles, stables, etc.

A vast amount of useful information is compressed into a small book entitled 'Domestic Economy,' by F. T. Paul (Longmans, Green & Co.). The author has for some time delivered an annual course of lectures at the Edge Hill Training College at Liverpool, and upon that foundation he has constructed a text-book. A great variety of subjects is treated, such as physiology, digestion, foods, dress, and hygiene, and it would not be easy to find a more convenient compendium of things which every one needs to know, but which most of us do not know exactly where to look for.

In the *Geographical Magazine* for September Mr. George N. Curzon continues his account of his journeys in Indo-China with some interesting details of the life of the Annamese. In reference to the native government, he says: "Annam exhibits the spectacle, unique in the East, of a complete decentralization of administrative and executive authority, due to the institution of a communal system which is enshrined in the customs of the people, and has long familiarized them with the liberties of self-government to which Europe is now returning." The famous Khmer ruins at Angkor he believes, contrary to the common view, to have been dedicated to "Brahmanism, pure and simple, upon which at a later date were grafted Buddhistic additions." The accompanying map, including Siam, is a reduction of the French official map published this year. The Zoutpansberg gold-fields in the northern part of the Transvaal are described by F. Jeppe, who says that, notwithstanding the great natural drawbacks, such as scarcity of water, high cost of transport and provisions, and a dangerous climate, the mines are steadily gaining. The paper is illustrated by a map showing the geological formations.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for September opens with a short account of the Siamese frontier, by Mr. Coutts Trotter, accompanied by a useful map. Among the other articles are an extended notice of Mr. F. H. Newell's 'Hydrography of the Arid Regions of the United States,' and a criticism of the map contained in Mr. Curzon's recent work on Persia. We may note, however, an inconsistency in this number of the magazine itself. The port of Hué, the capital of Annam, is given by Mr. Trotter as Tourane, but in the map it is Touron; in the French official map, as given in the *Geographical Journal*, it is Turan.

The *Psychological Review*, to be published by Macmillan & Co. early next year, will be edited by Profs. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton and J. McKeen Cattell of Columbia, with a notable collaboration.

We have before us the first number of the *Proportional Representation Review*, a quarterly magazine of modest dimensions published at Chicago by the American Proportional League; also the first number of *Popular Astronomy*, whose objects we have already heralded, issued from the Goodsell Observatory of Carleton College, Northfield, Minn.; and finally the initial number of *Aeronautics*, significantly published by the *American Engineer and Railroad Journal* as a medium for one branch of the science of transportation. It opens with the proceedings of the Conference on Aerial Navigation held at Chicago on August 1-4, and closes with "Notes" of thrilling balloon trips and other pertinent items of news.

The *Publishers' Weekly* has reprinted in a neat pamphlet its Review of 'The Publishers' and other Book Exhibits at the World's Columbian Exposition,' than which we have seen none better.

At the eleventh hour the official publishers of the World's Fair, W. H. Conkey & Co., have got out a 'Revised Catalogue, Department of Fine Arts,' in which the pictures are numbered consecutively as they appear on the walls. There are no memoranda of the pictures themselves, but instead we have portraits of the several commissioners. There is further an index of exhibitors, and lists of judges, awards, etc.

The International Copyright Conference which was to have been held this year in Paris, has been postponed till next year at the request of France. Last month, however, the

Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale met at Barcelona, having copyright for its entire programme, and we hope to be able to give some report of its doings at no distant date.

The regular courses leading to an M.D. degree at the Medical School of Johns Hopkins University opened on October 5 with a class of sixteen, of whom three are women. The high standard set by Johns Hopkins for admission to this school has, for the first time in the United States, secured a band of medical students each with a bachelor's degree from some reputable college. Of the thirteen men, Johns Hopkins supplies four, Yale three, Harvard two, and Amherst, Swarthmore, Virginia Agricultural College, and the University of Wisconsin each one. The women are graduates respectively from Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley. A most encouraging feature in connection with this important step in medical education is the number and grade of the institutions from which these students have been drafted. The fact, moreover, that eleven of the men in this pioneer class come from colleges not coeducational, disposes at once of a current prophecy that the admission or presence of women "would keep away male graduates of leading conservative institutions."

The far-seeing Bürgermeister of Oberammergau, whose sound municipal management and forethought for the comfort of the numberless visitors to his modest community brought him well-earned fame in 1890, is not allowing his people to grow rusty in the exercise of their unusual talent. Under his direction, a drama treating of the life and death of St. Vitus is being performed by the villagers during the autumn relaxation of their hardy and laborious lives. The play is by Herr Molitor, and its pleasantly rhythmical title is "Die Rose von Sicilien." With Bürgermeister Lang as director, aided by his innately artistic fellow-actors of the Passion Play, it is safe to assume that the gifted peasants of this Bavarian highland will have lost none of their prestige when their village next becomes the centre of universal curiosity and excitement, which the modern temper seems to demand that each summer shall now supply in one part of the world or another.

Mr. George C. Foulk, whose death by acute cerebral congestion, near Miyanoshita, Japan, has been reported, is one of the few Americans who have helped to make Corea known to the world. As one of the junior officers of the United States Navy, he became, while on the Japan station, fluent in the language of Nippon, and gained some knowledge of Corean. Accompanying the Corean embassy to this country in 1883, he acted as interpreter, and on returning was naval attaché to the United States Legation at Séoul. For several months he was in sole charge. He made excursions in places remote and difficult of access, studying especially the military and political systems of the recently hermit kingdom. The results of these studies are to be found in a masterly series of papers in the United States Foreign Relations for 1885. In the outbreak of 1884, while in the interior, he barely escaped with his life. Resigning from the navy, and marrying a Japanese wife, he settled in Kioto as professor of mathematics in the Doshisha University. The loss of this promising scholar is to be greatly lamented.

The friends of Mrs. Rebecca Lloyd Brünnow will hear with regret of her death, which occurred on July 6, at her summer residence, Châlet Beauval, near Vevey, Switzerland. She was the daughter of Henry P. Tappan, first Chancellor of the University of Michigan, and will be remembered by her translations of Victor von Scheffel's "Der Trompeter von Säkkingen" and "Bergpsalmen." The last production from her pen was a poem entitled "F. B. In Memoriam," and privately printed; a loving tribute to her deceased husband, the well-known astronomer.

—In a recent number of the London *Times* there is a strikingly clear and somewhat startling statement of the causes and extent of the recent religious riots in India. They were not confined to the streets of Bombay, but the fanatical movement of which they were the expression has spread widely throughout northern India. Early in the summer in certain districts in the northwestern provinces circular letters were addressed secretly to each village, "apparently in some cases to almost every Hindu household," calling on the able-bodied men to assemble at a fixed place on the day of the Muhammadan festival to prevent the sacrifice of cows. In obedience to this summons, in one district alone armed mobs of Hindus "assembled at thirty-four preconcerted centres in numbers varying from 100 to 4,000 men," and not only rescued the sacrificial cows, but beat the sacrificers and plundered their homesteads. This movement has been greatly stimulated by the Cow Protection Society, which in the nine years of its existence has grown into a new power in India. By pamphlets, public meetings, and through the native press, it urges the protection of the cow not only on account of its sanctity, but also on the economic grounds of the diminishing and deteriorating of the cattle through their use for food and sacrifices. The society has headquarters associations in different parts of India, with branches in the great cities and "a vast irregular army of sympathizing local bodies." Added to these is the multitude of Hindu devotees and religious mendicants who wander over India preaching the sanctity of the animal which still forms the symbol of orthodox Hinduism. The effect of this propaganda is that the feeling between the Hindus and Muhammadans has become electric, and any accidental conflict may bring about an explosion.

—In an interesting paper entitled "King John and the Abbot of Bury," which Mr. Thomas Arnold contributed to the June number of the *Contemporary Review*, occurs this passage: "The body of [Abbot] Samson was laid, *doubtless with due funeral rites*, in a small burial close, 'in pratello,' near the monastery, whence, as we are afterwards informed, it was translated at the end of two years and a half into the chapter-house." Now Abbot Samson died December 30, 1211, at a time when England, as Mr. Arnold himself tells us, "lay under the great interdict imposed upon her by Pope Innocent III.," etc. The words we have italicized seem to have been written in forgetfulness of the fact that funeral rites were among the things of which interdicted countries were deprived. It is true that, in some cases, clerical persons, as also beggars, strangers, and infants, were excepted from this part of the Interdict; but we have the express testimony of the annals that such was not the case in this particular Interdict. We will cite for it only Matthew Paris ('Hist. Angliæ,' anno 1208): "Quod [sc. interdictum], sicut in authentico Domini Papæ expressum habetur, *non obstantibus privilegiis* ab omnibus est inviolabiliter observatum. Cessaverunt itaque in Anglia omnia ecclesiastica sacramenta, præter solummodo confessionem et viaticum in ultima necessitate et baptisma parvulorum. *Corpora quoque defunctorum de civitatibus et villis efferebantur et more canum in biviis et fossatis sine orationibus et sacerdotum ministerio sepeliebantur.*" This leads us to understand why Abbot Samson was buried "in pratello"—a piece of probably unconsecrated meadowland. The explanation is made exceedingly probable by the time of the translation of the remains to the chapter-house. The Interdict was laid upon England in 1208, and was removed in 1214, after six years and one month—just about two years and a half after the Abbot's burial in unconsecrated ground.

—Dr. Karl Bücher, who gained so deserved a reputation by his work of some six years ago upon the population of Frankfort-on-Main in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, has just put together in book form half-a-dozen recent lectures under the title 'Die Entstehung der Volkswirtschaft' (Tübingen: Laupp, 1893). Of these one is a popular summary of the results of his investigations into the mediæval life of Frankfort, in which, it will be observed, he abides firmly by his much-attacked opinions on the small population of the cities. Of the others the most striking are the two which attempt to sketch, one the whole current of economic development down to the present, the other the sequence of industrial systems. Both are vigorous pieces of writing, putting a good many things in a new light, and furnish a welcome relief from the somewhat narrow formulæ of most writers on the subject. But even Bücher's ambitious formulation of economic progress fails to cover anything like the whole field; it cannot aid clearness of thought, for instance, to lump together all the methods of production and distribution which existed before the rise of the mediæval town under the title of "The Isolated Household." Moreover, one cannot help thinking that his attention has been too exclusively directed to urban life, and that he pays too little regard to agrarian conditions. He certainly thinks himself more original than he is; for most of what he tells us had already been said in another shape by Schmoller. Why he should go out of his way to have a fling at the economists of the historical school, and to express his sense of the value of the deductive method, is a little hard to say—possibly it would be explained by the inner university history of the last few years; for Bücher's own admirable work is after the best manner and in the best spirit of the historical school, and where the generalizations of the economists he criticises are faulty, they are to be mended—as his own procedure shows—not by more analysis, but by deeper and wider historical knowledge.

—M. Émile Deschanel, professor and Senator, literary man and politician, has written a two-volume book on Lamartine, who was also in his day a literary man and a politician. Having proved to his satisfaction, in his well-known volumes on the romanticism of the classic French writers, that romanticism antedates Rousseau, De Staël, and Chateaubriand, M. Deschanel, in these two very interesting volumes, proposes to raise Lamartine to the highest pinnacle of glory, and to prove that idealism, and not realism or naturalism, "is the master of the world." This is a large task, and one which, to most students of literature, will seem impossible of accomplishment. The days are gone by when idealism such as Lamartine embodies can rule minds. That the sentiment in his works, the beauty of much of his verse, the pathos of more than one of his poems—the famous "Lac," the nearly equally famous "Crucifix," the "Vallon," and

some others—will always compel admirers, must be conceded. But that Lamartine will ever again sway minds and influence literature as he unquestionably did when at the apogee of his fame, is a forlorn hope indeed. Much of his work has already perished, more will disappear in days to come, and the "Swan," as he called himself, will be read in part only, and in very small part. Nevertheless, M. Deschanel's work is not only acceptable, it is useful. His enthusiasm for the poet may not be shared by the reader, but his study of Lamartine's career and his analysis of his prose and verse writings will prove convenient for reference and for correction of some legendary blunders, justified, so far as public acceptance of and belief in them go, by the fact that Lamartine himself is responsible for many of them. It is by means of the poet's correspondence that M. Deschanel has corrected these errors, and were this the sum of his service he would be entitled to gratitude. He has done much more: laying aside a large measure of his enthusiasm, he has frankly noted faults and defects as well as beauties and qualities. After reading the "Harmonies," "Jocelyn," or "La Chute d'un Ange," M. Deschanel's comments on these poems strike one as just and moderate. Further, he has not forgotten the political side of Lamartine's career, and the fulness with which he describes it enables the reader to understand Lamartine better than he could if he looked at the poet alone.

## TWO BOOKS ON ANCIENT CONSTITUTIONS.

*The City-State of the Greeks and Romans*: A Survey Introductory to the Study of Ancient History. By Warde Fowler, M.A., Fellow and Sub-Rector of Lincoln College, Oxford. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

*History of Federal Government in Greece and Italy.* By Edward A. Freeman, edited by J. B. Bury, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin. [First edition, published 1863, entitled 'History of Federal Government from the Foundation of the Achaian League to the Disruption of the United States of America.'] Vol. I. General Introduction. History of the Greek Federations. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

Both of these books serve to remind us of the unique position occupied by the history of the State among studies pursued at Oxford, the *alma mater* of so many living statesmen. Mr. Warde Fowler's 'The City-State' is an expansion of lectures recently given at Oxford to pupils reading in the school of Literæ Humaniores, while Mr. Bury's edition of the 'History of Federal Government' makes once more accessible an early work of the late Prof. Freeman, whose name is associated with the remarkable development of historical study which has characterized the Oxford of the last thirty years. If Mr. Fowler in his "biography" of the ancient City-State gives us the last word, Prof. Freeman's History contained in its introductory chapter the first word, of the Oxford school on the working of ancient democratic and oligarchical institutions. This being the case, it is interesting to note how fully both writers agree in all essentials, not only with each other, but with Grote and Thirlwall. Thirlwall, indeed, serves as Freeman's constant guide when he deals with the Achæan League, his main theme; and in the picture of the City-State given by both our authors, Grote's favorable view of Athenian democracy is confirmed and justified, though it receives certain rectifications and qualifications at the hands of each.

Prof. Freeman has gone out of his way to justify the rejection by Acanthus and other towns of the terms of alliance offered by Olynthus. They need not, he affirms, have been actuated, as Grote supposes, merely by a blind attachment to their own existence as independent City-States, for it is by no means clear that a really free and equal Federal relation was proposed, and, whatever the proposal, it was made at the sword's point. Freeman contends, therefore, that Grote made far too much of the Olynthian League. But his real grievance is that, having made much of the Arcadian League, Grote closes his history and excludes all account of the Achæan League from its pages. In this matter he maintains that Grote looks at everything from a purely Athenian point of view. "In Mr. Grote's view, Athens has become contemptible; the autonomous city is no longer the single type of Grecian Government. Therefore Grecian history has come to an end; or, at all events, Mr. Grote has no heart to continue it." Mr. Fowler would probably not quarrel seriously with this criticism passed upon Grote, for a summary sketch of the Achæan League forms a portion of his account of the influences which brought about the dissolution of the City-State; and his introductory chapter contains a timely plea in favor of regarding—at least for the study of constitutional history—the career of Greece and Rome as a unit. This involves some attention to the history of a period which brought Greece and Rome into contact. But Mr. Fowler nowhere countenances the mood of indignation and impatience with which the historian of federalism chronicles Roman interference in the later days of the Achæan League. This interference was one of the steps towards a reconstitution of politics out of which the modern State and federalism as constituted to-day have arisen. To Freeman writing thirty years ago, the Romans in Achæa seemed like the Austrians still lingering at Venice. He was too much influenced by the prevailing movement in favor of nationalities to have a clear vision in the affairs of "the Greece of Polybius." Had it been otherwise he might have found that period as uninteresting for the historian of Greece as it seemed to Grote.

A far more fundamental rectification of Grote (it can hardly be termed dissent from him) is contained in Mr. Fowler's protest against accepting as decisive the condemnation of Athenian democracy by Plato, Aristotle, and Isocrates, "who knew Athens only after the gifted and animated population of the golden age had been thinned down sadly by war and pestilence." He trenchantly urges that it is "not scientific to judge of the workings of Athenian institutions in the fifth century B. C. by the opinions of men who knew them only as worked by a degenerate population in the fourth." Grote felt this, and based his account of democracy more or less upon it. Indeed, the clear apprehension of this truth which we now have is chiefly due to Grote, but nevertheless he does not embody a clear and consistent acceptance of it in his account of the Sophists and of the trial of Socrates.

The clearer apprehension in all their bearings of certain leading characteristics of the Greek and Roman City-State has been slowly worked out during the last thirty years until every scholar can see, with Mr. Fowler, that the differences between it and the modern State are such as to make them specifically different. A recognition of this alteration in the modern point of view is brought home to us by the strange effect of Freeman's contrasting the two species under the respective designations of the "small State" and the "large State." Nothing in his excellent definitions can be quarrelled with, but no one who attached as much importance as he did to the niceties of terminology, would ever, in the present state of knowledge, be content with the qualifications "small" and "large" to cover the difference as now established. In this respect, as well as in the political atmosphere gathered around the 'History of Federal Government' by Freeman's characteristically passionate allusions to passing events, his book is linked to an order of European politics which has passed away, whereas the reflections by the way contained in Mr. Fowler's book belong to the political world of the present day. In such allusions his 'City-State' does not greatly abound, but a certain number are necessary, not only for the presentation of his theme, but also for accomplishing his educational purpose—to stimulate his pupils' interest and widen their historical horizon. A comparison of such allusions in these two books affords striking illustrations of the way in which the march of contemporary events necessarily controls our reading of past history, and, by constantly shifting our point of view, presents antiquity in one perspective after another.

When Freeman wrote, Louis Napoleon Buonaparte (as he always spelt the alien usurper's name) had just perpetrated his Coup d'État, Hungary and Venice were still oppressed by the Austrian Archduke, who had assumed "the portentous title of Emperor of Austria." Accordingly, he is concerned to maintain that the right equivalent of τύραννος is *emperor* in its modern acceptation. The history of France for him is a succession of usurpations on the part of the kings, tyrants, and emperors of Paris, who have encroached upon "the old realms of Germany and Burgundy." England was evidently Freeman's beau ideal of a well-built modern State, as is shown by words which sound strangely in the present constitutional crisis. They are indeed all the more remarkable considering the pronounced home-rule attitude subsequently taken up by the writer: "No one could wish to cut up our United Kingdom into a Federation, to invest English counties with the rights of American States, or even to restore Scotland and Ireland to the quasi-Federal position which they held before their respective Unions." Elsewhere the writer laughs at Wales, saying: "It has been gravely declared at a Welsh Eisteddfod that her Majesty is properly the Queen of Wales, with the province of England annexed. However this be, the province and the kingdom have shown no tendencies towards separation for several centuries." Napoleon's Coup d'État inspired our author with the feeling that "a great capital, even in a consolidated State, has a strong tendency to be a great evil." In a Federal State this danger is so much enhanced that Freeman would apparently dispense with capitals in such States. Thebes and the Bœotian League are his warning example, and in describing the reconstitution of the enlarged but moribund Achæan League by Philopœmen, he approves heartily of the abolition of the old capital, Aigion, adding that Philopœmen "understood Federal principles too well to give the League the curse of a capital anywhere else."

The modern point of view inevitably occupied by Mr. Fowler is strikingly different from Freeman's. The angle of his vision has been determined by the recent agitation for

home rule, and by the wonderful recuperative power which France has exhibited, not to speak of the disappearance of the "man on horseback" from French politics. Mr. Fowler accordingly instances France as the typically well-knit modern State, and perhaps he goes too far in forgetting how often we have seen, as Mr. Freeman put it, "a Parisian riot accepted as a French revolution." His own definition of a modern State is wide enough to include the United States or the Swiss Republic, and the gist of it is that in this form of polity the capital city is a convenient place for carrying on the central Government. While the State is growing, the question is an open one as to where the acts of government may best be performed. In England the seat of government was long just where the King happened to be. Oxford was the English capital during the civil war. Bordeaux supplanted Paris in 1870–1871. Let any one, bearing this in mind, read Henri Martin's ingenious argument at the outset of his 'History of France,' and he will find that, by a concatenation of facts social, geographical, and historical, Paris only and Paris always is the fated and predoomed capital of France. Doubtless there are signs of a reaction, but Paris is still so much more than the first among equal French cities that France is a dangerous and rather misleading type of the modern State. The extraordinary importance attached by Frenchmen to their Paris still links the political constitution of France and Paris closely to the ancient type of the City-State, and makes France to that extent an exception among modern States. Perhaps, though, this is what Mr. Fowler means by speaking of France as the best-knit of modern States. At all events, it is certain that the altered times in which we live, when a bold and tyrannical usurpation like the third Napoleon's has become, for the moment and thanks to the late Gen. Boulanger, a ludicrous absurdity, give Mr. Fowler a point of vantage in discussing the uses and abuses of Greek tyrannies which was denied alike to Freeman and to Grote. The fact of usurpation, the circumstance that every Greek tyrant was driven beyond the ideals in which he and all members of the normal body politic were born and bred, was unwelcome in many ways and did great harm, but it brought good as well as evil. "The tyrant," says Mr. Fowler, "in the very fact that he was out of harmony with the true Greek social life, was of some use in widening its boundaries, always apt to be somewhat confining."

Mr. Fowler roundly declares that there is absolutely nothing new in his book, and certainly does confine himself most scrupulously to a presentation of views arrived at in common by the leading authorities of to day, but, nevertheless, his sketch of the part played in the realization of Athenian democracy by the tyranny of Pisistratus will be a revelation to many. It is also a privilege reserved for historians of to-day to be just and appreciative in dealing with aristocracies. Now that democracy has won its way so far that even the German Empire can get itself called a democracy, we are in a position to be fair in appreciating aristocracy in Greece and at Rome. To the aristocrats Mr. Fowler attributes the first framing of the ideal of duty to be performed manfully and gracefully for the public good. His appreciation of the differences between the Greek and the Roman genius appears best in his account of kingship. To the Greeks the personality and the breeding of a king were all in all, just as their gods were conceived of as "bodily presences rather than spiritual essences." The Romans, on the other hand, revered the power of their gods without necessarily embodying it or them in human form. Hence, the Romans "could abolish the King and yet retain his *imperium;* while at Sparta the powers were suffered to decay, the King himself remaining." After quoting the well-known passage where Herodotus describes the Spartan kings and their strangely curtailed powers, our author adds: "In this picture we see, as it were, an ancient and hallowed building, with all the graceful details of its architecture still preserved; a building which was once the central point of the common life of the State, but is now comparatively little used except for religious purposes."

Throughout his whole book Mr. Fowler enforces with constant aid from Aristotle the invaluable truth—so easy to realize in dealing with the simpler and more obvious organization of the ancient City-State, so hard to disentangle from the complex workings of a modern constitution—that a sound State is built upon sound character in its citizens, and in turn offers them the only means as yet discovered for bringing all their capacities into play. He has now and again a word to say of the modern Socialists and their ideal, which leaves him so far undisturbed that he can declare the growth of the modern State to be as yet unfinished, and assert that "there is fortunately no sure sign, even in our most highly developed States, that decay is as yet setting in."

The fundamental questions raised by Socialism were taken rather less seriously thirty years ago, when Freeman wrote his account of Federal Government, and the two additions, now published for the first time, were written in the early sixties. It is perhaps useless to speculate about changes which he might have made in the book, had he ever returned in his later years to the problems of Federal Government. He may well have been deterred from the attempt by remembering what odds were against his earlier work. He had planned an extensive publication which was to portray the Federal Republic as a system "intermediate between the city-commonwealth, which sacrifices everything else to the full development of the individual citizen, and the great modern kingdom, which sacrifices everything else to the peace, order, and general well-being of an extensive territory." But when his first volume was finished, the civil war in America had just reached its most uncertain point, and "the affair of the *Trent*," which was still unsettled, confirmed Englishmen in any prejudices they might have against Federal Government. Accordingly, by way of being fair in argument, he assumes everywhere that the disruption of the American Union is certain of accomplishment, and his general title contained the words, "from the formation of the Achaian League to the disruption of the United States of America."

Had our author lived long enough to return to the favorite theme of his youth, he would doubtless have qualified his statement that "the reason of the case would lead us to expect that the members of a league from which one or more members have seceded, would be less anxious to retain them, at all events less ready to make great sacrifices to retain them by force, than either a monarch or his subjects will be to recover a revolted province." To-day it no longer "remains to be seen whether the people of the Northern States will be ready to endure so prolonged a struggle for the forcible reduction of their revolted brethren as Spain, or even England, endured for the forcible reduction of their revolted dependencies." The modern federal tie has proved a stronger one than its apologist of thirty years ago dared hope; the quasi-federal status of Ireland, Scotland, and Wales is in a fair way towards restoration. All this seems to show that the "consolidated" modern State is transforming itself into something akin to Federalism. We may well ask, therefore, if Prof. Freeman can have been right in saying: "Probably no two constitutions produced at such a distance of time and place from one another ever presented so close a resemblance to each other as that which exists between the Constitution of the United States and the Constitution of the Achaian League." The clear conception of a specific difference between the City-State of antiquity and the modern consolidated State of which every one of the United States is a modified but real example, coupled with the reflection that the members of the Achæan League were City-States, vitiates the analogy which Freeman has insisted upon between ancient Leagues and modern Republics. Whatever parallels our historian may draw between Assemblies, Senates, and Congresses, however freely he may use of ancient Leagues terms to which modern federal republics alone have given their present meaning, the result of the American war remains, and we now know that the modern federal tie has strength which defeats calculations and defies argument. The American citizen has given unmistakable proofs of something hardly to be distinguished from "that burning patriotism which the Athenian or the Florentine felt for the city in which his whole political and personal being found its home."

Under these altered circumstances our chief concern with Achæan institutions is confined to the question whether or not they were copied by the framers of our Constitution. No one has ever maintained that they were, and we may accordingly proceed to the reflection that the Arcadian and the Ætolian Leagues—prototypes in Greece—sprang up in the backwoods as it were, among primitive villages where the organization of the City-State was achieved very late and most imperfectly. The process was a long one which brought such leagues to the forefront in Greece. Athens, Sparta, and Thebes had first to live out all the life of real initiative that there was among Greeks. We may yet learn from the march of modern and contemporary events to qualify the one statement about the Achæan League in which all authorities, including both of the authors under consideration, now agree—namely, that it was what the Germans call a *Bundesstaat* rather than a *Staatenbund.* It is quite possible to maintain that political organization moved a step backwards when the Ætolian and Achæan Leagues came to the front. Worn out by centuries of petty wars among neighbors, and generations of hateful strife among factions, the City-State required in Greece a period of backwardness and political nothingness before it could gather strength for the final reconstitution which brought it safely beyond its own limitations, and fashioned in Greece such an approach to the more extensive and complex modern State as a Roman province now appears to have been.

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*The Memories of Dean Hole.* Second edition. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1893. Pp. xii, 377. Illustrated.

'The Memories of Dean Hole' has come to a cheap edition, which shows that the book is popular. It owes its popularity largely, we should think, to a pervading geniality of man-

ner, which, to the credit of human nature, always takes, even if it be a little overstrained. The Dean is evidently an excellent specimen of a class of ecclesiastics which only the Established Church of England could produce. Slight affinities may be traced in the French abbé or curé of the old school, and possibly in the "live man" of our American churches. But fox hunting and cricket-playing England alone possesses the genuine breed.

The Dean's ideal of clerical character and his theory of his own position are given in these words:

"A good man, wherever he goes with a good purpose, will communicate goodness; for virtue, thank Heaven, is a thousand times more impressive for good than vice is infectious for evil. Clergymen must not be hermits, but rather in the world though not of it; all things to all men, that they may save some. Great harm is done by their absence from those places and pastimes in which laymen see nothing immoral or irreligious, and the latter resent it, as suggesting the evil which they do not find. Moreover, it confirms the hurtful notion that the clergy are wanting in manliness, and is used as an argument by those who rejoice to disparage and to denounce us as 'a lot of old women.'"

The Dean has been an enthusiastic fox-hunter and cricketer, keeping up both sports after he had taken orders. He avows that if he were a Bishop, and the question were put to him by a "priest" whether it was right for a clergyman to hunt, his answer would be that it was, provided the priest had the time and the money and would ride *straight to hounds;* if he heard of the priest's "craning and shirking," he would withdraw the permission. Archery is comparatively ecclesiastical, and rose-growing, for which the Dean is famous, still more so. He would be sorry to hear, he says, that the ecclesiastical element was banished from the chase, because its participation contradicts the impression that parsons lose their virility on taking holy orders. He even flatters himself that he "drew" more as a clergyman from having been seen on the hunting-field.

Not only fox-hunting but the turf receives the Dean's approbation, qualified by a pious proviso against betting and black-legging, which is about as effectual as a proviso as that the devil shall not be black. His principal associations—those, at least, about which he tells us most—were with the *Punch* set and literary men of the cognate circle, whose conversation probably did not often turn on theology and whose habits are not likely to have been ascetic. He does not mind letting us know that in his youth he gambled, and once at Paris lost a large sum, from the payment of which, however, he escaped, owing to the notorious character of the men with whom he lost it. He has certainly been "in the world," and must sometimes, as when enjoying an evening with Douglas Jerrold and Mark Lemon, or riding straight to hounds, have found it difficult not to be "of the world."

On the other hand, he appears to have been an excellent parish clergyman, exemplary in the performance of all his duties. He has been a Select Preacher before the University of Oxford, and has risen at last to the highest grade but one in the profession. With his geniality, his good sense, his popularity, and his prestige as a rider and batsman he has no doubt been an extremely useful element in English country life, done something to keep society, even society of a rather boisterous kind, decent, and, by "being all things to all men," succeeded in "saving some." He has the satisfaction of stating that a huntsman once apologized for having in his presence damned the horn of the master of the hunt. He has been, in short, a not inconsiderable grain of the salt of the earth. To assign his exact position in the spiritual world is not easy. It is needless to say he is a High Churchman. He sympathizes moderately with the Oxford Movement, reveres our "solemn and beautiful Liturgy," cherishes the Rubric of Edward VI. permitting the use of pontificals, though he doubts the expediency of taking advantage of it, and steers a judicious middle course on the subject of what the high-flying Anglicans now frankly call the Mass. He styles himself a Catholic Priest, without the slightest suspicion of incongruity in the picture of a Catholic priest "riding straight to hounds." All the other churches of Christendom, we repeat, may be challenged to produce his counterpart.

Of the remarkable characters whom the Dean has known, he has most to tell us about Leech, of whom he relates several anecdotes, none of which seems to us so good as Leech's rough sketches, facsimiles of three or four of which are given. There are, however, some amusing stories in the book. Here is one which the Dean heard from an eye-witness:

"In a London home it was the custom to place a foot-warmer, before the repast began, in front of the chair of the hostess, who was chilly and infirm from old age. On this occasion the guests were early, or the footman was late, and the latter was still under the table when the former took their seats. The lady of the house became conscious of some motive power below, and, thinking that it came from a favorite retriever, who was allowed to roam where it pleased, fondly addressed it as 'Rollo, good Rollo!' and, failing to hear the protest, 'It's not Rollo, grandmamma—it's Alfred,' affectionately patted the head as it emerged from the table, with a halo of powder and an expression of perplexity which Leech himself could not have copied."

Readers will laugh, too, at the boy in the Church school who, on being asked what sign Peter gave of repentance, replied, "He crowed thrice"; and at the farmer who, at the rent-dinner at Belvoir, being served with some rich liqueur, smacked his lips and, turning to the footman behind him, said, "Young man, if you've no objection, I'll tak' some o' that in a moog."

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*The Recrudescence of Leprosy, and its Causation.* By William Tebb. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.

THIS good-sized volume may be likened to a cry out of the wilderness—one is tempted to say out of the wilderness of ignorance, but that would not be a fair saying in all respects. It is freely admitted by those who know anything of the subject that leprosy, which at one time was a widespread scourge in Europe, and which isolation rendered practically extinct there, is now advancing up the line of diseases, and in some parts of the world is a very serious plague. In Minnesota and Louisiana at home, and in New Brunswick on our borders, there are formidable groups of such cases. It was taken to the Sandwich Islands along with other fatal gifts of the life-destroying whites, and there it is a deadly cloud from which distress and suffering constantly flow. It is in the West Indies, not indigenous but imported; it has overshadowed the East Indies from an immemorial time, and, with the contraction of the earth's surface under the pressure of increasing intercommunication, it is advancing into regions hitherto exempt. All this may be admitted, and it is very well that there is a public warning.

Nearly twenty years ago the discovery by Hansen of the *bacillus leprœ* brought leprosy within the category of specific diseases, and gave a logical basis for the popular opinion of its communicability. It is not contagious in the sense that smallpox and scarlet fever are; it is as typically inoculable as another more widely spread disease. Its inheritance has been doubted, but as the bacilli are sometimes found in the blood as well as at the exterior seats of the disease, there is no reason why there may not be hereditary lepers. Its ordinary spread is the step-by-step one of inoculation. Whether that inoculation is accidental, as in the reported cases of pricking by a fish-hook polluted by lepers; or incidental, as in the daily contact of domestic life; or unintentional but extrinsic, as in the use of infected instruments, inoculation is the usual determining cause. If all the lepers could be kept in seclusion, non-intercourse would free the world of the disease. For reasons too numerous and too complicated to detail here, that is impracticable. Then, deliberate and presumptive although undesigned inoculation must be guarded against. And here is the key to this book. While he does not use exactly those words, the author evidently believes vaccination to be a device of the adversary, and full of evil, and especially efficient as a maker of lepers. It is not at all impossible that the inoculation of humanized vaccine directly from the arm may also be the occasion of the inoculation of leprosy. In fact, it may be admitted that that has occurred, that it may continue to occur, and that there is a widespread fear of such vaccination in leprous countries on that account; and the logical deduction is that the utmost precaution should be used in determining the character of the virus.

The account of the spread of leprosy in various parts of the world corresponds sufficiently with known scientific data to be accepted in a general way, and in that respect this popular treatise is an addition to popular knowledge. But the true object of this book is not to proclaim the rise or fall of leprosy, but to denounce vaccination. The alleged subject is a side issue. The real kernel and essence of the whole is condemnation of "the Jennerian cultus," as the doctrine of vaccination is designated. In so far as this book shows, as we think it does, that leprosy is increasing and that one of its modes of distribution is through improperly selected vaccine virus, it is commendable. But it would be more commendable were it addressed to the profession charged with the function of antagonizing smallpox, and not to the general public, whom it may fill with unreasoning fear. But when, going beyond the subject of leprosy, it holds that vaccination does not prevent smallpox, and that it is itself a disease more to be dreaded than that against which it is directed, and therefore that it should be abolished, it exhibits ignorance and prejudice combined in such proportions as quite to disqualify the author from expressing a competent opinion. Whatever may be the actual origin of the true vaccine lymph, concerning which there is dispute, there is no real doubt of the immense value of the practice introduced by Edward Jenner, or that it practically accomplishes what is claimed for it. A serious advocate of the abolition of vaccination is a physical anarchist.

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*Les Fabliaux.* Par Joseph Bédier. Paris: Bouillon.

THIS important and erudite work forms part of the publications of the École des Hautes Études, issued under the auspices of the Ministry of Public Instruction. Such a testimonial

to its worth is deserved. M. Bédier is one of the younger scholars trained by M. Gaston Paris. The latter looks with particular favor upon the writer and his work, although M. Bédier controverts some of the positions held by his teacher. The book is a mass of information, well-ordered, clearly set out, and covering very thoroughly the ground the author has selected. It is likely to attract much attention from students of folk-lore in general, M. Bédier taking a stand in opposition to the most universally adopted systems which seek to explain the genesis of popular tales. He holds neither with the Orientalists, who bring back all tales to Eastern originals, nor with the anthropologists. In his opinion—and he backs it with much solid fact—the influence of the East has been very greatly overrated; impartial investigation fails to find sufficient grounds for declaring that India is "the reservoir, the source, the matrix, the motherland of folk-lore." No more, he affirms, is true than this: "India has produced great collections of tales and has propagated a large number of these both orally and in writing."

He does not admit that certain tales, found in many different countries, must necessarily have had a common origin, much less that that origin must have been Eastern. It is impossible, he contends, to know anything of the origin or of the method of propagation of such stories, among which he includes "the vast majority of popular tales, almost all the fabliaux and fables, and nearly all fairy tales." As far as France is concerned, he finds only a small number of folk-tales traceable, not always clearly, to an Oriental origin. For one class of tales only does he admit the possibility of tracing the origin by internal evidence: it is that which comprises what he terms ethnic tales—that is, those which bear plain marks of a particular race or nationality. These ethnic tales are the peculiar property of the race which has invented them; they cannot belong to any other, and it is comparatively easy to trace them back to their sources. But as no race has a monopoly of the invention of tales, M. Bédier contends that many similar tales may have arisen and did arise in different countries, and are the common patrimony of many nations.

At first sight it may appear that M. Bédier has merely set out to overthrow two or three systems in which he does not believe, and that he has nothing to offer in the place of that which he says must be taken away. This is not a just view either of what he has proposed to himself or of what he has accomplished. He does present a new theory, simple, it is true, but which bears examination and application well; if it proves a better method in the examination of folklore, his object is attained; if, on the other hand, the Orientalist system prevails over his attacks, he will have done it a real service, for it is certain that the system has many weak points, not the least of which is its arbitrariness. In any case, all interested in folklore will find it necessary to read M. Bédier's work, to weigh carefully his arguments, and to note the numerous facts he adduces in support of his views.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, T. K. First and Second Latin Books. Revised. American Book Co. $1.
Ballantyne, R. M. The Walrus Hunters. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.50.
Cox, Palmer. The Brownies at Home. Century Co. $1.50.
D'Araujo, Oscar. L'Idée Républicaine au Brésil. Paris: Perrin & Cie.
Edwards, G. W. Thumb-nail Sketches. Century Co.
Foster, A. J., and Cuthell, E. E. The Robber Baron of Bedford Castle. T. Nelson & Sons. 80 cents.
Greenough, Prof. J. B., and Peck, Prof. Tracy. Livy, Books XXI. and XXII. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Harland, Marion. My Little Love. G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.
Japp, A. H. Hours in my Garden. Macmillan. $1.75.
King's Handbook of New York City. 2d ed. Boston: Moses King. $2.

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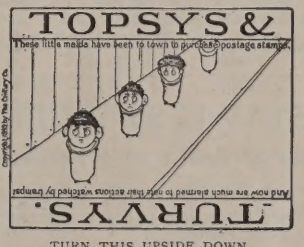
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[*Educational continued on page vi.*]

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 19, 1893.

## The Week.

THAT learned jurist, ex-Judge Thomas M. Cooley, gives very clearly and concisely to the *Evening Post* his opinion as to what the Senate ought to do to put an end to the disgraceful deadlock which a minority of its members are maintaining. "Members of the majority," he says, "should make the proper motions looking to definite and final action on the pending measure, and the presiding officer should recognize them, since only in that way can the inalienable right of the Senate to express its will be exercised." This places the whole matter in a nutshell. The talk about the Vice-President having no power to act in this matter because he is not elected as a member of the Senate is the sheerest nonsense. The Constitution not only provides that he shall be President of the Senate, but it gives him a casting vote whenever the Senate is equally divided. This is as specific a grant of all the powers of a presiding officer as could be asked. If some Senator will make the necessary motion for a vote on the repeal bill, and the Vice-President will sustain him, the latter will be the most popular man in the United States.

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Senator Vest tried to turn a very sharp corner on Monday when asked how he expected to pass a tariff bill or the repeal of the election laws if it were true, as he contended, that "one-fifth of the Senators present can prevent the passage of any legislation." His reply was: "When we reach the election bill and the tariff bill, . . . the responsibility of defeating the will of the majority will rest properly where it belongs." What this means, if it means anything, is that when a majority is all of one party and the minority all of another, then obstruction is outrageous and the responsibility of defeating the will of the majority something fearful, which no Senator or group of Senators could endure for a moment. But it is utterly impossible to make any such distinctions either in theory or in practice. A partisan majority is no more sacred than any other. Indeed, a majority made up of members of both parties has a far greater presumption in its favor of standing for the popular will. A question that cuts, like the repeal bill, right across party lines, gives the best of all opportunities for Senators to align themselves in accordance with the real interests of the people. No majority whipped into line by a party caucus could ever have such moral weight. More than that, if the majority rule is to be defied, it will make an end of all parties. Submission to the majority is their vital breath. If a minority can defeat a law which the majority want, it can defeat the will of a caucus, can repudiate party pledges, can bolt a platform or a candidate with just as good right. Senator Vest cannot cut up all government by the roots and hope to leave government by party uninjured. His statement of his own position is his sufficient humiliation and condemnation.

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There is evidence that the silver craze is waning in Kansas as well as in Nebraska. It will be remembered that the recent Democratic State convention in the latter State rejected free coinage by a vote of three to one, and heartily endorsed President Cleveland's position. No State convention is to be held in Kansas this year, but the Democratic conventions in three of the most populous counties have just nominated straight party tickets, in one county for the first time in four years, while in one convention a free-coinage resolution was offered and defeated, one being adopted in its stead which endorsed the President's course. As only last year free coinage was almost universally endorsed by the Kansas Democrats, and they "fused" with the Populists in support of Weaver for President, the change in sentiment revealed by these conventions is most significant.

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The bankruptcy of the Union Pacific Railroad brings up anew the question how the maturing claim of the Government upon that corporation shall be adjusted. This question has been before Congress nearly ten years, and has received fitful attention. But Congress never gives more than fitful attention to any subject that is not immediately pressing. Now the subject becomes a pressing one. The debt matures at various periods from 1895 to 1899, and amounts to upwards of $52,000,000 net. Congress can no longer dodge the problem of Union Pacific finances, if it can once get its own finances straightened out. What the bankruptcy of the company illustrates most strikingly is the absolute collapse of business west of the Missouri. New competition and over-extension had no doubt prepared the way for trouble; financiering based upon Government subsidies, which made a memorable scandal in our history, piled up obligations which the company is now not able to meet. Yet it is probable that the great system would have maintained its solvency had its ordinary earnings been assured. But the net returns over operating expenses, which in April nearly equalled the returns of 1892, decreased from last year's net by $578,497 in June, and by $724,402 in July. The decrease for July represented a falling off of nearly 50 per cent.; the August earnings, not yet reported, will probably show heavier losses still. For the seven reported months, the net returns were more than two millions and a half below the seven months' returns in 1892. For all this frightful wreck of business the responsibility lies primarily at the door of the silver agitation. The loss of earnings is the visible sign of shrinkage and distress in the country through which the Union Pacific runs. It is grim justice which has meted out the heaviest penalties to the hotbeds of this silver craze, the States whose Senators are now leading in the struggle to block legislation.

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The new Chinese-exclusion law reported on Wednesday week by Congressman McCreary, and passed on Monday almost unanimously, makes some approach to humanity and decency, as may be inferred from the fact that Congressman Geary of California opposed it. Luckily, his sand-lots arguments and threats did not prove as formidable as they were a year ago. It is to be presumed, moreover, that the amendments of the law reported from the committee on foreign affairs are acceptable to the Chinese Government, in the sense that they are the most to be hoped for at present, and take a good deal of the cruelty and insult out of the statute of May 5, 1892. The color line is not any longer to be drawn by the infamous phrase of the old law, "one credible white witness," and the period for taking out certificates is extended by six months. Further, the amendments make a definition of the word "laborer," instead of leaving it undefined, so as to be applicable to almost any Chinaman whatever. We do not find "highbinding" included in the definition, and this would seem to upset the recent decision of the California judge that it is a form of manual labor.

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The Bar Association has lost no time in showing that the attitude of its members towards Judge Maynard has not been modified since it pronounced him guilty of one of the "gravest offences known to the law." By a practically unanimous vote it declares that his nomination was "one not fit to be made," and "urges upon every citizen, irrespective of party, and especially upon all lawyers, the paramount duty of opposing to the utmost the attempt to reward unworthy conduct with a seat on the bench of our highest judicial tribunal." If Maynard has any friends among the lawyers of this city, they are very shy about appearing in public in his behalf, for the three or four of them

who were present at the Bar Association's meeting when this declaration was made, were careful to keep in the background. The proposal which was made to appoint a committee of nine to procure the indictment and trial of Maynard for felony was voted down—very wisely, we think, because it would have been an impossibility to accomplish anything in that direction within the few weeks before the election. His case is before the people for decision, and the verdict must be rendered at the polls in November.

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Gov. Flower came to town on Saturday without a "discreet mentor" of any kind in attendance upon him, and while in this exposed position was caught by the reporters and asked to talk about Maynard. He responded with perfect frankness, and the result was a clearer revelation of the governor's moral and mental attributes than the public has heretofore been permitted to enjoy. His main point in Maynard's behalf is that, while it is true that Maynard was a thief, it cannot be denied that he was stealing for the people the "constitutional rights" which the Republican party had stolen away from them [the Democrats] through an unjust apportionment. We think it safe to say that this is the first time that the governor of an American State has taken the position openly that theft is a justifiable and praiseworthy method for recovering lost "constitutional rights," and that the thief should be paid for his crime by placing him on the bench of the State's highest court to interpret its laws.

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It is doubtful if the power of any former Tammany boss has been as absolute as that which Croker is exercising at present. There is no concealment of the fact that he is selecting all the candidates for all the offices. He decides what Senators and Assemblymen shall be allowed to return to Albany, what men shall go on the ticket as delegates to the Constitutional Convention, who shall run for comptroller, district attorney, and the judgeships, and who shall be "turned down." When it is remembered that the man who exercises this power was an ordinary rowdy or "tough" till he took to politics, that he is without education, that he is very rich to-day, though he declared on the witness-stand a few years ago that he was a poor man, that the men who are associated with him in the direction of the city government are, like him, amassing fortunes, the wonder of it all is that the people of the city remain quiet under his dictatorship. Why is he able not merely to put criminals and semi-criminals in office, but to "turn down" honest officials simply because they do not obey his orders, or because they commit that to him unpardonable offence of commenting on his sudden wealth and asking its sources?

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Discussion of the World's Parliament of Religions continues in the pulpit and the religious press, and the verdicts on it run all the way from hearty praise to shuddering contempt. The Rev. Dr. Dix is reported to have characterized the Parliament on Sunday as a "masterpiece of Satanic ingenuity." It is a little difficult to understand such heat. What was done at Chicago was simply to illustrate in a concrete form what travel and the comparative study of religions have for years been bringing to the minds of men. Those types of belief and religious theory which travellers and such publications as 'The Sacred Books of the East' have made more and more familiar, were grouped, by their representatives, on the platform at Chicago, and it is difficult to see why those who admit the educating value of travel and the comparative method should condemn the display of their well-known results. It recalls the intense prejudice which existed fifty years ago in this country against a theological education gained in Germany. There was no telling what ideas a man might bring back from a land where theological professors encouraged free inquiry and drank beer. That has pretty much passed away, and even the most orthodox of American seminaries have their fellowships to send promising graduates for two or three years' study in German universities. Indeed, it is now no small part of the glory of some of the most eminent of the conservative theologians of this country, that they went through, in their youth, the perils of German rationalism, and came out absolutely unscathed.

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The American Board of Foreign Missions has at last got itself out of the absurdity in which it has been floundering for the past dozen years. For all that time it has been setting up its authority above that of the churches whose creature it is. It has refused to appoint as missionaries, on the ground that they were not orthodox, men whom the churches declared to be orthodox, and whose ministerial good standing in this country was never questioned, not even by the men who prevented them from becoming missionaries to the heathen. This defiance of its maker by the machinery could not go on for ever, despite the skill with which some of the secretaries have managed to obstruct and thwart the majority of the denomination in a way to put even Senator Stewart to the blush. Thursday's vote at Worcester ends all that. The case was fortunately made up for the liberals. Mr. Noyes is a man of unquestioned scholarship and character, has actually been supported for some years in Japan as an independent missionary, and his appointment under the board was desired by all the native churches and by the other missionaries in Japan. Under these circumstances it is surprising that as many as twenty-four members of the board were willing to stultify themselves and their church by voting that the appointment should not be made. But they were outvoted, five to one, and the decisive majority, together with the changes in the personnel and powers of the prudential committee which are to be made, puts an end to an intolerable situation. Whatever may be the theological bearings of the decision, its practical effects must be good, since it will enable the churches which support the board to make it do what they want done, and will put an end to the ludicrous notion that a man who is orthodox in the United States is made heterodox by going to Japan.

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We have seen the end of the Briggs case so many times that a sceptical public has come to doubt if there will ever be a real end of it, and sure enough, to justify that doubt, word comes that the Presbyterian Synod of Ohio has been fighting that battle over again, as the New York Synod will also soon be doing in its turn. Meanwhile, there is some significance to be seen in the honorary degree of D.D. conferred upon Prof. Briggs by Williams College in connection with its centennial celebration. That he should be singled out at this point in his career as a man whom an institution delights to honor that has been so long supposed to stand for conservatism in theology, is suggestive, to say the least. Particularly is it so in view of the fact that the most prominent of the Williams graduates in the Presbyterian ministry are stout opponents of Prof. Briggs.

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That was a very handsome notice, as the publishers say, which the editor of the *Sun* gave the Bible in his lecture on journalism before the students of Union College. He put it in the first place among the authorities of modern journalism, and altogether paid it such a touching and heartfelt tribute that the honest young fellows before him broke into applause. It is a curious thing, by the way, that such a welcome is usually accorded by believers to the confessions of unbelievers. The testimony borne to the power of religion and the divinity of Christianity by those whose forte is not exactly a religious one, is always accorded greater weight in apologetic writings than the witness of the greatest saints. How often have the words of Rousseau and Napoleon in praise of Christ been cited for the confusion of the wicked! Thus we see that the applause of the Union students is not altogether without precedent.

At the very opening of the football season, Mr. Walter Camp, speaking of some of the gloomy aspects of the outlook, referred to a horrible rumor that the Yale faculty would not allow the Yale team to play the annual Thanksgiving game with Princeton in this city. This was on account of the orgies of the students after last year's game. Mr. Camp could only say that the rumor ought to be sufficient to make every loyal Yale man take a vow that he would not be seen in the streets of New York on Thanksgiving night either drunk or disorderly. But it is just reported from New Haven that the faculty have devised a more excellent way. They have agreed to let the game be played on condition that the manager shall go to Superintendent Byrnes and "request that he arrest all disorderly Yale men on Thanksgiving eve and the night following." We hope now to see the Princeton faculty make similar terms. In time we may, with the vigorous coöperation of the police, arrive at the idea that a brawler is a brawler, even if he is able to add a college yell to his other means of disturbing the public peace.

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Judge Abbett's charge, delivered to the grand jury at Trenton last week, urging the investigation of the recent hazing at Princeton and the indictment of the offenders for assault and battery, will of itself have a good effect. Coupled with the announcement of the public prosecutor that he will press the investigation with all diligence, it will, as Dean Murray of the college declares, remind the students who maltreat their fellows under the name of hazing that they "are amenable not only to the college faculty, but also to the civil courts of New Jersey." Hazing is a remnant of barbarism which carries its own mental and moral debasement with it, but perhaps its indirect evils are as great as its direct. Of these none is greater than the idea which it fosters that some classes of men are above the law. What sort of training for law-abiding citizenship is it to give college students to understand that they can with impunity subject another to personal indignities and perils, for which the law would speedily and severely punish less favored offenders? Equality before the law is of the very foundation of democratic government. That this truth should be brought home to Princeton students by showing them that some of their number are in danger of two years' imprisonment, may be very unpleasant for them and painful to the college authorities, but it is in the interest of good morals and good citizenship.

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There has been another failure in the attempt to overcome the lawlessness which has so long prevailed in the mountains of eastern Kentucky. A bloody feud between the French and Eversole factions in Perry County had raged so long and embroiled so many people, not only in that county, but also in neighboring counties, that there was no hope of bringing the offenders to justice by the usual methods. Although court could be held under the protection of troops, every imaginable obstacle prevented the serving of processes or the procuring of a jury, and trials were rarely more than a farce. The Legislature accordingly passed a law in 1890 which provided that the commonwealth might transfer such cases to a county safely removed from the scene of disturbance whenever it became manifest that a trial could not be had in the ordinary way, and the cases against the surviving participants in the French-Eversole feud were transferred to Clark County. They were very numerous, and for three years have greatly obstructed the civil business of the court in Clark County, while it appeared to be no easier to secure a conviction than in Perry, as witnesses could not be procured and no case at all could be made out against the surviving leaders in the feud. At last it has been decided to file away the indictments, upon the promise of the defendants to behave themselves. Meanwhile the spirit of the feud is still alive, and it is thought to be unsafe for certain of the old leaders to return to their homes. The Louisville *Courier-Journal*, which has labored zealously for years to abate this scandal, deplores the humiliating result, but finds ground for encouragement in the fact that there has been a gradual improvement in the condition of the mountain region, through the incoming of the schoolmaster, the railroad, and the capitalist. "The redemption of the mountains," it says, "will be completed, as it was begun, by the material development of the section, the building of railroads, the infusion of new ideas, along with new population, including the pedagogue and the editor."

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After the race on Friday it cannot be claimed that the latest contest for the *America's* cup has put an end to the controversy as to the comparative merits of centre-boards and keels in racing-yachts. The question is as open a one now as it ever has been. Whatever superiority the *Vigilant* may have shown in the first two races, it cannot be denied that in the final one she came out with only even honors with *Valkyrie*. In going to windward in a heavy blow, *Valkyrie* surpassed her antagonist. In running home before the wind there is no doubt that *Vigilant* showed greater speed. She recovered the two minutes, or nearly that, which she had lost in the beat to windward, and had passed *Valkyrie* when the latter's spinnaker was split, but for which accident the English yacht might have won the race by a few seconds on her time allowance. Of course accidents are part of the chances which the builders of racing yachts must have in mind, and if *Valkyrie* had not been seeking the advantage which a light spinnaker was supposed to confer, the accident would not have happened. It appears, also, that *Vigilant's* centre-board got jammed and that she was hampered somewhat by this in her run home. Taking all things into consideration, therefore, it is plain from this final test that the yachts were very closely matched, and that if *Valkyrie* had carried the additional ballast and greater sail area that she had in her English races, she might have given *Vigilant* a much harder task to save the cup. The two yachts are, in fact, a credit to the skill of the two countries which have produced them.

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An electoral bill with clauses conferring full suffrage upon women, having passed its third reading before both houses of Parliament in New Zealand, has received the formal assent of the governor, an officer appointed by the crown; the act becomes operative at the next general election in December, 1893. For three successive years the popular branch of the Legislature passed enfranchisement acts which gave women of European races the right to vote for all offices and on all matters on the same terms as men of European races; they were, however, prohibited from holding office, and all native (or Maori) women were excluded from the list of voters. In 1891 the Legislative Council (corresponding to our Senate) rejected, by a considerable majority, those clauses of the new electoral act which affected the political status of women. In 1892 it agreed to the enfranchisement of women of European races, but inserted an amendment allowing such women to vote *at home*, by recording their votes on specially prepared ballots or "voting-papers." The lower house declined to accept this amendment, on the ground that it opened the door to fraud and intimidation. No agreement was reached between the opposing parties until this autumn, when full political rights have been accorded to "women of both European and Maori races." The New Zealand Legislative Council consists mainly of life members appointed by the crown, and of certain cabinet officers, who change with each change of party. Had not the present ministry been Liberal, the record shows that this measure would have been again rejected, the vote standing 20 for and 18 against woman suffrage. New Zealand may claim a place in history as the first of English colonies to give women equal political rights with men. Her population is about 650,000, and women are numerically much in the minority.

*CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT.*

As the fight over silver repeal thickens, the fact becomes clearer, and is more widely recognized, that the question involved is that of constitutional government in America. Silver repeal is now only a branch of a much larger issue. Secretary Carlisle is a constitutional lawyer of the best type and of the first class. We are not surprised, therefore, to learn that he is inflexibly opposed to any compromise, no matter what happens. He is opposed to it because compromise would be the abdication of the majority, and this would be the end of constitutional government. The right of the minority to govern was affirmed by Senator Teller last Friday, in debate with Senators Hoar and Platt, in these words:

"So far as I am concerned, I am willing to take the responsibility which I have seen taken in this Senate by the best men in it for the last seventeen years. I am willing to go before the country on this question and insist that obstructive measures are placed in our hands by the Constitution and the rules of the Senate to prevent just such legislation; and under my oath I think it to be just as much my duty to enter into every obstructive measure possible to defeat it as I do that I should come here and vote against it when the final test comes upon the vote; and I intend to prevent any unusual proceedings if I can by any kind of obstructive measures, answerable only to the general constituency of every Senator, which is the constituency at large, my own local constituency, and my own conscience."

This brazen affirmance of the right of the minority to rule was demolished by Senator Hoar in a short but powerful speech, which closed with these ringing paragraphs:

"Under our system of government there is a more sacred constitutional right than the right of speech, and that is the right that, after full and fair and free speech, the irresistible current, the will of the majority of the American people, shall have its way; and there is but one way to determine what is the constitutional will of the American people, and that is by the constitutional vote of the majority in this and the other chamber. . . .

"Mr. President, if the Senator's doctrine be true, let us shut up our law books, let us burn up our Constitution, let us haul down our flag, for the fundamental thing upon which the sacredness, the wisdom, the usefulness, the glory of all these things rest, is that the constitutional will of a constitutional majority constitutionally declared shall be enacted into the law of a free people."

We repeat that the time of compromise is past. Better now that we should meet national bankruptcy, inability to pay the interest on the public debt, or the salaries of congressmen, judges, cabinet officers, or pensions, or the cost of carrying the mails. Better that we should come to the silver standard, and all that that implies, scaling down the wages of workingmen and shaving their deposits in savings banks 35 per cent. Better any kind of financial calamity than the overthrow of the rule of the majority on which our present and future national existence depends.

These things are what we have to look forward to if the silver-repeal bill does not pass. The course of events can be easily predicted. The gold balance is running down at the rate of nearly a million dollars per day. It cannot last more than ninety days at the present rate; it will probably not last so long. There will be some point at which the public will take the alarm and draw out what gold is left. Then the Government will no longer be able to maintain parity between the two metals. There will be a premium on gold, and this premium will increase gradually as it did during the war. The revenues of the Government will not improve. To the loss of confidence in the standard of value will be added the loss of confidence in the theory of our government.

Whatever else may happen, it is certain that the Government revenues will continue to shrink, so that the Treasury will not be able to meet its daily obligations either in gold or in silver. Many people think that in a last resort the Government has a great hoard of silver dollars and bullion which it could use when other funds failed. This is an entire mistake. The silver dollars belong to the holders of silver certificates, while the silver bullion is held against the outstanding Treasury notes. The amount of silver or of silver certificates *owned* by the Treasury is insignificant. The decline of the gold balance from day to day represents the decline of Government income. This is due mainly to the shrinkage of general business, which is due to the loss of confidence in the standard of value.

We are moving straight to national bankruptcy, which cannot be more than ninety days distant if the present condition of deadlock and minority government continues. We expect, however, that the deadlock will be broken and the rule of the majority restored long before the expiration of that time. An obvious way to bring on a vote would be for the Vice-President to refuse to recognize the minority after he considered fair debate exhausted. Fair debate was exhausted long ago. If the Vice-President should exercise this power, he would be sustained by an overwhelming majority of the nation. Speaker Randall exercised similar powers in the House when the count of the Presidential vote was going on under the report of the Electoral Commission in 1877. There was no rule in the House for limiting debate or dilatory motions. Yet Mr. Randall quelled the turbulence on the floor of the House with these memorable words:

"The chair rules that when the Constitution of the United States directs anything to be done, or when the law, under the Constitution of the United States, enacted in obedience thereto, directs any act by this House, it is not in order to make any motion to obstruct or impede the execution of that injunction of the Constitution and the laws."

What followed this decision of the speaker is told in the current number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, in an article on the Hayes-Tilden Electoral Commission. The first time that a dilatory motion was made, the Speaker refused to entertain it. An appeal was taken from the decision of the chair. He refused to entertain the appeal. He refused to entertain a motion for a recess, or for a call of the House, or to excuse a member from voting, or to reconsider, or to lay on the table. When asked if these motions were not in order under the rules of the House, he said they were. When asked if he would not put them, he said he would not. Why not? Because his obligations to law and Constitution were superior to his obligations to the rules of the House. In this way and in no other was a revolution prevented by the courage and manliness of Mr. Randall. Whether or not Vice-President Stevenson assumes the same responsibility and takes the consequences, the time for compromise on the pending bill has passed. Compromise now would not relieve the business situation; still less would it relieve the political situation. No more legislation can be done by Congress if a minority has the power to stop any bill that is displeasing to it. The election bill that has passed the House will be stopped, of course, and ought to be. Every bill ought to be stopped on system till order and the rule of the majority are reëstablished.

*WHAT MAYNARD DID.*

FOLLOWING the State election in November, 1891, there was a bitter contest over the returns from Dutchess County, involving the seat in the Senate from the Fifteenth District. The Board of County Canvassers, controlled by the Democrats, threw out, on a charge of being defective, thirty-one Republican ballots, and thus secured a majority sufficient to elect the Democratic Senatorial candidate in the district. The clerk of the board, who was a Republican, refused to sign the return thus secured, whereupon Gov. Hill summoned him to Albany, and after a brief hearing removed him from office and appointed one Storm Emans in his place. In the meantime the County Canvassing Board had appointed as secretary *pro tem.* one Mylod, who signed the return and forwarded it to Albany to be filed in the State offices for use before the Board of State Canvassers. After this so-called "Mylod return" had been forwarded, application was made to Judge Edwards of the Supreme Court, a Democrat, for a mandamus compelling the Dutchess County Board of Canvassers to reconvene and recanvass the vote, counting the rejected Republican ballots. At the same time application was made for an order restraining the Board of State Canvassers from canvassing the Mylod return.

Both these applications were argued before Justice Barnard of the Supreme Court, a Democrat, on December 5, and he granted both, declaring not only that the Dutchess County Board must make

a new canvass and return, but must count the thirty-one Republican ballots. In granting the orders, Justice Barnard said: "The State Board has a return which does not indicate the true result. It is proper that the board should hold its hand until the true record reaches it." Acting under Justice Barnard's order, the Dutchess County Board reconvened, recounted the vote, made out a return electing the Republican Senatorial candidate, and Storm Emans, the new clerk, signed it, and on the evening of December 21 mailed it in triplicate as the law requires to the offices of the governor, secretary of state, and comptroller. After he had mailed these three copies of the return he learned that a stay had been granted which estopped him from sending them. He started at once for Albany, and on the following morning he took from the governor's mail, at the governor's direction, the copy which had been sent to the governor, and received from the secretary of state the copy sent to him. The copy in the comptroller's office was taken from his mail by Maynard, without the comptroller's knowledge or permission; Maynard going to the office in the early morning and obtaining it from one of the comptroller's clerks.

Shortly after this legal and correct return was thus taken from the files of the State, the Court of Appeals rendered its decision upon the Dutchess County and other contested election cases. It upheld the position taken by Justice Barnard, declaring the Mylod return to have been the "result of an illegal and erroneous canvass," which the "court should not permit to be canvassed," since it "would alter the result of an election," and saying: "If another return should be duly sent to the board, properly authenticated, and containing the result of the legal action of the Board of County Canvassers, the State Board could canvass it." Under this decision, the Bar Association committee which investigated Maynard's conduct said it seems to have been the plain duty of the State Board to canvass the corrected return from Dutchess County. The State Board met immediately after the decision, with Maynard present as their counsel, and canvassed the Mylod return. The corrected returns, mailed by Emans, were never seen after Maynard and Emans took them from the mails. Other authenticated copies were served upon the members of the Board of State Canvassers before their meeting, but they refused to admit their existence when they came to act.

It is undisputed, Maynard himself admits it, that the purloining of the corrected and legal returns by himself, and Emans acting under his advice, was the only thing which prevented those returns from being before the State Board of Canvassers and being canvassed as the Court of Appeals directed. The Mylod return was canvassed, in defiance of the court's decision, because it was the only return before the board. By canvassing it the Democrats gained control of the State Senate by counting in a man who had not been elected. As for the stay upon Emans, which reached him after he had mailed the corrected returns, Judge Cullen of the Supreme Court decided on February 19, 1892, that the returns passed out of the official custody of Emans for ever when he put them in the mail, and that whatever action he might take to recover them would not constitute official misconduct, but personal crime. As for the legality of the transmission of the returns and the legality of their presence in the State offices, Judge Cullen said:

"There was, therefore, in law and in fact, a complete transmission of the returns to the officers prescribed by statute. The returns were not before the Board of State Canvassers, not because of any defect in the transmission, nor of a disobedience of the order of the court, but because, by the action of the secretary of state, the governor, and the counsel of the comptroller [Maynard] the returns were taken from the several public offices where they had been properly received and were given to Mr. Emans."

The nine eminent lawyers who composed the Bar Association committee, seven of them Democrats, and of whom two, at least, were put on the committee at Maynard's special request, said of his conduct in taking the returns from the comptroller's office:

"The county clerk's transmission of the returns of the 21st was regular and lawful. On the morning of the 22d they were regularly and lawfully in the respective offices of the governor, the secretary of state, and the comptroller. The secretary of state, under the statute, was bound to procure the two copies in the offices of the governor and comptroller. And those officers had no right in law to deliver these copies to any other person than the secretary of state.

"Even if the stays were valid, as to the county clerk, and the amended statement was transmitted by him in violation of the stays, this, in our opinion, would afford no justification for their removal by Judge Maynard. The situation of the county clerk with reference to the stays did not authorize Mr. Maynard to remove the document in question from the office of the comptroller.

"The removal of these returns, therefore, on the morning of December 22, by Judge Maynard and Mr. Emans was entirely without any warrant or justification in law, to be found in any order of stay.

"If we have correctly stated the facts, the offence committed by Judge Maynard is one of the gravest known to the law."

Mr. Frederic R. Coudert, one of the Bar Association committee, testified before the committee of the Legislature that he considered Maynard's offence a "shocking crime"; and he has said of it since Maynard's nomination:

"Having appropriated this paper, Judge Maynard retained it. He was present when the count was made and the election was given to the Democratic candidate for the sole reason that the abstracted return was not before the Board of Canvassers. This gave the Democrats the majority. It was a great service, and one of the delegates to the recent convention, with blunt frankness, stated that Judge Maynard was entitled to this high reward for that service.

"Personally, I am free to say that my opposition to Judge Maynard is not based so much upon the act, illegal and immoral as I believe it to have been, as upon the fact that he believes it to be justifiable. If the view of his brethren of the bar is correct, he suffers a defect of moral vision which should incapacitate him for the bench."

The impressive words which ex-Judge Danforth, retired by limit of age after years of honorable service upon the Court of Appeals bench, uttered last week upon the gravity of Maynard's candidacy, cannot fail to exert a profound influence upon the voters of the State. Especially will they impress the lawyers of the State, whose calling is menaced by that candidacy as nothing else could menace it. Judge Danforth, speaking as a lawyer to lawyers, truly says: "The office of judge is not a political office. It is personal in its character. We are bound to inquire for ourselves and our clients whether the candidates for that office are men of integrity and purity of character." If defiance of law, open and confessed, is to be rewarded by elevation to the bench, then what confidence can any one have in the courts? Men will will not go to law if the law is to be administered by those who defy and disregard it, and the lawyer's calling will cease to be a profession in which honorable men can engage.

## *REPUBLICANISM IN BRAZIL.*

THE conflicting reports that come from the scene of the civil war in Brazil leave a great deal of doubt hanging over the actual condition of affairs, and still more over the question what the trouble is all about and what the parties to it expect to accomplish. If we may believe the proclamations and manifestos of the rivals, Admiral Mello and President Peixoto, each has room in his breast for no other passion than the purest patriotism and love of free institutions. The admiral wants to oust the President only because the latter has violated the Constitution and trampled upon the rights of free Brazilians. He asserts that he wants no office of any kind himself, and is only desirous of restoring the republic to its pristine purity. On his part, the President has wrapped the flag about himself in an affecting manner, and declares that he holds on to his office, not out of love of power, but only in order to save republican government from being stricken down.

A great deal of light is thrown upon the antics of these warriors by a little book just published in Paris by Oscar d'Araujo, entitled 'L'Idée Républicaine au Brésil.' In it the author gives a clear historical sketch of the true republican movement in Brazil, from its beginnings to the present day, and shows how, after it had done much by peaceful propaganda to prepare the minds of the people for a republic, it was unfortunately supplanted and pushed one side, for the time being, by those military adventurers who have been playing ducks and drakes with the fortunes of

Brazil for the past four years. The celerity and completeness of the fall of Dom Pedro cannot be explained except on the ground that there was at the time a widespread readiness in the country to accept a republican form of government. Otherwise there would have been uprisings in the provinces when the Emperor was made a captive at the capital. There would have at least been loud protests and some form of organized resistance. But the fall of the empire was acquiesced in with surprising quiet and unanimity. This was no doubt partly the result of the ignorance and degradation of vast numbers of the population, who were prepared to submit without murmuring to any government that might come along, and to be thankful that it was no worse. The centralization of the empire also no doubt helped on its fall, as the army in possession of Rio de Janeiro had as good a chance of dominating the whole country as an army in control of Paris would have of bending all France to its will. But granting all this, it yet remains to account for the ease and willing minds with which the Brazilian people dropped the empire and took up a republic.

It is the merit of Senhor d'Araujo's book that he shows how this was possible. He traces the growth and spread of republican ideas in Brazil, and shows that the republican agitation was a genuine historical movement, retaining its form and aim from the days of the viceroyalty down through the break with Portugal to our own time. Beginning with 1720, when a certain Filipe dos Santos was drawn and quartered for having tried to set up a republic, there were seven distinct and considerable attempts to establish republican institutions in Brazil before the finally successful effort in 1889. All through, it is possible to trace a close connection between republican agitation in France and in Brazil, as some of the dates of Brazilian uprisings would indicate, viz., 1792, 1831, 1848. Indeed, the first serious republican movement was the work of a group of Brazilian students educated in France, where some of them made the acquaintance of Jefferson, with whom they opened negotiations for the recognition by the United States of their projected Brazilian republic.

They failed, as did some of their successors who appealed to force, but resort to methods of national discussion was more successful. Newspapers devoted to the propagation of republican ideas sprang up here and there throughout the country, no less than seventy being in existence when the revolution of 1889 broke out. Through pamphlets and books, also, as well as by articles in the paid sections of non-republican newspapers, the republican propaganda was carried on, and one man, Silva Jardim, made himself famous by his public lectures and speeches in favor of a republic. He had shrewdly and patriotically, like all the other advocates of a republic, thrown himself body and soul into the abolition movement, sure that the impulse towards liberty given by freeing the slaves would turn to their account in the end. He it was who, early in 1889, declared, on the strength of his knowledge of the gathering strength of republicanism in Brazil: "In the course of this year, the centenary of the French Revolution, the world will see a republic in Brazil. In that way we shall celebrate the great date."

In his concluding chapter Senhor d'Araujo shows how the military autocrat, Fonseca, stepped in at the critical moment to take advantage of the republican movement for his own aggrandizement. Calling the new order of things a republic could not disguise the fact that it was a military oligarchy. Little by little the old republican leaders were pushed aside or drew aside, and the control of affairs passed more and more into the hands of soldiers. When Fonseca lost the army, he was toppled over by Peixoto, and it now remains to be seen whether Mello can use the navy to put himself in power. Meanwhile, in all the confusion, it is clear that the republican sentiment of the country has body enough to make the rumored restoration of the monarchy highly improbable. The question is if it can make head against its own professed friends. The recent action of the Brazilian Supreme Court, in asserting the dignity and independence of the judiciary in the face of an arbitrary and overbearing President, is of the happiest omen. It is in such men that the hope of the country lies, whatever be its form of government, and it will depend upon the number of such men that they can muster whether Brazilian republicans will be able to show their right to bear the name.

## SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA REVISITED.

PORTLAND, OREGON, August, 1893.

THERE are few more delightful and exhilarating experiences than driving, or riding in an open cable or electric street-car, along one of the eucalyptus and pepper-tree avenues which adorn all the towns and villages of southern California. Not only is their evergreen appearance a pleasure to the eye, but they diffuse an agreeable, invigorating fragrance which is so characteristic and unmistakable that, if a New Yorker who has once been in this region could, without his knowledge, be transferred there again while asleep, he would exclaim on awakening, "I am in southern California." Yet these fragrant, tonic, and hygienic avenues are not any more indigenous to California than the jinrikishas, or man-power carriages, which we see in all modern Japanese pictures, are to that country, where they were introduced only about a quarter of a century ago by foreigners. No older than that are the eucalyptus and pepper-tree avenues of southern California, most of them existing in regions which twenty years ago were portions of a desert as barren and parched as the greater part of Arizona is to-day. They are among the magic results of irrigation, which has converted land worth about a dollar an acre into homesteads worth $500 an acre; as at Riverside, for example—in 1870 an uninhabited stretch of desert, now a city of 7,000 inhabitants, with 12,000 acres under cultivation, yielding almost $3,000,000 a year, or an average income, it is claimed, larger than any other town of the same size in this country, or in any other, can boast of.

Such a claim may seem somewhat "Californian," but to one who has seen the well-kept, luxuriant orange-groves of Riverside, it does not sound extravagant. On the other hand, it must be said that a community which has been so exceptionally lucky and prosperous should have known how to bear a temporary affliction with more prudence and honesty than the Riversiders showed last year. An unusually heavy frost damaged a large part of the crop. The oranges were all right to the eye, but on being cut they were found to be without juice or flavor. Nevertheless, they were sent to market, with the result that this year the purchasers were wary and shy. Such a way of jeopardizing a well-earned reputation was the more foolish as Riverside has now many rivals in the wholesale production of the juicy, seedless, profitable navel oranges, of which for a few years it had almost a monopoly.

This growing predominance of the Washington navels over inferior kinds of oranges illustrates one phase of the progress which has been made within the last five years in southern California, where formerly the growers were altogether too careless in the choice of varieties for cultivation. Equally significant is the progress which has been made in combating the scale pest, which a few years ago threatened to exterminate the whole orange industry. The little beetle known as the Australian lady-bird has kept all the promises made for it by its importers a few years ago, having made short work with the white scale. It is extremely interesting to watch these pretty little beetles. They work in colonies, flying in large numbers on to one tree, which they proceed to clean until not a trace of the scale remains, whereupon they fly to the next tree and make that their camping-ground until it has been similarly scoured. The orange-growers have also successfully combated the prejudice against California oranges as being too sour, which arose from the fact that they used to be picked too soon. They are now picked and marketed not when they turn yellow, but a month or two later, when they have had time to ripen. The lemons, on the contrary, used to be picked too ripe, and for some reason the trees did not seem to flourish as well as the oranges. But within the last few years the lemon industry has recovered lost ground, the trees do well, and the price of California lemons begins to approximate that of the Sicilian. This is largely due to the fact that the growers have learned how to pick them green, and to cure them (each lemon being wrapped in tissue paper and laid away in boxes until the time for marketing has arrived). There are now more than a million bearing orange-trees (50,000 acres) in the State, and perhaps a quarter of that number of lemons; but there are some who predict an even greater future for the California lemon than for the orange. For my part, I should like to see the lemon superseded entirely by the Mexican lime, which has a superior flavor, twice as much juice, is more easily squeezed, and has only this disadvantage, that it does not keep so well as the lemon.

There is still a widely prevalent notion in the East that California fruit, while large and juicy and pleasing to the eye, is deficient in flavor. It cannot be denied that in New York it is not apt to be as luscious as Eastern fruit, but this is largely because it has to travel 3,000 miles and must therefore be picked before it is ripe. All tropical and semi-tropical fruits are infinitely more luscious eaten ripe off the tree than when picked green and made to ripen in a sunless car or ship's hold. It is also to be borne in mind that ignorant buyers make it more profitable to cultivate large and beautiful fruits, which are apt to be comparatively insipid, than varieties more highly flavored but less attractive to the eye. I lived for ten years in an Oregon apple orchard, and Oregon apples are perhaps the best in the world; yet I know that it was always the most beautiful apples and not the best-flavored that fetched the highest prices in the market. In various parts of California I have eaten peaches, cherries, figs, melons, etc., that were as richly flavored as any I have tasted in Italy or Spain, but I have also eaten much insipid large fruit which looked well in the market. The growers, however, are now learning that there are varieties which combine beauty with flavor, and by cultivating these they are teaching their customers that a rich taste, or fragrance (all so-called "tastes" in fruit, except sweet, sour, and bitter, are really a matter of fragrance) is not naturally denied to California fruits, as it is, for example, to the fruits of Japan—an instructive comparison. The fruits and vegetables of Japan are insipid because it rains too much there in summer. Now in California it never rains in summer. Why, then, have so many of its fruits been more or less insipid? Because—apart from the selection of inferior varieties—most of them were raised with the aid of irrigation imperfectly applied. It is only within the last few years that it has been discovered that too much irrigation is almost as bad as too little, damaging the trees and impairing the flavor of the fruit. A notion thus arose that irrigation in itself is injurious to fruit, but this is absurd, for irrigation is simply the application of rain-water at the right moment instead of leaving it to chance. Barely half as much water as formerly is now used by irrigators, who have also learned how to regulate and apply the flow with mathematical precision. The results are already evident in the superior quality and flavor of the fruit. The State now has more than three million acres under irrigation, and in a few years this figure will be doubled.

With the exception of the grape, probably everything grown for profit in California has made progress during the last few years. Raisins are, indeed, grown on a larger scale than ever before, and there is no diminution in the exportation of ripe grapes for the table, but the wine industry is not as flourishing as could be wished. The mysterious vine disease which arose at Anaheim appears, indeed, to have lost its virulence, and some young vineyards in that vicinity are doing well, but the phylloxera has now spread from Sonoma and Napa Counties to southern California, to the discouragement of the growers. These men have otherwise suffered unreasonably from the avarice and dishonesty of the middlemen and wholesale dealers, who refuse to pay more than fifteen cents a gallon for wines which they sell in the East for ten to twenty times that sum, the best of them under foreign labels, thus discouraging the formation of first-class Californian brands and helping to sustain the fictitious reputation of French wine-adulterators. Nevertheless, progress must be noted in the diminution of the supply of unskilfully made rough, sour wine, and in the more careful selection of grapes of a superior quality for bottling purposes.

If the supply of California wine equals or exceeds the demand, the same is not true of another luxury for the production of which the climate is specially suited. It would be well if all the disappointed vineyardists should turn their attention to the olive, which flourishes well in the State, and for which, as oil and in the pickled state, there is an unlimited field, as may be inferred from the fact that the United States imports almost a million gallons a year of what is supposed to be olive oil, though it contains but 34 per cent. of pure oil. California is expected to produce this year about 20,000 gallons—a mere drop in the bucket wanted. Of the three hundred varieties of the olive in existence, about seventy are said to be now growing in California; when the kinds best suited to climate and demand shall have been definitely ascertained, the profits and benefit to the country will be great. An olive tree over six years old is easily worth $10 a year, while a hundred-year-old mission tree at San Diego has yielded $144 in one year (192 gallons of olives). It must be remembered, too, that the American people have hardly yet learned a tithe of the value of olive oil, which, for cooking purposes, is far superior to lard, and even to butter. We do use it for salads, but even here we have much to learn from the French and Italians, who would not tolerate our cotton-seed adulterations for a moment. Californians could also enlarge the market for their olive oil by advertising the excellent French artichokes they raise, which make the best of all dishes with oil and vinegar. In New York restaurants we get half of one artichoke for twenty-five cents, while in California markets you get a dozen whole ones for about thirty-five cents. As artichokes keep well, here is a chance to make a fortune. The artichoke is the most tender and delicious of all vegetables, and the day will come when it will be as common as asparagus.

After all, in spite of the amazing developments of the last decade, southern California is still in an experimental state. Fruits, trees, vegetables, flowers, etc., of Mexico, South America, Africa, Japan, Australia are being tried and acclimated in picturesque confusion, and it is possible that the country will at the end of another decade again bear a quite different appearance, although the change will not be so great as that from the desert and cattle ranches of 1870 to the orange groves, clover-fields, and flower-gardens of to-day. Of the minor industries that I have had occasion to examine personally, only one—that of raising the large-eyed, awkward ostriches—has failed to prosper, and that not through any fault of the climate (for that, as an expert from South Africa told me, is remarkably like that of the ostrich's home), but because fashion is obdurate. But the Californian can always console himself with the reflection that if one thing fails to flourish on his twenty-acre ranch, he can try another; and if he is wise, he will not put all his faith in one crop, but will cultivate variety, so as to be independent of weather and seasons. He can market oranges from December to June, apricots from June to August, peaches from August to September; in October walnuts, prunes, plums, figs; and till January grapes—to give only a few samples. I may subjoin some specimens of profits made last year in Orange County—figures for the accuracy of which I can vouch: One 60-acre ranch (oranges and walnuts) yielded $18,100. One man obtained $550 from a single acre of orange trees. A walnut orchard of 35 acres, only ten acres in full bearing, brought $1,800. Twenty-five acres of apricots averaged about $100 per acre; 5 acres of peaches brought net $400; ten acres of pampas plumes netted $1,750; 1 acre of lemons $325; 1 acre of alfalfa (six cuts a year) brought $112.

With all this evidence of prosperity, the traces of the foolish "boom" of five or six years ago have not yet entirely vanished. For instance, the direct railroad from Colton to San Diego is not now running. In various towns, too, as in the lower part of National City, one notes buildings half finished at that time, and still half finished. Poor Tia Juana, the border town between the United States and Mexico, has been almost entirely demolished by a flood, which left only three or four shanties standing besides the Custom-house. Its only visible source of income is from the daily carload of tourists from San Diego, who may eat lunch or buy a few curios. On the other hand, San Diego and its fine Coronado Hotel on the sandy peninsula wear an air of prosperity. Let him who believes that southern California is too warm for comfort in summer spend a week at Coronado and he will change his mind abruptly. In three June days we found the noon temperature of the air 68, 66, 64—a good average—while the ocean was 67 and the bay water 73. Summer mornings at Coronado are apt to be foggy and melancholy, the evenings balmy and delightful. Coronado, too, is free from dust, the great summer nuisance of California. Los Angeles, not being quite so near the ocean, is less tempting in summer than in winter, but its streets always present a busy appearance, and many fine buildings, including two costly public edifices, have been erected in the last few years. And if you will take the Temple Street cable-car, you may see on a five-mile ride many ideal sites for a summer and winter villa. A town to be avoided in summer is Pasadena, except as a station on the way up to Mt. Lowe or Mt. Wilson on the mountain railroad, which is now being built, and which promises to be a great scenic attraction. We found not even a construction car running and had to pass a hot and dreary day in Pasadena, which is a paradise in winter, but the opposite in summer. The fine Raymond Hotel is then closed, and the only urban hotel open is so strictly "temperance" that you cannot get even mineral water or lemonade; this in a parched prohibition town, the water of which is criticised in the daily papers for impurity.

When the people of Pasadena or Los Angeles feel uncomfortable in summer, they go for a few days or weeks to Santa Catalina Island, twenty-eight miles off the coast, where it is never too warm in summer or too cold in winter, the climate, in fact, being pretty much the same all the year round, although the absence of rain in summer makes the amphitheatric mountains, of which the island is built, change in hue from green to yellow and gradually to brown. Catalina shows more signs of progress than any other resort of southern California. When I first visited it in 1889, steamers ran only once a week, and there was only one hotel; now there is a daily steamer (which touches at all the rival harbors of Los Angeles), half-a-dozen hotels, and last summer there was a tent population of 3,000 at Avalon, Catalina's harbor. A tunnel has been made to the next cañon or bay, and new paths laid out, including the plans of a stage road to the isthmus, while a fence is to be built separating the island into two sections, on one of which the

sheep are to be herded, while in the other the wild goats may again be hunted. It would be well, however, if the present law forbidding all shooting on the island were kept enforced permanently. Irreparable damage has already been done by the greedy wretches who, for the sake of a few inches of pretty down, have killed off the hundreds of pelicans which added so much to the exotic appearance of the island. The fishing is so good and varied here that it ought to give a sufficient vent to all sportsmen's cravings. You can sit at breakfast watching a dozen seals driving before them a school of flying fish making frantic endeavors to escape from their voracious pursuers, or men on the wharf hauling in the "gamey" twenty and thirty-pound yellow-tails.

If you prefer nature to sport, nowhere than in Catalina can you more easily and in less time walk into such an absolute and picturesque wilderness, up a cañon adorned with pools and cascades, varied shrubs and surprising floral beauties. Not the least attractive of these is the cactus, which in June still has some of its large yellow blossoms, while the beautiful red and juicy fruit, with its agreeable acid flavor, begins to ripen. Last year these cactus plants proved very useful to the islanders. The rain had been insufficient, and for months water and food were scarce; but the cattle were saved by burning the thorns off the cactus leaves and using them as food. There is a spoonful of juice in a square inch of cactus; were it not for its protecting thorns it would soon be exterminated by thirsty animals in the parched deserts.

In these Catalina cañons the June air is melodious with the voices of thousands of mocking-birds. Listening to them you recall with dismay the report that the abominable English sparrow has invaded northern California and is driving the mocking-birds away. It would be a calamity to have it come south too; in that case isolated Catalina might become the last refuge of the most interesting of all our song-birds—a bird which, on the perch or on the wing, is ever singing, not, like other birds, to attract a mate, but for the artistic pleasure of the song itself. Instead of a single call it has scores of phrases; seems, in fact, to try how many different melodies a bird-throat can utter without repeating itself. The mocking-bird is a genius among birds.

On Catalina Island, as in other parts of California, one of the most pleasant experiences is the unvarying courtesy and hospitality of the people. They never seem to tire of taking visitors, even perfect strangers, to see their flowers and fruits; they urge you to help yourself to oranges, figs, grapes, or whatever happens to be ripe, and they pick the choicest flowers to make a bouquet for you, giving the name, origin, and peculiarity of each, like expert botanists, and seeming to take a special pride in them, as if they had invented them. Nor would it be fair to trace this generosity entirely to the lavish profusion with which Nature bestows these luxuries on them; it is rather indirectly that we must seek for the source of these pleasant traits, in the benignity of the climate and fertility of the soil, which lessen the American fever of toil and competition, and pave the way for leisure and the social amenities which follow it.

HENRY T. FINCK.

## ARTS AND CRAFTS IN LONDON.

LONDON, October 2, 1893.

SOUTH Kensington Museum and its schools, it was once fondly hoped, were to revive the industrial arts in England, and set them once more on an artistic—that is, the only possible—basis. The failure of South Kensington in aught save the turning out of mediocre picture-painters is now a threadbare tale. The task it has not succeeded in accomplishing was undertaken, though on a much less ambitious scale, by the Arts and Crafts Exhibition Society some few years since. The name explained the members' object: they were to give shows of the work of genuine arts-and-crafts-men, and thus the people's taste must eventually be educated and the public standard raised. The first show, however, proved little but the narrowness of the society's own standard; only the neo-Gothic school, of which Mr. Burne-Jones, Mr. Morris, and Mr. Walter Crane are chief exponents, was represented. All decoration, judging from the collection, began and ended with arrangements of tall, gaunt, willowy figures, or else enlarged editions of the "Baby's Opera," done in various mediums and carried out in Morris schemes of color. Into the second and third exhibitions there entered a strong commercial element, which, perhaps, was one reason why it was thought well to leave a longer interval between third and fourth. This fourth has just been opened in the New Gallery.

If it can honestly be called representative, then indeed must the arts and crafts of England have fallen to a lower level than ever. It is easier to record its deficiencies than its merits. Furniture comes within the society's scope, and yet none is shown save an occasional desk, or sideboard, or table more remarkable for solidity than for grace or originality. In the designing of carpets, again, the craftsman has a fair field for the exercise of his ingenuity; but the one example contributed (one of Mr. Morris's creations) is so restless and dazzling in pattern and color alike that it is an offence rather than a pleasure to the eye. Of wall-papers there are few, except a new variation of Mr. Crane's peacock designs, and one or two of Mr. Day's rather heavy papers printed in tinted lacquers on metal foil. Textile fabrics make no finer display; of all the hangings of any kind none but one of the Morris tapestries attracts attention, and that, perhaps, because of its unusually large proportions and unusually vivid colors. Metal work, save in a few cases, glass, and pottery, come from long-established shops. Embroideries are mediocre. And, to crown all, the arrangement of exhibits is sadly ineffectual: confusion prevails; colors and effects are jumbled up together with strange indifference to harmony and fitness.

The truth is, to give its fourth exhibition vital interest, the society has borrowed from work done in the past. Thus, intentionally or no, it acknowledges the debt these craftsmen owe to the great leader of them all, Dante Rossetti, and, at the same time, confesses its members' shortcomings. The society has always made an elaborate showing of cartoons for stained glass, which this year again are to the fore. But, though many are by Mr. Burne-Jones; though the small color studies of Mr. Guthrie, the young Glasgow painter, are heralds of new talent in this branch of art, there is nothing to be compared with the six designs by Rossetti for the St. George series. Here you see spaces admirably well filled; figures treated with the necessary convention, but with none of that affectation beloved by Rossetti's disciples; color (at least in one design) exquisitely suggested. In these few small cartoons is thoroughly worked out the decorative problem which so many of the exhibitors have endeavored, haltingly, to solve in their own treatment of line and color. He is the master where they are but imitators. This simple series gives the keynote to the whole exhibition; it serves as additional proof—were proof needed—that Rossetti was the true inspiration of the English school of Primitives, the original man of genius among many artists of talent and ambition.

He is also the presiding influence in the department devoted to the art of book-making—he and Frederick Sandys. As was to be expected in a society of which Mr. Morris and Mr. Crane are prominent members, prejudice has ruled the selection of drawings, ornaments, and printed books included. Almost all the illustrations are done in the same archaic style; there are few specimens of printing that do not come from the Kelmscott Press; greater latitude has been allowed in the matter of bindings, but still Mr. Cobden-Sanderson has here the ascendency. However, these are matters that can be overlooked when a certain corner hung with drawings by Rossetti and Sandys monopolizes interest. Here are the originals upon which the other illustrators represented have based their methods. They are chiefly the well-known illustrations by Rossetti for Tennyson's and Christina Rossetti's poems; by Sandys, for poems by Christina Rossetti and Wither, and stories by Mr. Baring-Gould. They were published just at the time when England saw such a marvellous revival in the art of illustration, when photography was first applied to the arts of reproduction. Only too much of the best black-and-white work of that day—before the introduction of photography—perished, because drawings, being made on the wood-block, were ruthlessly cut to pieces by the engraver. But, fortunately, sometimes the artist made a duplicate drawing, or else, when photography began to be used, the drawing on the block was photographed before it was cut, or the original drawing was made, as now, on paper and then photographed on to the wood. Thus, a few illustrations and facsimile photographs have survived; to those who have never seen them before, the drawings now exhibited come as a revelation of the power of the pen work done by both Rossetti and Sandys.

In the same frames with them are shown prints of the woodcuts by Swain and Linton and Dalziel, the best engravers of the time. It is really cruel to learn how much of the delicacy, the refinement, the grace of the originals was sacrificed in the engraving. At times, even the lines themselves were not followed, new arrangements being substituted by the engraver. For the draughtsman it must have been heartrending to find his work so inadequately interpreted. These woodcuts would answer as excellent object-lessons to the purists who cry out against "process." In the same frames are also the preparatory sketches made by the two draughtsmen, who worked with a care and conscientiousness all too rare among latter-day illustrators. In their present surroundings the designs explain more forcibly than in the books where they were printed the distinction as pen draughtsmen of both Rossetti and Sandys, and also the well-nigh revolutionary effect they produced upon the art of illustration in England. Some of the woodcuts after Ford Madox Brown's designs for Dalziel's Bible are also exhibited, and are only less notable. Madox Brown, overrated as a painter, has never produced better work than his early illustrations.

If it be but little to the credit of the society that, for its best exhibits, it was forced to resurrect the work of some thirty and more years

ago, it is still more disheartening to find that its least successful contributions are those which should have been of paramount importance. Chicago has called attention to the art of mural decoration, sadly neglected, outside of France, in modern times. One is therefore doubly eager to see what in England just now is being done in this direction. It is only too seldom English artists are given a chance to display their powers; but, recently, the decoration of two public buildings has been undertaken. One building is St. Paul's, and Mr. W. B. Richmond, A.R.A., is the decorator. He shows at the Arts and Crafts his first sketches and one or two full-sized cartoons. The result is depressing. He has searched the Scriptures for his subjects, which necessarily are those often treated before by other painters. Not that this, in itself, is a drawback: but Sibyls and Annunciations and Angels have been so superlatively well done by other and greater men that his compositions and figures and color schemes seem all the more commonplace by the inevitable comparison. But the other enterprise promises even less well. Birmingham has a town hall with walls to be decorated. It is a commission which in France would fall to masters like Puvis de Chavannes and Besnard; in Birmingham it is handed over (from motives of economy probably) to the students of the Art School. The paintings now at the Arts and Crafts are no better nor worse than one expected. Barely commendable as the efforts of the mere apprentice, they are without dignity or beauty of design, without charm or glory of color, and are totally unworthy of a place on the walls of a great municipal building. That they at present hang in the New Gallery points to a lamentable lack of judgment on the part of an exhibition society of such artistic pretensions. N. N.

## MABILLEAU'S VICTOR HUGO.

PARIS, September 28, 1893.

IT seems as if there was not much more to say about Victor Hugo. Has he not said himself, in verse and in prose, all that we care to know about his birth, his life, his writings, his political views? A place has, however, been given to him in the series of critical essays on "les grands écrivains français," and the task of judging the most illustrious of our modern French poets has been given to an unknown writer, M. Léopold Mabilleau.

I will say at once that, difficult as it was, the task has not been badly done; the little volume on Victor Hugo (I do not know why all through the book the author writes V. Hugo instead of Victor Hugo; it is as if we wrote W. Shakspere instead of William Shakspere) is superior, in my estimation, to a great many volumes of the same series. Not that I approve the systematic order of M. Mabilleau's chapters; he has followed too exactly the method of analysis which was inaugurated by Taine. A man, especially a poet, is not like a chemical compound, which can be by some sort of process decomposed in order that we may know all its elements. Such titles of chapters as "La psychologie d'un poète," "La lumière et la couleur," "La forme plastique," etc., etc., give you the secret of the analytical method adopted by the new school of critics. The method is, in a sense, a convenient one; you can apply it to any work of art. There is no creation of the mind in which imagination, memory, method do not play a part; and you vary the applications of the method almost *ad libitum*, according to the nature of the work of art. The danger of the method is a tiresome dogmatism; and M. Mabilleau has not avoided it. His little book is full of definitions, of classifications. The sensibility of V. Hugo is, for instance, thus defined:

"In all the orders of perception, it passes through three phases: first *opposition*, then *exaggeration;* in the end the *fusion* of all the perceptible elements in a sort of final unity, where all the distinctions perceptible to the senses disappear. This order is logical and necessary, for a contrast ends in excess, and excess in the impression produces the evanescence of the reality."

In former times, this would have been called *galimatias;* but we are bound now to admire, even when we don't understand, these subleties of the analytical school.

The first years of Victor Hugo are well known. He has himself told us that he was born at Besançon (February 26, 1802), his father being a Lorrainer and his mother a Vendean. The father was an officer of fortune, probably of German origin. Hugo is not an uncommon name in Germany; it is the same as the English Hugh. The mind of the young child who followed his father's fortunes in Italy and in Spain became filled with many images, which were afterwards, by a sort of resurrection, found in the 'Orientales' and other poems. These reminiscences are very common, especially when the child is an "enfant sublime," as Victor Hugo proved to be. M. Mabilleau follows with a minute care the development of his poetical faculty. Victor Hugo felt at first the influence of the classical school, which was uppermost at the time of the Empire and at the beginning of the Restoration, but he did not feel it long. Chateaubriand initiated him into a new order of ideas; the transformation was completed by his love for Mlle. Adèle Foucher, who became his wife.

"We must note," says M. Mabilleau, "this first invasion of passion in the life of Hugo; we shall find no such example of it during the sixty years which he has still to live. Not that he remained insensible to the charms of woman—several celebrated liaisons and even some scandals would prove the contrary. But love proper, sentimental love, the feeling which inspires the poet and leads him to sing his happiness or his suffering, the very source of poetry for a Lamartine or a Musset—that sentiment found little place in the heart of V. Hugo, and his verses have kept only a feeble echo of it. Oftentimes his expressions regarding it are pure invention, or, rather, pure convention."

This remark is very true: in the poems as in the dramas, love is always somewhat artificial; it is a theme for magnificent images or for picturesque developments. "Must we conclude," asks M. Mabilleau, "that Hugo had no heart?" No, only in love as in everything else, the "faculté maîtresse," to use a favorite term of Taine's, is imagination. "With him, the states of consciousness, as soon as they are formed, become external, symbolic, and compose themselves by a sort of cerebral mechanism. The new emotion produces a world of forms, of colors, of notes which stifle the intimate accent. The sentiment ends in a metaphor." Here again we have some *galimatias;* but the final thought is just, and it was perhaps sufficient. With Victor Hugo the sentiment ends in a metaphor. The development of the poetical genius of Victor Hugo is the development of his imagination.

"You must understand by this word a power of impressionability always awake to the changing spectacles of the world, a rapid and intense perception of expressive form, a collaboration of the mind with the vision, which gives birth to an *image* where there was only a material appearance; which out of colors and lines draws thought and emotion; which, finally, interprets all sensations and symbolizes all figures."

For Victor Hugo, poetry is by excellence the echo of the material world in a vibrating and sonorous soul. He writes the 'Orientales' though he has never been in the East; he writes them with colors and images borrowed from Spain or from the setting sun. The poet has himself declared: "The idea of writing the 'Orientales' took possession of me in a rather ridiculous way, last summer, in going to view a sunset." There is in his mind a sort of permanent hallucination; he composes a "local coloring" of his own. It was while he was writing the 'Orientales' that Victor Hugo became a *romantique*, and associated himself with the new school, which had declared war on the ruling school, and of which he soon became the leader. He set forth its programme in the preface to "Cromwell": "A vast and profound movement is at work in the literature of this age; . . . nor is this surprising after a political revolution which has affected society root and branch. . . . There is a false literature, which is scholastic, and which is to the classic what superstition and fanaticism are to religion." Literary programmes are useless and pretentious when they are not supported by great literary works. "Hernani" came in time to serve as a living expression of the Romantic programme. It marked, in my opinion, the culminating point of the poetic genius of Victor Hugo. His dramas are ever young; they are applauded now even more than at the time when they appeared. There is much truth, however, in what M. Mabilleau says: "Victor Hugo, properly speaking, created no type. *Hernani*, *Didier* (of "Marion Delorme"), *Ruy Blas*, the only living figures of his dramas, are younger brothers of *Werther*, *René*, *Manfred*." What we really admire in "Hernani" is the lyrical beauty of the verses; we are also led away by the heroic character of the passions in play. Heroes, heroines are all characters *à outrance:* excess in love destroys *Marion* and *Didier;* excess of chivalrous honor destroys *Hernani*—all is excessive, superhuman, imaginary. We could not bear it in prose, but the splendid lyricism makes all these excesses seem almost natural.

Victor Hugo loves the superhuman; he likes also the grotesque, which, in a sense, is superhuman. He delights in such characters as *Quasimodo*, as *Rigoletto*, etc.; he likes deformities, or at least he considers them as the necessary antinomies of beauty. Fortunately, he does sometimes (not often) express perfectly natural sentiments, and he then rises to his true height. Nothing can be finer than these verses, which he wrote a year after the sudden death of his daughter Léopoldine, who was drowned with her husband two years after her marriage:

"Je viens à vous, Seigneur, Père auquel il faut croire,
Je vous porte, apaisé,
Les morceaux de ce cœur, tout plein de votre gloire,
Que vous avez brisé.
Dans vos cieux, au delà de la sphère des nues,
Au fond de cet azur immobile et dormant,
Peut-être faites-vous des choses inconnues,
Où la douleur de l'homme entre comme élément."

How simple, how different from so many later poems, which I must call apocalyptic for want of a better expression.

The quality of simplicity will certainly not be found in that part of M. Mabilleau's book in which he analyzes the foundations, the springs of Victor Hugo's poetical genius. We are informed by him that Hugo's eyesight was not like everybody else's; that he never wore spectacles, even at an advanced age; that his drawings, which were lately exhibited, show violent

oppositions of black and white—he never was sensible of any delicate shade of color. All his descriptions are, so to speak, violent; his sensations of form were violent also—he liked angular forms, fantastic, exaggerated lines. His eye was an instrument of imagination. He saw nature through his own mind, and it was to him a sort of permanent hallucination. Through his vision of the world, he ended by seeing nothing but himself.

His physical nature was peculiar: he was strong, and remained so to the end—square-shouldered. Sainte-Beuve had it from his hairdresser that his beard was very hard and chipped the razors. His teeth were like those of a wolf and could break anything. His appetite was extraordinary, and he could eat a great deal more than anybody and digest everything. He had a large head, heavy, a monumental forehead. Théophile Gautier has told us of his first visit to Victor Hugo, after "Hernani": "Twice did we mount the staircase, slowly, out of breath; we heard our hearts beat in our bosoms. At last the door was opened, and in a radiance of light, like Phœbus Apollo issuing from the gates of the dawn, appeared on the obscure landing Victor Hugo himself in all his glory." M. Mabilleau says that Victor Hugo was more than seventy when he first saw him. "It was the same man, with the same forehead, the same eyes, the same mouth, the same imperial majesty, the same audacity with the same mildness."

According to the theory of M. Mabilleau, founded on the succession of the poems, Victor Hugo became more and more subjective; images, forms, words became the mere playthings of his own imagination. He became at times almost drunk with words, with useless enumerations, with appositions and repetitions, with sonorous rhythms, with a purely plastic verbalism. At the same time, though he liked to play with physical appearances and with verbal formulas, he appeared in his own eyes more and more as a "pensieroso," as a thinker who has the privilege of looking behind nature, and who has for his mission to reveal its great secret to mankind. He became popular, and popular among people who certainly did not know even the names of his poems. He was known to be an apostle of the "pitié suprême." He had written 'Les Misérables'; his Olympic kindness embraced even the animal kingdom. He became a sort of idol; but he could not be unaware that, as he had been the first, he was also the last of the Romantics. When he disappeared, his revolted sons had formed new poetical schools, the Parnassiens, the Naturalists, the Symbolists, the Décadents. They could all say to him what Sainte-Beuve said to Chateaubriand: "We are your children; you have shown us the way."

# Correspondence.

## THE GENESIS OF A SENATOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The "wave of venality" which, according to the *Nation* of October 5, is now sweeping over the country, has gone over Delaware. The phenomena of its progress are distinctive enough to be worth recording.

Five years ago, when a split in the Democratic party gave the Republicans a majority in the Legislature, and they were struggling with that most difficult problem of political physics, the reduction of a multitude of candidates to a caucus nominee without the loss of energy and adhesion, there was suddenly sprung into the lists an altogether new and unfamiliar name. Inquiry revealed the fact that the gentleman represented by the name was the head of a large corporation doing business in several cities, and that his only connection with the State of Delaware was the ownership of a summer home in the northeastern part of the State, where he occasionally spent a few weeks. The new candidate bought up two or three small papers, established headquarters at the capital, and, for his money and his pains, failed to secure in caucus a single vote. His candidacy for the Senate was regarded as a joke, and as a bold man's device for gaining notoriety for himself and some desired legislation for his corporation.

For the next four years, but little was heard of our intermittent inhabitant as a factor in Delaware politics. A year ago, however, the Republicans put forth all their energy to elect a successor to the Hon. George Gray, whose term was about to expire. When election-day came, the Republicans, much to the chagrin of the Democrats, had more money than they could really spend. (Let it be remarked, in passing, that our Australian Ballot law is a mere statutory flourish) The Democrats saved themselves as if by fire. The wonder was where the money came from. Gradually it transpired that the political adventurer of four years before was the source of the tremendous corruption fund. As in the Van Alen case, there seems to have been no bargain. No pledges were exacted from the candidates for the Legislature. The money was given, and then a wish for the Senatorship expressed. He simply trusted to the wave of venality to float him into the Senate.

In March, 1895, the term of the present Republican incumbent, Anthony Higgins, will expire. All of the spoilsmen and bosses and henchmen are expecting our absentee candidate to hand over one or two of his supernumerary half millions, and thus assure power to both them and himself. If ends did not submerge means, if party did not ride over patriotism, we might ask the Republicans to save us from the scandal of being farmed out to the highest foreign bidder; but they will reply: "There is no lack of precedent in high Democratic circles. Your own Senator Gray reported favorably upon the Van Alen nomination. As your Van Alen is to the Italian mission, so is our Crœsus to the Senatorship." Delaware.

October 14, 1893.

## ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS IN SOUTHERN COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In two tendencies colleges in the South present an interesting contrast with those in the North. It is also interesting to note that in each tendency the movements are towards similarity.

When a strict curriculum continued to be the rule at the North, a purely elective system, under the strong influence of the University of Virginia, gained ascendency at the South; and while among Northern colleges there has been a tendency to introduce the elective system to a greater or less extent, the tendency among Southern colleges has seemed to be in recent years in the direction of the curriculum. Certain schools which have not a prescribed curriculum have recently begun to publish recommended courses for the bachelor's or some other degree. Washington and Lee University, for example, publishes three four-year courses for the B. A. degree, and the University of Virginia publishes a curriculum for the courses in civil, mining, and mechanical engineering, "recommended, though not obligatory." The newest of Southern colleges, Tulane, provides four courses in the undergraduate school, to one of which the student is required to adhere. It ought, however, to be said that the policy of Tulane, as of some other Southern colleges, is to admit pupils to the freshman class, and thus to confer the B.A. degree at least a year earlier than is the custom in Northern colleges.

To the general statement of this tendency towards a curriculum, exceptions may perhaps be found. The University of Georgia, for instance, which began with a close curriculum, permits election, with the proviso, however, that "the student must satisfy the faculty that there is some good reason."

The other contrast of tendency to which I have alluded concerns entrance examinations. While at the North there is a tendency to less definiteness in the prescribed requisites for admission, there seems to be growing in the South a tendency towards greater definiteness. In each case the tendency indicates a healthy change. Considering, for example, the requirements in Latin, there is no doubt that the prevailing law, which demanded four books of Cæsar, six or seven orations of Cicero, and six books of Virgil, has been of immense benefit in fixing and maintaining a standard in the secondary schools of the North. The standard having been set, the law having proved itself a "schoolmaster" to the schoolmasters, the time seems at hand for encouraging freedom and variety. In the South, on the other hand, there has been no prevailing law. It might almost be said that each college, each school, has been a law unto itself. The result has been hurtful in preventing an advance of standard and any steadiness of requirement by which secondary schools might direct their teaching.

The South has always enjoyed a few private secondary schools of exceptional excellence, whose pupils, on entering college under the elective plan, have taken advanced standing; but these schools are apart from any general system which contemplates the preparation of pupils for the first year of a regular course, and have thus, in spite of individual excellence, had little influence upon the general standard of admission.

Examining the announcements of twenty colleges, we find in the published requirements for admission a great lack of agreement and definiteness. Especially is this the case in colleges without a curriculum, between which and the others any comparison is difficult. Although the colleges without a curriculum have generally a preparatory class, yet, inasmuch as their regular undergraduate classes are three, namely, junior, intermediate, and senior, it seems proper to take their junior class as corresponding to the freshman class of other colleges. Of these twenty colleges, twelve have a curriculum, seven are elective, and one, the University of Texas, has the so-called group system. The following list, in which the colleges with a curriculum are put first, is made from the point of view of a secondary teacher who should wish to know how much Latin and Greek his pupils should have read, and how far in mathematics they should have advanced, in order to enter the first regular college class.

Roanoke College — Cæsar 4 books; easy Greek prose; algebra through quadratics.

Hampden-Sidney College — Some readiness

in translating Latin prose and the Anabasis; arithmetic.

Davidson College—Cæsar, Cicero 4 Orations; Xenophon 2; algebra through radicals.

Tennessee—Ability to read Nepos, Cæsar, or Cicero; ability to read selections from Xenophon, etc. (*sic*); algebra to quadratics; geometry 2 books.

Vanderbilt—Cæsar 4, Virgil 4 (or, for two of these, equivalent of Ovid), Cicero 4; Xenophon 4, Homer 3 (Iliad or equivalent of Odyssey); algebra, plane geometry.

Mercer—Cæsar, Virgil; Xenophon; algebra to quadratics.

Mississippi—Cæsar 2, Cicero 1; algebra to quadratics, geometry 3.

Louisiana State—Smith's Principia Pts. I. and II.; elementary algebra.

Tulane—Nepos 5 lives, Cæsar 3, Virgil 1; Xenophon 3; algebra through quadratics, geometry 6.

Austin College—Cæsar 4; Xenophon 1; algebra to quadratics.

Georgia—Nepos, Curtius 2 (or for both, Cæsar 4), Virgil 1; Xenophon 1; algebra to powers and roots, geometry 2.

Alabama—Cæsar 3, Virgil 4, Cicero 6; Xenophon 2; algebra through quadratics, geometry 2.

North Carolina—Cæsar 2, Virgil 6, Cicero 4; Xenophon 3; algebra to quadratics.

Texas—Cæsar 4, Cicero 4; Xenophon 3; algebra through quadratics, plane geometry.

The catalogues of the following give no data as to entrance examinations for general admission, the position of the student being fixed by the head of each department which he may elect to enter. The list gives the subjects of the first of the three college classes, generally called junior. Sewanee has a preparatory school. Washington and Lee, Richmond, and Randolph-Macon have a class before the junior called respectively preparatory, junior i., and introductory.

Virginia—Selections from Sallust, Ovid, Curtius, Virgil; Xenophon, Lysias; latter part of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry.

Washington and Lee—Selections from Livy, Cicero, Virgil; Xenophon, Herodotus, Homer; latter part of algebra, geometry, plane trigonometry.

Richmond College—Virgil, Cicero; Xenophon, Lysias; latter part of algebra, geometry, plane trigonometry.

Randolph-Macon College—Cicero, Virgil, Livy; Xenophon, Lysias; algebra, beginning with quadratics, geometry.

Furman—Virgil, Ovid, Cicero; Xenophon, Homer; algebra and geometry.

South (Sewanee)—Livy, Ovid; Lysias, Demosthenes; geometry, trigonometry.

The English requirements in those colleges which hold formal entrance examinations show an encouraging unanimity, all of them except two specifying as part of the requirement the writing of a composition, and most of them naming the books from which the subjects will be given.

In the announcement of Furman University there are published "Suggested Requirements of Admission," which were recommended at a conference of representatives of the colleges of South Carolina held in 1892.

Vanderbilt University and the University of Texas publish specimen entrance examination papers. The catalogues of these two universities, together with those of the universities of North Carolina, Tennessee, Alabama, and Tulane, are noticeable in the information which they give to preparatory teachers, as indicating a growing demand for better preparation and illustrating the tendency to a definite statement of requirements.

If it were possible to secure more harmony among the colleges, good results would doubtless follow more quickly; and now that public high schools are increasing in number and importance throughout the South, the need of better coördination between the colleges and the schools will become every year more apparent.—Respectfully, J. H. Dillard.

New Orleans, October 4, 1893.

## JUDICIAL POWER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letters in the *Nation* of September 28 and October 12 upon "Judicial Power" are very interesting, and—may I be allowed in passing to say it?—show how evanescent magazine articles are; for the whole subject was exhaustively considered by me in 1885 (*Amer. Law Review*, March-April, pp. 175-202), and, I think, little new matter has been found since.

To this latter remark, however, there is one exception. The late Brinton Coxe of this city devoted much time in his latter years to the subject, and gathered together a mass of material, very much of which is quite new. This is all now set up in type and will very soon be given to the public, and it is in order to announce this fact to those interested in the subject that I write you. One exceedingly interesting question, not touched by your correspondents, is the question to what extent the framers of the Constitution *foresaw and intended* the doctrine upon the subject which has now become so fully established; and this subject is fully considered by Mr. Coxe, who examines the debates and traces the growth of the clauses in the Constitution upon the subject from what he calls their "historical antecedents." This line of investigation is almost entirely new. Mr. Coxe also examines at length the earlier law system in England and the systems upon the continent of Europe, and has unearthed numbers of cases which show that the American doctrine is not so entirely novel as is usually supposed. But the book will soon speak for itself.

Very truly yours, Wm. M. Meigs.

Philadelphia, October 13, 1893.

# Notes.

The Fleming H. Revell Co. announce 'More About the Mongols,' by the late James Gilmour; 'Five Hundred and Eighty-nine Wise Sayings,' selected from Eastern sources by W. A. Clouston; 'The Handwritings of the Kings and Queens of England,' with facsimiles, by W. J. Hardy; 'The Romance of Electricity,' by John Munro; and 'Foreign Missions after a Century,' six lectures delivered before the Princeton Theological Seminary by the Rev. J. S. Dennis, D.D.

Besides the 'Letters of James Russell Lowell,' edited by Prof. Norton, Harper & Bros. publish directly a translation of Moltke's 'Essays, Speeches, and Memoirs'; 'Evening Dress,' a farce, by W. D. Howells; and 'Short Stories,' the last of the "Distaff Series."

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready 'The Significance of Names,' by Leopold Wagner, and 'A Calendar of Verse,' by George Saintsbury.

Duprat & Co. of this city hold out a promising table of contents for their luxurious *Book-Lovers' Almanac* for 1894, together with etchings by Robida and many other illustrations.

Balch Bros., Boston, have issued a quarto volume entitled 'American Landmarks: A Collection of Pictures of Our Country's Historic Shrines,' with descriptive text by George A. Cleaveland and Robert E. Campbell. The fervid patriotism of these gentlemen is manifested in every section of the work, which for the rest is handsomely illustrated with full-page photogravure plates and with many artistic vignettes. The selection has been catholic, and the civil war, while not wholly neglected, has been but sparingly drawn upon. The plates are of very even excellence, and are mostly picturesque as well as photographically faithful. We remark by the way that the great Bennington obelisk is depicted only in vignette, and that a full-page view from the south would have shown its relation to the quiet old street of a town at its base: a violent contrast, surely, yet not so damaging as that occasioned by ill-made and ill-placed statuary in some other luckless New England villages we know of.

The Arts and Crafts Society has gathered together a number of the essays which have from time to time appeared in the catalogues of its exhibitions, Mr. William Morris has furnished a preface, and the Scribners have published the whole in a volume under the title of 'Arts and Crafts Essays.' Some of the writers deal with the various artistic handicrafts in a practical and suggestive way, but the larger number are vague, and merely suggest that good work is impossible under the reign of modern "commercialism," and that the world must be remade (presumably on socialistic lines) before much is to be hoped for. It is interesting to note how the British vision is limited by salt water. For instance, in the chapter on stained glass no mention is made of the admirable work of La Farge and other Americans, and in that on mural painting neither the wax method by which the best French work is done, nor that work itself, is considered. To talk of mural painting to-day without knowing the work of Puvis de Chavannes is to talk in the air.

It is somewhat difficult to see what are the qualities of 'The Literary Works of James Smetham' (Macmillan) that merit "a more permanent place in literature than the pages of a periodical admit or allow of," as the editor, Mr. William Davies, says of them. The first article in the volume is a good enough review of Leslie's and Taylor's Life of Reynolds, but, so far as we can see, contains nothing specially important or not to be found elsewhere. The essay on William Blake is sympathetic, but is marred by much quaintness and affectation of style. That on Alexander Smith is entirely nugatory, and that on Gerhard Dow altogether misses the real objection to Dow as an artist, which is not that he wasted an infinity of labor on mean subjects, but that the labor was so misapplied that the result is mean in style. The poems which conclude the volume show a slender thread of sentiment, and are rather melodious.

Dr. John Nisbet served many years in the care of the teak forests of tropical Burma, and has brought to Britain all the wealth of his experience. His book on 'British Forest Trees and their Sylvicultural Characteristics and Treatment' (Macmillan) "makes no pretension of being a work of original research or of observation based on long experience in the treatment of forests in Britain." The author confesses that it is, to a considerable extent, a compilation from the best German sources, but says that he can at any rate vouch for the correctness of the scientific principles enunciated, from his own observations in both Bri-

tain and Burma. The whole subject of forestry is treated methodically in the first fifty-four pages; and then follow the individual species of British and introduced forest trees, from the Scots pine to the willows—in some cases as many as twenty or thirty pages being devoted to a single species. The general character, distribution, tree-form, and root system, requirements as to soil, situation, and light, age of maturity and reproductive capacity, liability to injury, treatment in the forest, sowing and planting are all treated of carefully and thoroughly. As for what the writer has translated from the German, one could read the book through and not suspect that it was not all his own. Of course, the climatic conditions of the United States are as different from those of England as our kinds of forest trees are unlike those of Europe; but the general principles of forestry set forth in this treatise may well be studied by thoughtful Americans.

So may Dr. Jarchow's 'Forest Planting: a Treatise on the Care of Timber-Lands and the Restoration of Denuded Wood-Lands on Plains and Mountains,' published by the Orange Judd Co. The author has had twenty years of experience in forestry in northern Germany, and has had a like period of personal observation in this country, and has written this practical work as an answer to the question, "How shall we preserve our forests?" His recommendations are very practical, such as that the forests left us should be guarded against unlawful encroachment, protected from fire, insects, and cattle, cleared of dead or defective trees, thinned out where too dense, and replanted where there is no other remedy. He says: "Under all circumstances, steps should be taken at once to establish on a proper place in the Adirondacks a nursery for raising the principal common forest trees to be used upon the denuded State lands." A further suggestion is, that among the inhabitants of the Adirondacks could be found the best crude material for good foresters to be trained and educated by the State.

Mrs. Lewis tells very briefly, in 'How the Codex Was Found' (Cambridge, Eng.: Macmillan & Bowes), the story of her remarkable discovery of a very ancient copy of the Gospels in Syriac. Accompanied only by her sister, Mrs. Margaret D. Gibson, who edits this volume, she spent a month in the winter of 1892 at the Convent of St. Catherine, Mt. Sinai, photographing ancient manuscripts, among them a palimpsest of 358 pages. The first part of the book is mainly descriptive of the journey and the life at the convent. A short account of the identification of the manuscript at Cambridge follows, and the closing chapter narrates, only too briefly, a second visit to Sinai by these ladies in February, 1893, in which they were accompanied by Prof. Bensly of Cambridge and Mr. Rendel Harris, who carefully transcribed the Codex. The editor has also added translations of a modern Greek description of the convent, and extracts from the journal of St. Sylvia of Aquitaine, who made a pilgrimage to Sinai in the latter part of the fourth century. It is interesting as giving a faithful description of the scenery around the sacred mountain nearly a century before the present convent was built.

The most convenient translation of the Book of Enoch is that of R. H. Charles (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), based on Dillmann's Ethiopic text, which, however, is largely emended after hitherto uncollated Ethiopic MSS. and the Gizeh and other Greek and Latin fragments. Mr. Charles's critical and exegetical notes are good.

The Rev. Dr. G. U. Pope has published a useful edition of the Tamil classic, the 'Naladiyar' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), with English translation and notes. It is a contribution both to the history of Indian wisdom and to the knowledge of the Tamil language.

W. R. Morfill's 'Poland,' in the "Story of the Nations" series (Putnams), is a readable work, and gives a fairly lucid account of the complicated career of a nation whose misfortunes have awakened far more sympathy than her achievements while she was independent. If "Freedom shrieked when Kosciusko fell," it was because the spectacle of a people crushed by foreign domination always appeals more strongly to our sense of justice than does the spectacle of a people oppressed by its own tyrants. The truth is that there was never any real freedom, as we understand it, in Poland—a very small oligarchy was free to bleed the burgher and peasant classes, that was all. The fate of Poland should be a warning to every country of the inevitable ruin which awaits a nation in which a small and selfish class—be that class military, clerical, hereditary, or commercial—absorbs all the civic power and enjoys all the resources of the State. Mr. Morfill attributes the fall of Poland to the want of patriotism and to the greed of the nobility; to the intolerance of the clergy; to the absence of a middle class; to the oppression of the peasantry, who could have no national spirit; and to the dearth of great men. He might have added as a concomitant cause the weakness of the dynastic principle. In other States the dynasty was often the prop to which national sentiment clung until it was strong enough to stand alone. Many illustrations add interest to this volume. A better map, in which the various partitions should be represented by different colors, instead of by confusing dotted lines, could easily have been prepared.

In the current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society incidental mention is made of the celebration this year of the centennial anniversary in Worcester, Mass., of a fire society, sole survivor of its kind, whose functions have, however, become "social and literary rather than 'antipyretic.'" In November, 1892, there was celebrated in Boston the inception of the Massachusetts Charitable Fire Society, whose object was not to put out fires, but to encourage invention to that end and to the suppression of them, and to aid sufferers by fire. A brief history of this excellent and still flourishing organization has just been published in handsome shape (Little, Brown & Co.), with some fine portrait and other illustrations. Paul Revere was one of the founders, and associated with his are some of the best of Boston names, including these suggestive ones: the Rev. William Emerson, John Phillips, Francis Parkman, and Oliver Wendell, besides Charles Pinckney Sumner, the one-time odist of the society. The volume is, in its historical, biographical, and antiquarian phases, a real contribution to the annals of Boston, in which city it is wholesome to recall (for our present national shame) that a negro woman was judicially burned alive for arson in 1681. The society now has an income of about $3,000 a year. The growth of insurance long ago induced an enlargement of its charter privileges, and its benefactions have been extended to the victims of various forms of disaster both in and out of Massachusetts, and have even availed to help found a lying-in hospital.

We recur to the A. A. S. Proceedings to mention also a valuable account, by Mr. W. Noel Sainsbury, of the British Public Record Office, and the material in it for early American history. And noteworthy is the memoir of Maj.-Gen. Thomas Harrison, by Charles H. Firth, who proves that this regicide was not an ancestor of ex-President Harrison.

Four years ago, Mr. Henry F. Waters, in his researches concerning the pedigree of Roger Williams, came upon a connection with the Rev. Josse Glover, a New England worthy in so far as that he furnished the means for establishing at Cambridge the first printing-press in Protestant America. Mr. Waters then promised to return to Glover, and he now fulfils the pledge in the October number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. Among his "Genealogical Gleanings in Eng land," Mr. Waters gives a number of Glover wills introducing "Josse Glover Clerke," besides some pertinent notes from the Suffolk (Mass.) Court files, which reveal the Appleton and Winthrop relationships through Glover's married daughters in this country. The will of the Rev. Nicholas Moreton of Southwark brings us face to face with John Harvard's transatlantic pastor; while the wills of Pryaulx and Mercer complete the links of descent from that picturesque character, the Rev. Stephen Bachiler, who was certainly the ancestor of Whittier, and is reputed to be also of Daniel Webster. Richard Quiney's will touches again on John Harvard, as it does on Shakspere at Stratford-on-Avon. Finally (by our forbearance), the wills are given of the mother and brother of Edmund Quincy, the immigrant ancestor of the eminent New England family bearing that name.

From the astronomical observatory on the summit of Mont Blanc, in the construction of which M. Eiffel extensively interested himself, the following despatch is sent by M. Janssen, the distinguished astronomer of Paris and director of the astro-physical observatory at Meudon:

"The observatory has been erected, and the great work is ended. Only the interior arrangements now remain to be completed. It is a success in which everybody did not believe, and which is due to the enthusiasm of our courageous workmen, several of whom remained for twenty days without coming down, and also to the extraordinarily favorable weather in August. The windlasses adapted for use on the snow which I put in their hands worked admirably, and greatly contributed to the success and the relief of the workmen. I made much use of them in my ascent. It was curious and extraordinary to see the materials moved by these machines scaling the icy slopes of the ridge. We have had no serious accident to deplore. I hope the observatory may be utilized for certain observations this autumn."

—At the Congress of Astronomy convened in Chicago last August, Mr. Alvan G. Clark read a significant paper on the great telescopes of the future. Most of the important original discoveries in the optical line have been made with the largest telescopes in use at the time. Once seen with the large glass, however, the new objects were readily seen with smaller instruments. In the case of discoveries of a certain class made with telescopes of medium size, Mr. Clark is of the opinion that the discoveries would have been more numerous and important if the discoverers had been able to command the largest telescope. When the two 15-inch telescopes were made in 1846, one for Russia and the other for Harvard, they were considered monsters, and most astronomers thought the limit in size had been reached. Then came an interval of fifteen years with no increase in size, when in 1860 the order was given for an 18½-inch telescope now at the Dearborn Observatory in Evanston. Some ten years afterwards, Mr. Newall of Gateshead,

England, built a 25-inch telescope, now at Cambridge, followed in 1873 by the 26-inch for the National Observatory at Washington, and one of like size at the University of Virginia. About 1880 the 30-inch glass was ground and figured for the Imperial Observatory of Russia at Pulkowa; then came the 36-inch Lick telescope, about seven years later; and now Mr. Clark has well under way the largest lenses ever constructed, of 40 inches diamet r, for the University of Chicago. Such prodigious instruments are needed to make original discoveries, and in research bearing upon the constitution of the stars they are vastly superior to smaller ones. The trouble experienced by the earlier opticians in procuring good discs of glass seems to have passed away, and we are now able to procure discs of almost any size, the only obstacles being the time required to make them, and the money to pay for them.

—Mr. Clark strongly expressed the opinion that the great telescopes of the future will be refractors, not reflectors. The large telescopes of the latter type have rarely accomplished much except in the hands of the opticians who made them; they are extremely sensitive to unfavorable conditions affecting the use of the high magnifying powers which they are intended for. But, having once procured the great disks for the refracting telescope, all that is required is an optician to figure and polish them; and he must be an artist in color, as well as in light and shade, in order to do the perfect work required. This is a very difficult task, and the difficulties grow with the constant increase in size. Furthermore, it is work which will probably never be accomplished by machinery. Mechanical appliances are available for the rough work of the first polishing, but the fine grinding and smoothing is always done by hand. The increase in size of even our present great refractors is not alone a possibility but a fact, and with this will come large acquisitions to our present stock of knowledge. The new astronomy as well as the old demands more power.

—The interest of the Catalonians and their congeners of the Balearic Islands in the current developments of early American discoveries is manifested in a photographic reproduction of the well-known Catalan chart of Gabriell de Valsequa of 1439, very welcome as it is to students who have had heretofore to depend on the engraving made by Santarem in the days anterior to photographic accuracy. It is known that Vespucius owned and paid a hundred and thirty ducats for a chart of this same Valsequa, and it has been stated that the copy belonging to Vespucius was in existence in Majorca as late as 1838. We are not quite satisfied that it can be proved to be no other than the copy now photographed. Two little tracts further attest the current interest in these questions among the Majorcans and the neighboring Aragonese, both of which have been lately printed at Palma. One is on the 'Influencia de los Aragoneses en el descubrimiento de América,' by Don Miguel Mir of the Spanish Academy of History, and the other is on the 'Descubrimiento de América por Cristóbal Colón,' by Lorenzo Cruellas y Rovira. The first-named possesses the most interest. If Ferdinand the Catholic was lukewarm towards the merits of the great Genoese, the descendants of his subjects apparently do not care to be forgotten in the award of credit which the nineteenth century is making to the adventurous spirit of the fifteenth. There are some curious questions yet to be settled as to the exact relations which the people of Ferdinand sustained at that time to those of Isabella. The present essay is an effort to find the truth.

—In taking the census of Alaska in 1890, the Government agent saw that the Arctic Alaskans were on the verge of starvation. The whale and walrus, which had been their principal food, had been killed or driven off by whalers, and wild reindeer had been shot by white hunters. The natives, thus cut off from former sources of subsistence, had no hope save of Government rations such as are doled out to Indians. But the agent, Sheldon Jackson, devised a more excellent way. Learning that Siberians across the sea made a good living by raising domesticated reindeer, which gave to them food, clothing, shelter, transportation, etc., he became satisfied that importing Siberian animals might be the salvation of the Alaskans. On the strength of his report, a bill for such an importation was at once introduced in Congress and favorably reported on, but failed to pass. The measure, however, so commended itself to benevolent men as wise, humane, and demanding immediate action, that several thousand dollars were contributed by individuals in aid of Mr. Jackson's enterprise, and the United States vessel in Alaskan waters was ordered to render him all possible aid. It had been contended that reindeer could not be bought, or could not bear a thousand miles of necessary transportation—could not find food, or be protected from wolves. Several of these bugbears were short-lived. Before the close of 1891, Mr. Jackson had purchased sixteen head of the Siberian animals and safely transported them to an island in the harbor of Unalaska. They wintered there well, and in the spring showed an increase of two.

—In 1892 the experiment was still more successful. It was backed by a congressional appropriation, the best spots on the mainland for colonization had been sought out, and on the 4th of July fifty-three deer were put ashore at a single station, on the first inlet south of Bering Strait. This number was the first instalment of 171 which during the season were distributed to selected points. With them were brought skilled Siberian herders, under whom Alaskan boys were placed as apprentices, with the promise of deer for themselves as soon as they showed that they could fitly care for them. When Jackson left his colony, he was triumphant, but not without trepidation. It was impossible for him to hear from his herds for more than half a year, and meantime the fate of his experiment must be decided. His official report has not yet been made, but it is gratifying to know that his success is commensurate with his philanthropy. Of the 171, 4 were shipped to other parts of the United States, 13 died from injuries in transportation, 5 from fighting among themselves, and 2 strayed away at landing. To the herd of 147 in 1892 87 fawns were born this spring, of which 79 lived. Up to the middle of July 67 new imports had arrived from Siberia, and more are on the way. On the whole, the prospect is good that the new industry will not only keep the Alaskans from starvation and Indian idleness, but will lift them to a higher plane of living.

—The excellent series of "English History from Contemporary Writers" has received a scholarly and timely addition in Joseph Jacobs's 'The Jews of Angevin England' (G. P. Putnam's Sons). Mr. Jacobs has included in the volume every scrap of evidence in the English records relating to the Jews of England up to the year 1206. Latin and Hebrew sources, printed and manuscript, are for the first time collected and translated, forming a work that reflects credit on the author's industry no less than on his scholarly exactness. The material thus gathered throws a full light on the activity of the Jews in England in the period mentioned, the relation of the Church to them, their function as money-lenders at a time when capital was needed by barons and monks, and the attitude of the king, who was the sleeping partner in all the Jewish usury. Mr. Jacobs shows the importance of Aaron of Lincoln, by whose moneys nine Cistercian monasteries of the north country were erected, and who boasted that he had built the shrine of St. Albans. The story of the York massacre, due to the desire of some nobles to evade their debts by the shrewd plan of destroying the Jews and the evidence of their knightly indebtedness, is told at length. The central fact brought out by Mr. Jacobs is the literary and spiritual prominence of English Jews during the last third of the twelfth century. He has enhanced the value of the work by presenting many curious illustrations, with full bibliographical and name lists, and running comments that are always of interest, even if at times a little garrulous. The book is quotable throughout, but this incident may suffice: A certain Jew travelled to Shrewsbury with the archdeacon of the same place, whose name was Peche, and the deacon, whose name was Dayville. When the Jew heard the archdeacon saying that his deaconry began at Bad-place and lasted until Bad-pass near Chester, he said, "It will be a wonder if chance bring me back safe from this country whose archdeacon is Sin (Péché), whose dean is the Devil, which you enter by a Bad-place and go out in a Bad-pass."

—The death of Emin Pasha, apparently confirmed by the latest reports from Africa, lends a peculiar interest to 'Die Wahrheit über Emin Pascha,' by his medical officer, Vita Hassan (Berlin: D. Reimer). In the second and concluding volume, which has just come to hand, the story is told of the Mahdist invasion of the Equatorial Province, of the mutiny of the Egyptian officers, and the retreat with Stanley to the coast. There is little that is new in all this, excepting the account of a mission to Unyoro by the author in company with Dr. Junker. The king of this country, Kabarega, who has generally been regarded as a savage of the worst type, he describes as an unusually brave and capable chief, and gives some remarkable instances of his trustworthiness and honesty. For Stanley he has only bitter words and charges of tyranny, inhumanity, faithlessness, and indirect extortion. With reference to them we can only say that this narrative, perhaps more than any other, shows how trying the circumstances were for all concerned in this unfortunate expedition. Some bitterness of feeling, surely, is pardonable to one who lost a child on this terrible march for lack of proper care. The main interest of the book, however, centres about Emin Pasha, and many little details of his life are given which make it possible to form what is apparently a truthful picture of the man. Though possessing few of the heroic qualities with which the popular enthusiasm invested him a few years ago, he had some of the characteristics of the successful ruler of half-civilized races. But in the hour of danger he showed himself fatally lacking in energy and decision. If Vita Hassan can be believed, the attack of the Mahdists on the province would certainly have failed but for Emin's timidity and dilatory action. His was

a most difficult situation, however, and perhaps it is the chief merit of this book that it shows so clearly and effectively what Emin had to contend against. The closing chapter sketches briefly the present condition of the Sudan so far as it is known. As a proof of the hatred with which the Mahdists have inspired the people, the author quotes the first two lines of a ballad sung throughout the eastern Sudan, notwithstanding the strenuous efforts of the Khalif to prevent it:

"O Father Negus, O Englishmen, rescue us.
Sons of kings were we, and now are we become as women."

"Father Negus" is the king of Abyssinia.

## LETTERS OF A PESSIMIST.

*Schopenhauer-Briefe.* Herausgegeben von Ludwig Schemann. Leipzig: Brockhaus; New York: Westermann. 1893.

ALTHOUGH no man of genius was ever more convinced of his greatness and of the immortality of his writings than Arthur Schopenhauer, he did not wish his private letters to be printed. When, a few years before his death, his apostle Bahnsen expressed a desire to copy the letters to Becker, he begged him to desist, on the ground that such duplication would increase the chance of their falling into the hands of a publisher, "which I do not desire, since they are letters hastily written, without premeditation or care. You will assuredly not lose much thereby; for they contain no new ideas whatever, as I am not in the habit of squandering such in private correspondence." In the case of his letters to members of his own family he had other grounds for not wishing them to be printed. During the period of the quarrel and long estrangement with his mother and sister, his irascible temper must have given birth to letters which neither he nor the recipients could have wished to be preserved for the scandal-mongers of future generations; accordingly they were destroyed, and not a trace of them has been found by his biographers and followers. Although this is on the whole a matter for congratulation, one regrets the loss of the numerous characteristic touches and bits of autobiography which these letters must have contained, and of which we have an occasional echo in the numerous and voluminous letters of his mother. In one of these (dated 1807) she says, in reply to one of his communications: "You are an ungodly fellow, and you lead your mamma to ungodliness, too, for, may the Lord pardon me, I had to laugh over the death of honest old Stender, and that surely is not permissible." In these letters he seems to have allowed his pessimistic candor and censoriousness even greater sway than in his published writings, for his mother repeatedly urges him to be more careful in his way of expressing himself, since the post-office is not to be trusted, and half a word is enough for her.

In spite of Schopenhauer's obvious desire that none of his letters should appear in print, his disciples and friends have now made public every scrap they could find, justifying themselves on the ground of duty to the world, and the conviction that his wish applied only to his lifetime. Frauenstädt, Gwinner, Lindner, and others have given to the world specimens of his correspondence, but it remained for Herr Schemann to attempt a collection of the miscellaneous groups and single letters written to various parties. Questions of copyright and other considerations prevented him from including all of Schopenhauer's letters in the volume now before us, and it must, therefore, be regarded merely as a supplement to previous publications. Most of the material presented is new and based on the MSS., but in the case of special groups the editor has secured permission to insert letters already printed. He has also inserted a considerable number of letters addressed to Schopenhauer by his mother, his disciples, and admirers, most of which are also worth reading. The appendix contains more than a hundred pages of notes on the correspondence, and miscellaneous information about the philosopher's friends, his last will, etc. In short, it is a book which will prove invaluable to future biographers, and at the same time all admirers of the most lucid and poetic philosopher since Plato will find therein much to instruct and entertain them. For although Schopenhauer was right in saying that he did not "squander" important new ideas in his private letters, he could not help throwing valuable side-lights on various points, while his grim but honest personality is vividly brought before us during their perusal.

Unlike her son, Johanna Schopenhauer did not destroy her family correspondence. Quite the contrary, she asked for the return of most of it, for the purpose of incorporating it in her memoirs. She was a most voluminous writer, for while her son's collected works are included in six volumes, hers are extant in twenty-four. From her letters to Arthur, Herr Schemann has included in his volume a number of extracts that afford glimpses of her style and mind, which are the more interesting as, according to Schopenhauer's doctrine, men of genius inherit their intellect from the mother, their character from the father. She was undemonstrative, averse to a show of sentiment. "You have just left me," she once wrote to Arthur. "I still inhale the smoke of your cigar. I know I shall not see you again for a long time. We have spent the evening most agreeably together; let that be the parting. When you get these lines, I shall probably not be here any more; should I be, do not call! I cannot endure leave-taking." And a few days later she wrote that he was a good boy for taking her "Polish leave" as it was meant. When Arthur writes to her, dissatisfied with his position and the world, she replies: "I know only too well how little of the happy spirit of youth was allotted to you, how much disposition to melancholy musings you received as a sad inheritance from your father." She feels that he lacked a mother's care and advice in the period of transition to serious life, and attempts to console him with the maxim that every man not destined to be a mere log must have his moments of dissatisfaction with the world. She tells him that the more she observes mankind, especially when in distress, the more does she notice and admire its noble traits; but such optimistic sentiments are entirely thrown away on Arthur.

Johanna Schopenhauer had the good luck to be one of Goethe's friends in Weimar, and she tells her son many interesting things about their social intercourse, of which Goethe's biographers (especially Düntzer) have been glad to avail themselves. We get glimpses of the poet following Johanna's example in alleviating the sufferings of the wounded after the battle of Jena; of the amiability, sincerity, and frankness of his character, and its childlike simplicity. She relates how one day he helped her and Meyer to make a fire-screen: "If a senator or burgomaster could see how Meyer and I glue together paper cuttings while Goethe and the others stand by eagerly proffering their advice, he would feel a genuine Christian pity for us poor childish souls." Arthur's personal acquaintance with Goethe did not begin till some years later, when he spent a winter in Weimar, where, as he says in an autobiographic sketch, "I enjoyed the association with Goethe, which became as intimate as a difference of thirty-nine years in our ages permitted." He worshipped Goethe as he did no one else but Kant, and almost the only utterances of personal enthusiasm in his writings are his references to "the divine Goethe," to the "infinite advantages" of intercourse with him, or a passage like this: "Your friend, our great Goethe, is well, is merry, social, well-disposed, friendly; praised be his name to all eternity."

Schopenhauer's correspondence with Goethe (seventeen letters, 1814–1818) is given complete in the present volume, and forms its most valuable feature. It relates entirely to the subject of Goethe's writings on color-phenomena and Schopenhauer's treatise on the same subject, in which he endeavors to comprise Goethe's isolated facts under a theory, supplying them with an *a-priori* proof; but, while accepting most of Goethe's observations, controverting a few of them, Schopenhauer's attitude in this correspondence is characteristic. He has forwarded his treatise to Goethe in the hope that it would be cordially welcomed as a desirable prop of an edifice which the scientific experts were inclined to pooh-pooh. When Goethe delays a definite answer, yet keeps the MS., the pessimist is unable to restrain the expression of disappointment, impatience, and fear that some one might plagiarize his ideas. Goethe, on his part, behaved in this matter in a way curiously opposed to his usual frankness and sincerity. Whether he was influenced by the few points of disagreement or some other consideration, is not clear, but he refused to give his correspondent a definite criticism, although Schopenhauer begged him over and over again, in the most pleading tones, to do so, whether the verdict should be favorable or unfavorable. Details cannot be given here, but two incidental sentences from Schopenhauer's letters may be cited as illustrations of intellectual traits: "I know with absolute certainty that I am the first who has provided a true theory of color. . . . I know, too, that this theory will some day be universally accepted and familiar to school-children." In the other passage to be cited he endeavors to account for his nervous fears for the fate of his manuscript: "I know from your own statement that your literary activity is of secondary importance to you, actual life the main thing. With me the contrary is true; what I think, what I write is of value and importance to me; what I personally experience and what happens to myself is a matter of indifference to me, nay, of scorn."

Had not Goethe chosen to act so strangely and ungenerously towards the most intellectual of all his followers and admirers, had he endorsed the *Farbenlehre* and sent it into the world with a preface of his own, Schopenhauer's fame might not have had to wait several decades longer before it was fairly launched. Eleven years after his correspondence with Goethe, he made another effort to draw attention to his theory of colors by translating it (with important changes) into Latin, in order, as he says, "to appeal from the German public to the European." The publication was delayed in a most vexatious manner, explicable by the fact that the periodical in which it was to appear was in a moribund condition. For ten years Schopenhauer had not sent anything to the printer, so little encouragement did his contemporaries give him. The translation he had of course made *pro gloria*

alone, for he received nothing for it, and he consoles himself with Jean Paul's witty maxim: "Not till books no longer have a price shall we have some that are priceless." He pronounces the Latin version greatly superior to the German, notwithstanding the linguistic disadvantage of using a dead language. It is odd to find that as a youth he did not like to study Latin, and made so little headway that his mother, as she relates, was for advising him to drop it, but was dissuaded by Goethe. In later years he became an enthusiast for the dead languages, and never wearied of contrasting classical elegance with the slovenliness of modern literature, or of berating people in general for their ignorance of Latin and Greek.

These letters give us also a vivid realization of Schopenhauer's thorough mastery of modern languages. English, French, Italian, Spanish, were almost as familiar to him as to a native. That he read the London *Times* every day of his life is notorious. In a letter to a publisher (150-152), in which he offers to translate two of Hume's masterworks (on religion), he says: "As I learned the English language thoroughly in early youth from a country parson near London, I have retained a ready command of it; so that all Englishmen with whom I have had much converse of late, especially in Italy, acknowledged that they had never heard their language so well spoken by a foreigner; twice, indeed, for a while, I was mistaken among them for an Englishman." In the same letter he adds: "I would also offer my services for translations from the Italian. Both by a residence of almost two years in Italy and by much reading I have acquired an intimate knowledge of the language." What he had in mind especially was a philosophical work by Giordano Bruno. Eight years later we find him appealing to Keil in Leipzig, as the leading German authority on Spanish, for assistance in finding a publisher for a translation of Balthasar Gracian's 'Oráculo Manual,' adding the information that for seven years past he had been devoting himself to a study of that language, and subjoining as proof of his proficiency some corrections in the text of Keil's edition of Calderon, which had escaped even the eye of the expert critic. Keil cordially welcomed him to the realm of Spanish literature: "I have compared your translation with the original, and admired the accuracy with which you have reproduced in German the language of this old and difficult author." A publisher was found, but could not come to terms with the translator as regards the remuneration for the first edition and a possible second.

French, too, was a language in which our philosopher felt thoroughly at home. Pages 182-5 are taken up with a letter, written in French, to a Paris publisher, who had announced a translation of Goethe's works. To him Schopenhauer offered his services for a final revision. The project came to naught, and even if it had not, it is not likely that Schopenhauer's services would have been accepted, for his contemporaries had no use for him in any rôle or capacity—the more's the pity, for it arrested his productivity, and in the present instance deprived the world of a most interesting commentary on Goethe's poems, founded, as Schopenhauer promised, "on circumstances known only to personal friends of the poet." Luckily he was not again ignored when he took up another scheme and begged the editors of Kant's works, Rosenkranz and Schubert, in Königsberg, to make the first version of Kant's 'Critique of Pure Reason' the basis of their edition, instead of the second, as they had intended to do. With all his worship of Kant, Schopenhauer expresses his conviction (p. 187) that the changes in the second edition were the result of ecclesiastic intimidation, and, therefore, a weakness of the aged philosopher, to whom we should apply, as to all others, the corrected maxim, *de mortuis nil nisi verum*. To retain the second version would be, he says, like placing the recovered genuine limb of a statue by the side of the restoration instead of putting it back in its original place. This group of letters belongs among Schopenhauer's most lucid and vigorous writings, and their value is increased by a supplement of four pages giving minutely all the differences between Kant's two editions—a supplement which the Königsberg editors were glad to make use of too, for they could not help admiring their adviser's Kant-scholarship, notwithstanding their own Hegelian tendencies.

Of Schopenhauer's scorn for Hegelism there are some amusing illustrations in this correspondence. In letters of his last period he gleefully notes the evidence of Hegel's waning popularity and the growing brilliancy of his own star. He notes the number of his apostles, keeps a record of all the articles on himself, tells of the homage he receives in the shape of letters and personal demonstrations, and is as happy as a child in his gratified vanity. Had he lived till to-day, he would have seen the realization of his dreams; for while Hegel is now a mere memory, and his works have never had more than two editions, Schopenhauer's two leading works reached their eighth and seventh editions before the copyright expired, while since then there have been a number of others, including that apotheosis of popularity, a Reclam edition—which is not only absurdly cheap, but is the best edited of all, and contains an index to the six volumes. Yet the triumph is not as complete as Schopenhauer would have desired, for although his pessimistic creed has many votaries, his metaphysical theory proper is not generally believed to have solved the mystery of the world; indeed, his fame rests chiefly on his quality as great thinker and elucidator of the thousand miscellaneous problems which he discusses incidentally, and expresses with marvellous literary art and suggestiveness. Had he lived to see Schemann's volume, he would doubtless have been gratified to read (p. 509) that his portrait is the only one to be seen in the room of Tolstoi, who has also written that no other author has given him such exquisite pleasure as Schopenhauer, "the greatest of all geniuses." It is now safe to say that the next generation will pronounce Schopenhauer, with Darwin and Wagner, one of the three greatest revolutionary forces of our century. Strange to relate, he treated the most intellectual of *his* admirers (Wagner) very much as Goethe had treated *him*. For Darwin, too, he has nothing but a sneer ("shallow empiricism," p. 325). He also sneers at Faraday and Humboldt because of their sceptical attitude toward table-rapping and other spiritualistic phenomena.

Although the great pessimist talks in his letters usually about business matters or intellectual topics, and rarely about himself, there are not a few revelations by the way of his personality, his habits and hobbies. That he succeeded in passing his seventieth year was largely owing to his sensible living. "Most persons," he writes, "have some recurrent or chronic illness; I see it daily. Not so I." He warns his disciple Doss against sacrificing sleep to books: "Sleep is the source of all health and vigor, including that of the mind. I still sleep seven, often eight, occasionally nine, hours. Therefore I laugh at my seventy years, including its psalm-reference." And again: "You should daily take a two-hour walk, *alone and rapidly;* that will help you more than all baths, and costs nothing." He probably would have sneered at the notion that married men live longer than bachelors, and when he discovered that even his "apostle St. John," as he called Doss, was about to get married, he pelted him with his pessimistic jokes: "May you happily continue your three-years' betrothal, which is a truly fortunate thing for you, since pleasure lies chiefly in anticipation." And two years later: "I rejoice to hear that, after the lapse of a year, you still feel so happy in your married state; certainly an unusual case, the great prize in the lottery of life." It seems, however, that in his later years the sculptress Elizabeth Ney, to whom he refers as "twenty-four years old, very pretty, and indescribably amiable," succeeded in making him modify his estimate of womankind. Nevertheless, in the same letter (p. 325) he relates with much glee how he frustrated the designs of a female journalist who had sat next to him at the table-d'hôte for a whole week for the purpose of utilizing his table-talk; and when the suspicious philosopher remained silent, she departed and wrote a spiteful description of his personality. It appears, indeed, that although most eager for homage, he was very particular as to the form of it. He forbade his publishers to seek notoriety for him by the customary "puffing" of his books, and when a Leipzig illustrated periodical desired to print his picture with a sketch of his life, he became angry with the "scamps" on finding that they expected him to have the photograph taken at his own expense. On another occasion his ire was aroused by a photographer who sent his picture to an exhibition in Paris, one cause of the wrath being that there it might possibly be seen by Napoleon III. Herr Schemann has included in his volume two of the best of Schopenhauer's portraits, those by Ruhl and by Lenbach (Cosima Wagner's property). In the letters of the last years there are various references to portraits and photographs, for which he sat repeatedly, on behalf of and at the expense of admirers. "Göbel, our best portrait-painter, a man of much talent, has just (1859) completed my portrait—certainly very like and not flattering; but I see no trace of intelligence and genuine expression; it is an old dragon. Göbel is a superlative realist." Elsewhere (256) he quotes an artist's opinion that it was impossible to paint him accurately because his face changed every moment.

Of the appendices to Schemann's volume the most interesting is Schopenhauer's last will, with codicil, and in these the most characteristic point is the provision for the dog, who is to be taken care of by his servant or by one of several designated friends, for a compensation of 200 florins, which in the codicil is increased to 300. His love of dogs was as pronounced as Wagner's and Darwin's, and many interesting stories are told of it. The most amusing of these is referred to repeatedly in the correspondence. He made a collection of the pictures of dogs famous in literature or for some heroic performance. The number gradually increased to sixteen, and these pictures were hung on the walls of his room, of which, with a statue of Buddha, they formed the chief ornament. The newspapers finally heard reports of his hobby, and he was described

as sitting in his room surrounded by sixteen living dogs.

## RECENT NOVELS.

*Nowadays, and Other Stories.* By George A. Hibbard. Harper & Bros.

*The Translation of a Savage.* By Gilbert Parker. D. Appleton & Co.

*The Two Salomes.* By Maria Louise Pool. Harper & Bros.

*A Father of Six, and an Occasional Holiday.* By N. E. Potapeeko. Translated by W. A. Gaussen, B.A. Cassell Publishing Co.

Mr. Hibbard passes easily from grave to gay and again from gay to grave, and in each vein shows decided merit. He is seen at his best in his lighter mood, exhibiting there less tendency to mannerism, and expressing his idea more definitely and compactly. "Guilty Sir Guy" is a pleasing extravaganza, with neat things not too sparsely strewn through the dialogue. "A Flirt" hits off what Mr. Hibbard is pleased to dub "militant girlhood," with spirit and an evident leaning to the "coming-on" young woman of modern development. Rightly or wrongly, one imagines a Western flavor in the social tone and in the descriptions of places. But sharp individualization either of persons or places need not be looked for in any of these stories; all are more or less marred by a tendency to generalize that very nearly overlaps the limits of platitude. An unfortunate inclination to piece out the story-teller's web with the preacher's shuttle is most marked in the first story, "Nowadays." If, however, Mr. Hibbard is not yet past-master of his craft, he has left his 'prentice manner well behind him, and his present volume is quite clever, with a promise that bespeaks a welcome for his next venture whenever it shall appear.

In 'The Translation of a Savage' there is novelty enough of incident to tickle the palate of the most jaded novel-reader. The irruption into the domestic circle of a well-bred, decorous, English county family of a bride in moccasins and buckskins is an episode that comes as near being something new under the sun as can reasonably be expected in these days of strained invention. Choosing such a bride from her father's wigwam, and forwarding her promptly, in her aboriginal blanket, to an English home, may also be regarded as a *haute nouveauté* in the way of revenge for parental interference in the matter of another marriage. How admirably the worldly but high-minded Armour family behaves under this dispensation of a son's hand is very readably and convincingly set down. Beyond this point, however, something is left to desire. Lali's transformation into the conventional, neglected, unsuspectedly beautiful, and late-loved wife proceeds at such a breakneck speed that the imagination has difficulty in keeping pace, and reason rebels. It was not, after all, a savage, daughter to Eye-of-the-Moon, that Frank Armour wedded in his fit of pique, but only a transmigrated angel. The secondary love stories are of the stuff out of which the book-maker ordinarily manufactures his padding; and some sentimentalities, pretty enough in the nursery, are here a trial to the taste. To sum up one's impressions briefly, this is a book whose lively beginning is not justified by its end, yet which no one will be satisfied to put down until the end has been made matter of certainty and assurance.

Ever since Elsie Venner first left the mind in a state of delightful bewilderment, there has been no dearth of New England heroines with psychical complications to unravel. It is consequently not much of a surprise to discover that the two Salomes are not two girls, but one girl with two heredities. The blood of a Spanish grandfather has somehow got mixed with the otherwise unadulterated Puritan strain of this fair Yankee's ancestry. Hence her lack of mantling blushes, and other peculiarities of a more serious nature. The latter do not appear until home, its cranberry bogs and syntax-defying lovers, have been exchanged for Florida, with a "climate" and a lover of another stamp. The exact means by which this change of scene is carried out may be learned from the volume with great minuteness of detail. Realism without reality is a pervading characteristic in the story of Salome's singular lapse from integrity. A book that raises questions may be the very best sort of a book; to close a tale with a large interrogation point is the method of some of our cleverest story-tellers. But the whys and wherefores that here intrude are not the sort that urge the mind again to try conclusions with character and destiny; they are the expression of confusion and disagreement. A return to the simpler themes and more restrained manner with which Miss Pool first pleased her readers, is the best that can be wished her.

It is a pity that the author of the pleasant little Russian country sketches should again be deprived of the credit, as he was in the case of the first volume of his which was translated into English. In the former instance, the publishers had the unhappy thought to print his name in Russian characters only, on the title-page. These were guessed at by each reviewer separately, and the variety and complication of the results were marvellous. On the present occasion, when there is a pretence of furnishing the English transliteration, the initials are wrong and the surname reads Potapeeko instead of Potapenko.

"A Father of Six" is the melancholy story of a poor *diatchók* in Little Russia, who has six children, the eldest aged seven years, and a wife who is dying of consumption. He is anxious to be ordained a priest, that he may get a better position and salary to rear his children; but the bishop has refused to ordain him because he does not sing in tune—a much more important matter in Russia than the foreign reader would suppose. As a last resort he borrows, on very hard terms, money to bribe the secretary of the consistorium from the usurious daughter of his priest, Father Pankrátii, himself a shrewd farmer and hoarder, but returns in despair, after another refusal, to find his wife almost at the last gasp. She begs him to hasten back at once to the bishop, forty versts away, confide the case to him in person, and beseech him to administer ordination at once, on the chance of her being still alive, since it is illegal to ordain widowers, unless under very exceptional circumstances, and when they are over forty years of age. Father Anton is only twenty-eight, there are no exceptional circumstances in his case, and if he remains a mere *diatchók* at his wife's death his hopes are at an end for ever, and his children must starve on his slender salary. The kindly old bishop yields to poor Father Anton's entreaties, and runs the risk of the wife's death. Father Anton returns to his wretched home to find his wife dead, and the future of his children assured—provided he can get a post as priest, and can pay off the large debt which he has contracted to the hard-hearted priest's daughter. How these two points are to be managed, the author omits to mention. It is an affecting little story, told in an agreeable, straightforward way, with no attempt at padding or fine writing.

The same may be said of the much slighter sketch called "An Occasional Holiday," which narrates how a formerly well-to-do peasant is driven by bad harvests and misfortune to hire out as a laborer to a viragó of a priest's wife, at starvation wages. During his year of service with this termagant, an overwhelmingly abundant harvest runs up the price of labor to such a degree that while Artem is getting but forty rubles a year, laborers in the hayfields are getting a ruble and a half a day, with a prospect of double that sum when the grain harvest is ripe. The manner in which the laborers of the Squire go on a sudden "strike," and the scenes between the priest, his fury of a wife, Artem and her other servants, who desert for higher wages (with perfect right, it must be observed), are delightfully told.

The translation is fairly good, but, with more knowledge of the language and of the customs of the country, several peculiar errors might have been avoided. For example, it is certain that poor Father Anton never had "a beaver cassock," beaver being a very expensive fur, and used only for collars. Again, as "requiem masses" are said only in church, it is not possible that the sentence with which the first story ends can have been rightly translated. The word must have been *panikhidi*, which means prayers of a certain kind, not "a requiem mass." The English of the rendering is, at times, extremely careless, *e. g.*, "It was far to the town—forty versts—and therefore impossible to drag an invalid thither during the winter time; moreover, it was impossible to persuade Natiónka to do so"—Natiónka being the invalid in question.

## A MEDIATORIAL HISTORY.

*The United States:* An Outline of Political History, 1492–1871. By Goldwin Smith, D.C.L. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

It is significant that Messrs. Higginson and Channing's 'English History for American Readers' and the work before us, "intended for English rather than American readers," have met with immediate acceptance and passed to a second edition. They are likely to have a common use as text-books in our higher schools and academies. But here their resemblance ends, as they differ not more widely in theme than in construction. Mr. Goldwin Smith's sketch is a literary masterpiece, as readable as a novel, remarkable for its compression without dryness, and its brilliancy without any rhetorical effort or display. What American could, with so broad a grasp, and so perfect a style for those who, in Edward FitzGerald's phrase, "like to sail before the wind over the surface of an even-flowing eloquence," have rehearsed our political history from Columbus to Grant in 300 duodecimo pages of open type? or would have manifested greater candor in his judgment of men and events in a period of four centuries? It is enough to say that no one before Mr. Smith has attempted the feat, and that he has the field to himself.

Americans, as they have already proved, will buy this compendium eagerly, and it is already evident that they will judge it favorably, in spite of opinions and estimates at variance with their traditions or (in the case of our more recent history) with the convictions of perhaps one-half of the present generation. Herein lies precisely its value as a mental stimulus to the private reader, and as an occasion

for discussion, reflection, and research in the class-room such as our formal text-book-makers are almost under bonds not to furnish. In a work which makes the impression of having been produced at a single heat, errors of fact have naturally been pointed out. One critic has noticed the slip by which the Charter Oak is spirited from Hartford to Providence; another has corrected the tale of Benton's years in the Senate; a third, profiting by Mr. Waters's discoveries, controverts the assertion that Roger Williams was a Welshman instead of a Londoner; a fourth may object to making "red herrings" of the winter's "salted provisions" which the boy Franklin begged his father to say grace over in the cask by way of saving time (the popular gloss is *pork*); and we will add that Mr. Smith's apologia for the mother country, in her dealings with the colonies before the Revolution, might properly have been strengthened by his adopting not the contemporary and transmitted view of Gov. Andros's arbitrary character, but the vindication which he has received at the hands of a fair-minded American historical student, Mr. W. H. Whitmore, editor of the 'Andros Tracts.' It has not failed to be remarked, too, that the New England colonies receive the greater part of Mr. Smith's attention, to the apparent neglect of the others; but here we touch the main object which our author had in view, viz., to interest his own countrymen in our annals, and it would have to be shown that any other group of colonies compares with New England in the richness of its material for picturesque narration, or for exhibiting the development of self-government, the spirit of independence, enterprise, expansion, nationality, humanity, on this continent.

Mr. Smith's rapid summary, then, though submitted to an American audience, must not be regarded as a challenge of accepted ideas. We are allowed to overhear, as it were, a discourse conceived in absolute good will to this country, in an ardent desire to cement fraternal and peaceful relations with his own. Heaven knows that we need every possible corrective of the wretched little school histories which, unconsciously no doubt, perpetuate in our youth of to-day the animosities engendered by wars between an America and an England not those of to-day, and make this thoughtless age an easy prey to protectionist chauvinism. We can but welcome the privilege of listening to the old story told by one not of ourselves, though in sympathy with us, and who does not ask us to forget that he is an Englishman, but only to make allowance for his position as one "who regards the American commonwealth as the great achievement of his race, and looks forward to the voluntary reunion of the American branches of the race within its pale, yet desires to do justice to the mother country and to render to her the meed of gratitude which will always be her due." The rest is a matter of personal equation or of literary art. Thus, when Mr. Smith says (p. 6), "Unhappily these [Puritans], in common with other colonists of the period, retained not only their love of the old land, but their political tie to it," and again (p. 64), "It cannot be too often repeated that the relation between the imperial country and a colonial dependency was radically false," we read between the lines a sermon to Canadians. They are in his mind, too, when he asks, on page 70, "Would Chatham have thought of allowing the colonies to lay protective duties on British goods, he who talked of forbidding them even to make a nail for a horseshoe?" So Mr. Smith's aversion to home rule crops up in the sentence (p. 123): "In the group of States with which the framers [of the Constitution] had to deal, . . . there was no towering predominance to excite the permanent jealousy of the rest, as there would be if England were federally united with Scotland, Wales, and Ireland." Twice, too (pp. 175 and 217), he insists, not untruthfully, on the part played by Irish immigration in reviving the waning sentiment of hatred towards Britain, yet with less than his usual justice to the victims of British misrule, and more than his customary palliation of England's wrongdoing. Nor does he fail to note the Irish alliance with the pro-slavery Democracy, in spite of O'Connell's example and exhortation to the contrary; or Father Mathew's forgetting in America "that he had signed [in Ireland] an anti-slavery manifesto."

In Mr. Bryce's 'American Commonwealth,' it may be alleged as a defect that too little stress is laid upon slavery as a factor in modifying the political development of this country. Mr. Smith's sketch is not liable to this charge. Five chapters embrace the whole of it, and the fourth deals explicitly with "Democracy and Slavery," while the fifth, "Rupture and Reconstruction," is, of course, only a continuation of the same topic; and the two together constitute nearly one-half of the entire work. But slavery begins to be mentioned as early as page 25, and is never afterwards lost sight of. Such a proportion of attention to this subject is a refreshing novelty, without example among our native historians. Hardly to be called novel, though individual and striking in their mode of presentation, are Mr. Smith's characterizations of leading statesmen, such as Jefferson and Lincoln. And while the reader must often be struck with what seems caprice in the choice of typical incidents to color and substantiate the narrative, he can but admire the skill which finds room for so many classic extracts, so many proverbial party sayings. Throughout, too, one meets with passages of epigrammatic force and weight, such as this, touching the neutral trade of the United States during the Napoleonic wars (p. 162): "You may have a right to traffic on a battle-field, but you will have difficulty in exercising it, especially if the battle-field is one in which nations are fighting for their lives"; or this (p. 173):

"The war [of 1812] is sometimes justified on account of its supposed effect in consolidating American union. To make war for such a purpose would surely be a satanic policy. Instead of consolidation, the war nearly produced secession, to the very verge of which it drove New England. The true instruments of consolidation were, not the war, but the improved means of intercommunication, the national roads, the canals, the steamships, the railways, to which the period following the war gave birth, as well as the growing activity of the press, and the other intellectual agencies which overcome geographical distance. The fruit of moral or political effort is not to be won by violence."

Let us cite also the pregnant remark (p. 150): "Federal parties extended, as they ever have, to State politics, the party in each State being a sort of donkey-engine to the great Federal machine"; and again, in the helpful analysis of the Constitution (p. 126): "The States were prohibited from laying import or transit duties on each other's goods. Internal free trade was thus secured to the whole of the continent occupied by the United States. This was practically the greatest of all the measures of free trade in commercial history"; and finally (p. 219): "An international copyright law would have done more to emancipate from British influence than any war with Great Britain."

"Should this volume find acceptance," says Mr. Smith in his preface, "it may be followed by a companion volume on the same scale, and treating, necessarily with the same succinctness, the recent history of parties and the questions of the present day." This volume, so desirable, yet so delicate and difficult of execution, we may say is now assured. Externally, should it proceed from the same press (in Boston), it will be agreeable to the eye and will closely resemble an English product, and it will be apt on closer inspection to betray some of the typographic carelessnesses fostered by that provision of our crude copyright law which enforces domestic manufacture. The punctuation in the volume before us is often extremely slovenly, an amusing example being that on page 24, where the hyphen has been omitted from the compounds: "There were social meetings for the young, such as raising bees and sewing bees." An English proof-reader, indeed, might have been guilty of this, and pardonably so; but an American should have done better, and should, moreover, have secured uniformity in the capitalizing of the word State, and not let pass "Governeur [Morris]" on page 99 while Gouverneur occurs on page 142.

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*Negative Beneficence and Positive Beneficence.* Being Parts V. and VI. of the Principles of Ethics. By Herbert Spencer. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

WHAT magic art can Herbert Spencer practise to render his books so marvellously dull? It is a psychological problem. Dry they are not, nor are dry books more apt to be dull than others. Books that are both there no doubt are, say, in ethics, Whewell's 'Morality'; so there are books that just manage to keep dulness at arm's length by an agile exercise of a virtue the opposite of dryness, such as the 'Tale of a Tub.' But very often method, condensation, and business-like exclusion of all flights, which make up dryness, serve to keep the reader's mind alert. Stephen on 'Evidence,' Kant's 'Critic of the Pure Reason,' Ricardo's 'Political Economy,' Cremona's 'Geometry,' are dry to the last degree; yet, given an interest in the subject, any of them will detain your attention till you are exhausted by the mental labor it demands. On the other hand, such eternal monuments of dulness as the Koran, Volney's 'Ruins,' Tucker's 'Light of Nature,' Wordsworth's 'Excursion,' and, most overpowering of all, Spencer's 'Synthetic Philosophy,' are not a bit dry.

The phenomenon of dulness in Spencer's books is partly explained by his inimitable method of expressing himself—inimitable, at least, by any man of taste. He has disclosed the secret of it in his famous 'Essay on the Philosophy of Style': it lies in the "economy of attention." He artfully induces the reader to relax the muscles of the mind until nothing hinders the last stages of narcosis but the irritation produced by the Spenceresque diction. That, for all this, people read him is a great compliment to him and a great credit to them. The present volume opens thus:

"One division of an earlier work in this series of works—*The Principles of Psychology*—was devoted to showing that all intellectual operations are ultimately decomposable into recognitions of likeness and unlikeness."

And so the author proceeds through five mortal pages of platitudes about discrimination, in a psychological vein both cheap and superficial, and all to what purpose? Why, simply that he himself is intending to draw a distinc-

tion, one of the most familiar of distinctions, upon which all this dishwater about discrimination has just as much bearing, and no more, as upon any other distinction that any author might anywhere draw upon any subject. What an accomplished artist in tedium!

But the most stupefying principle in Spencer's writings is, for some readers, not his method of expressing himself; much less is it the essence of his thought, which (we need not say) is almost always striking and impressive. It is that the thought is developed in an old-fashioned way. In 1857 Mr. Spencer was not a remarkably well-read man in philosophy. He has himself admitted his ignorance of Kant. There is much in German idealism having an intimate relation to the philosophy of evolution of which he knew no more than an Italian monk would to-day know of Spencer. Outside his great conception, he was hardly more than abreast of his reader's stage of thinking. But to construct a durable system of philosophy it is necessary to build upon the solid foundation of deep reflection upon all that man has excogitated. During the many years that Spencer has devoted to writing his books, he has read little, especially of the kind that records advancing thought. The list of authorities in the volume before us illustrates this. It contains something like a hundred books. Two-thirds of them relate to savage life, and were very likely epitomized by readers. At any rate, it is for the most part crude and uncritical material. A quarter of the whole are old stand-bys which every educated man is supposed to be familiar with, or at least to know about. Then there are works on ethnology, anthropology, and biology, of a special character; and the small residuum is hardly calculated to give a serious idea of modern thought. The inevitable result has been that Mr. Spencer has fallen behind the times. He treats at wearisome length difficulties that are no difficulties, and consequences that are obvious, while many of the questions, objections, and suggestions that most interest the reader he soon finds have not entered into the author's head.

If Mr. Spencer's shortcomings and blindnesses were such as one could see were natural and almost inevitable to a mind engrossed with the conception of evolution, though they would make him more one-sided, they would not prevent the full presentation of his side of the question. But that is not the case; they in fact either have no relation to evolutionism, or, and that more frequently, actually antagonize it. Take, as the first example at hand, the passage quoted above, which represents every operation of the mind as a recognition of a likeness or the recognition of an unlikeness. According to this, every operation of volition, every operation of going to sleep, and every other mental operation, is but an act of recognizing. The first objection to this is that recognizing is something which takes place in the focus of attention, so that all the operations of the mind would take place in that focus, while all modern psychologists agree that most mental operations are so far into the dark that there is room for doubt whether they are in the field of consciousness at all. Clearly, a theory of the evolution of the mind would be aided by thus conceiving mind to shade off into unconsciousness. The next thing we notice about the opinion quoted is that it implies that all relations can be analyzed into likenesses and unlikenesses, the falsity of which has been recognized by every analyst who has seriously examined the question. Spencer says that sequence is unlikeness in order. Undoubtedly, a sequence is *an* unlikeness, but that is no sign that it is nothing but unlikeness, or nothing but a compound of likenesses and unlikeness. It clearly cannot be so, for when A is like or unlike B, B has that same relation to A; while when A is followed by B, B is *ipso facto* not followed by A. Spencer is therefore tiresome, with his old-world psychology of likeness and unlikeness; it is particularly unfavorable to clear conceptions of evolution, which demand a recognition of the distinction between temporal relations and the mere acervations of the crudest form of generalization.

In ethics Mr. Spencer adopts the hedonistic theory. Almost no reason has ever been given for this, except that most dangerous of reasons, that we cannot help thinking so. We certainly are under no such necessity, and the theory ought to be regarded with great suspicion for the present, until scientific observation can be brought to bear upon it. At any rate, it is nothing but a disfigurement of evolutionary ethics, which it only weakens.

A system of philosophy ought to consist in the development of an idea, in the tracing of it out into its necessary consequences, and in the comparison of these consequences with experiences. This comparison will show how far the philosophy may be accepted and what modifications of it are required. This view makes of a system of philosophy nothing more nor less than a very general scientific theory, and it follows as a consequence that a system of philosophy, like every other scientific theory, must stand or fall with its power of making successful *predictions*. But Herbert Spencer, instead of trying to show what characters his first principles require the facts of biology, of psychology, and of sociology to possess—what those principles virtually predict—and then proceeding to compare those predictions with the facts, has begun by endeavoring to make out what the character of those facts *is*, and has loosely traced, as he went along, such harmony with his theory as he could. No philosophy can be firmly established in that way. Nevertheless, it is incontestable that shortly after Mr. Spencer began to write, the world began to take up the idea of evolution, and that to-day nine-tenths of all thinking men carry it just about as far as Spencer does. A man who should have a theory carrying it a little further, although that theory should be of such a nature that it should afford predictions mathematically deduced from it, and capable of being compared with experience, would find no encouragement to develop his theory, or even to state it as far as already developed, or to compare by laborious mathematical calculations the predictions already made with observations already made.

As for the present volume, its contents have little or nothing to do with the theory of evolution. Its discussions of special questions, such as the poor-laws, coming from such a mind as Spencer, must, of course, have their value. But its general principles are little more than prejudices, and that of a pretty old-fogy kind. No doubt, in questions of morals, prejudices are proper subjects of respect, especially when they are such as are shared by all parties and all civilized nations. At the same time they are not unlikely to contain errors which may become important when applied to novel questions. We have always understood that the last parts of the Ethics were to be the crowning glory of the Synthetic Philosophy. Will the world be persuaded that British toryism is the truth with which the universe has so long been in travail?

*Memoirs of William Nelson Pendleton, D.D.*, Rector of Latimer Parish, Lexington, Virginia; Brigadier-General C. S. A.; Chief of Artillery, Army of Northern Virginia. By his daughter, Susan P. Lee. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1893.

One does not hesitate to speak of the subject of these memoirs as Doctor, rather than as General, Pendleton, although he was a West Point graduate and served with credit, if not with distinction, through the whole course of the rebellion in the Confederate army. We have only to look at the picture of his face which fronts the title-page to be aware that his dominant quality was ecclesiastical and not military. It is the typical ecclesiastical face, that of the priest clothed with a little brief authority and serenely conscious of his official dignity and importance. The whole course of the book bears out this first impression. The ecclesiastical proprieties are never silent in the midst of arms. Willingly at all times Gen. Pendleton puts by his sword and takes his shepherd's crook, and we always feel that the joy of battle which delights him most is behind the pulpit-cushion, not the bristling parapet. His life is written by his daughter, Mrs. Lee, the wife of Edwin G. Lee, a Confederate general, casually mentioned as a kinsman of Robert E. Lee, but with no hint of the degree of his relationship. The tone is feminine throughout, and, though but seldom shrill, is never critical or dispassionate. There is no praise of her father which is not willingly conceded to her filial piety. In every personal relation he was a man to honor and esteem, one who laid the lowliest duties on himself with a patient heart, who, whether as a servant of the Church Militant or the Confederacy triumphant or defeated, did his work man-fashion, in a simple, honest, and straightforward way.

Mrs. Lee's biography is not less valuable for not being critical. It is wonderfully instructive. We seem to be reading again the headlines of the Southern newspapers during the war and their editorials of flaming hope and eager expectation. This note is loudest in the letters of Sandie Pendleton, a brother of Mrs. Lee, who was a colonel attached to Stonewall Jackson's staff, was with him at his death, and met his own September 22, 1864, while trying to rally Early's skirmish line in the affair at Fisher's Hill. There is much more ardor and extravagance in these letters than in Dr. Pendleton's. But, take them both together and the connecting narrative, and we are admitted with remarkable distinctness into the Confederate mind, so confident and hilarious, and into the Federal, so doubting and depressed, while the war drew along its first two tedious years.

Dr. Pendleton was the son of Edmund Pendleton, jr., whose great-uncle and adoptive father was Judge Pendleton of Revolutionary fame. "Early and repeated marriage was a Pendleton habit," and William Nelson, the subject of this biography, was the son of a second marriage which his father consummated at the age of twenty-three. The promise of his youth suffered from the exigencies of his maturity as trout do in their weight when taken from the water into the boat. He was, however, a studious youth, and gladly accepted the opportunity to study at West Point, which an elder brother had declined. The fighting Bishop, Leonidas Polk, was ending his course as young Pendleton was beginning his. Jefferson Davis was two years in advance of Pendleton, Robert E. Lee and Joseph E. Johnston one year, while John B. Magruder was one of his classmates, and Albert T. Bledsoe, a literary, mathemati-

cal, and political secessionist, was another. Pendleton was afterwards remembered with Lee as "one of the good cadets" After his graduation he was first stationed at Fort Moultrie, was then made assistant professor of mathematics at West Point, and shortly transferred to Fort Hamilton, where, hearing that President Jackson was going to order his command to Charleston to put down the nullifiers, he immediately wrote his resignation. The rumor proved unfounded and his resignation was delayed, but this rehearsal must have made his course in 1861 more natural than it might otherwise have been.

His teaching at West Point had convinced him that he was better fitted for the position of a teacher than for military life, especially as he had married with the proverbial Pendleton haste. Leaving the army, his life for some years was one of constant struggle and indifferent success in one petty educational enterprise after another, in Delaware, Virginia, and Maryland. Gradually he found his way into the ministry of the Episcopal Church, and ultimately he became the rector of a church in Lexington, Va. At one time he acted as the agent of the Episcopal Sunday-School Union, and went to New England and to Boston in the discharge of his duties, whence his letters home are of uncommon interest, for they contain well-nigh the only allusions to slavery in the whole course of the book. He found Nehemiah Adams's 'South Side View of Slavery' "infinitely more just than Mrs. Stowe's romance, not hiding the manifold evils of slavery, but very truly contending that in itself it is not sinful, and is even a mighty agency of Providence in mysteriously working out a hopeful destiny for the African race." He "could not but think" of the Southern "operatives" when he went to Lowell and saw the operatives there:

> "Those girls—with their three dollars a week—steaming the livelong day amid the din of machinery that deadens every sense, standing for ever over the clattering looms or spindles, and inhaling an atmosphere charged with the mingled fragrance of fish-oil and fetid exhalations, and with common dust interspersed with cotton or woollen fibre, seemed to me doomed to a harder lot than thousands of slave girls."

While he was engaged in teaching, Dr. Pendleton's life was one of rigorous self-denial and much hardship. More than once a cherished theodolite was pawned to bring an answer to the prayer for daily bread. When the war broke out, he was summoned to take command of the newly formed Rockbridge Artillery, and he obeyed the summons with alacrity. His reasons for doing so are given under his own hand with much elaboration. They are principally concerned with a justification of his course, a servant of the Prince of Peace, in taking up arms, and with the provocation of the seceding States for their course. The subject of slavery is conspicuously absent from the discussion, as if it had nothing to do with the matter in hand.

He was made a brigadier-general in the spring of 1862, and, had not the rule of promotion in the artillery arm of the service been different from that of the infantry, he would have been made a major-general, for he had at one time three brigadiers of artillery subordinated to himself. There were few engagements in Virginia and Maryland in which he did not have some part. He was least fortunate at Sharpsburg, and was subjected to some criticism which he endeavored to answer or forestall in an elaborate official report which is given in full. The interest reaches its climax at Gettysburg, where, with Early and others, he bears testimony to the backwardness of Longstreet in carrying out Lee's orders, and attributes to it the Confederate defeat. These pages should be read in connection with Longstreet's justification of himself and attack on Lee in the *Century Magazine* in 1887. Dr. Pendleton's opinion of Lee's character and ability was very high, but of personal relationship they had so little that the suspicion is unavoidable that, on one side, at least, there was antipathy. A bit of correspondence between them in October, 1864, is extremely characteristic of Dr. Pendleton. He had dined with Lee and had omitted to say grace. He writes to apologize, and to say that he may have missed the sign for him to proceed; "or you may have for the time forgotten my sacred office under the military relation in which we commonly meet." Dr. Pendleton was deputed to communicate to Lee the opinion of his generals that the struggle must be given up. This was on April 7, 1865. Lee answered, "I trust it has not come to that." The next morning Grant demanded his surrender, and the circumstances of that event are detailed with all the pathos of extreme simplicity.

It happened before long that Lee came to Lexington and assumed the presidency of the Washington College, and thus became a parishioner of Dr. Pendleton, who, when the war was over, made haste regularly to resume the clerical function which he had never consciously abandoned altogether. Lee's connection with his church was a piece of pecuniary good fortune for him and it, for it enabled him, after the death of the great captain, to economize his fame for the raising of a fund to build a Lee Memorial Church in place of the old one, which was tumbling down. In the course of his efforts to raise this fund he met with some rebuffs, as when a Pennsylvanian who had been approached sent his subscription, but at the same time suggested a plan for a monument to John Brown to which the South would be asked to contribute equally with the North. Dr. Pendleton did not see the joke, not being much developed on the humorous side. His new church was hardly finished when he died very suddenly on January 15, 1883. He was born December 26, 1809. His health was never good, and in the army a succession of ailments sapped his vital force. After the war he had made haste to make his peace both with the national government and with the Northern Episcopal Church, which certainly had not done much to offend the prejudices of the South. Naturally he was a man of peace, and his military career was but the accident of a political conspiracy which swept everybody in the South, except a few persons of exceptional sense or character or fortune, into the ranks of the pro-slavery secession.

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*The Deeds of Beowulf:* An English epic of the eighth century, done into modern prose, with an introduction and notes. By John Earle, M.A., Rector of Swanswick, Rawlinsonian Professor of Anglo-Saxon in the University of Oxford. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. Pp. c, 203.

*Beowulf:* An Anglo-Saxon epic poem, translated from the Heyne-Socin text by John Lesslie Hall, Professor of English and History in the College of William and Mary. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. Pp. xviii, 110.

THE publication of both an English and an American translation of 'Beowulf' in the same year is a testimony to the increased interest in that poem which stands at the head of our earliest literature, and an evidence of the zeal with which studies in Old English are now pursued. Prof. Earle's book is about equally divided between introduction, translation, and notes, each occupying about one-third of the volume. The introduction consists of three sections, treating respectively of (1) the discovery of the text and progress of interpretation, (2) the contents of the poem, and (3) "My theory of the origin of the Beowulf." These titles explain themselves, and the contents of the first two sections are sufficiently familiar to Anglo-Saxon scholars; the third may be noticed briefly. Prof. Earle considers that the Hrothgar part and the Hygelac part of the poem are independent. He says (p. lxxviii): "Hygelac has been inserted, not merely into the web of the story, but into the fabric of this very poem after it had been cast upon a simpler plan"; further: "Hygelac and his realm are pure fiction." He then seeks for the motive of this invention, and finds it in the desire of the later poet to glorify the historical Offa, King of Mercia, his wife Cynethryth, and their son, Ecgferth, the Eomaer of the poem. Hygd is introduced to set off Thrytho, *i. e.*, Cynethryth; and Hrothgar, not Hygelac, is a type of Offa, the renowned King. Moreover, with Müllenhoff, Prof. Earle sees "a political drift" in lines 12-25, and thinks that this criticism confirms his own theory. "As Scyld is an allegory of Offa, so is Beowulf, the son of Scyld [not the son of Ecgtheow], an allegory of Ecgferth, the son of Offa." "This description of the mythic Beowulf" is "the vital germ of the entire composition." How simple and easy an explanation of the structure of this perplexing poem, all based on fourteen lines of the Prologue, which constitute "a programme of princely duty in the eighth century"! As we have discovered the *why* of the present form of the poem, the *when* follows as "the last quarter of the eighth century," and the *where* as Gothland; "but though Scania was thought of, the realm of Hygelac is essentially Utopian."

As to the origin of the earlier poem into which "this Utopian part was inserted," Prof. Earle is no wiser than the rest of us. He goes still further, however, and identifies this later poet, the originator of the glorification of the Mercian reigning family, with a certain Hygeberht, "the man chosen by Offa to be Archbishop of Lichfield, and of whom we read in the Life of Offa II. that he was the chief adviser of that King." Prof. Earle grants that the name Hygelac was borrowed from the 'Chocilaicus' of Gregory of Tours, an identification made long ago, "but it was arbitrarily transformed into harmony with the chief element in Hygeberht's name. The Queen of Hygelac is Hygd, another name from the same root, and both these names are of allegorical significance—Prudence and Discretion."

It is impossible in our brief space to give the reasons assigned by Prof. Earle for his theory. We have not found them convincing. As for his translation, it reads well and smoothly, but exception may occasionally be taken to his renderings. Two general criticisms are that he shows a great fondness for Latinized terms, and that he sometimes uses terms which seem inappropriate in an epic poem. As examples of the first may be cited, "So domineered and nefariously warred" (144), "nocturnal pests" (193), "confidential token" (247), "bombastic groom" (869), "enterprized," "shed its intaylèd foliations" (2257), "illustrious potentate" (2385), and, to pass

over many, "tenemental body" (3179). Such terms scarcely suit the simplicity of 'Beowulf.' A few examples of the second point may be found in the use of "insense" (415), "they had their quietus" (567), "the boss of horrors" (751), "the genial saloon" (!) (772), "that was the whole affair of Grendel's fang" (836-7), "I'd a liked it vastly better that thou'dst a seen his very self" (961-2)—imagine Beowulf talking as a country farmer; "recount to the eagle of his luck *at the spread*" (3027)—perhaps the slang use of this expression has not crossed the water, but its use here is calculated to excite one's risibles.

Prof. Earle's notes are full and learned, and form a valuable addition to the translation. The translation itself has been made from Heyne's fourth edition, with use, however, of the fifth edition, *i. e*, the Heyne-Socin text, which will, doubtless, become the standard.

Prof. Hall's translation, made from the Heyne-Socin text, is both rhythmical and alliterative. The first few lines may serve as a specimen:

"Lo! the Spear-Danes' glory through splendid achievements
The folk-kings' former fame we have heard of,
How princes displayed then their prowess-in-battle.
Oft Scyld the Scefing from scathers in numbers
From many a people their mead-benches tore."

Here there is a preservation of two accents to the half-line, the prominent characteristic of Anglo-Saxon poetry, with alliteration in lines 1, 3, and 5, on the first and third initially accented syllables, in lines 2 and 4 on the first, second, and third accented syllables, the normal Anglo-Saxon alliteration. The attempt is made to preserve this dactylic-trochaic rhythm, with anacrusis often in each half-line, throughout, and it may be said to be in general successful, although it sometimes fails. The chief objection to alliteration in English translation is that there is a tendency to sacrifice exactness of translation to it, and this difficulty has not always been overcome. Some of the lines have occasionally a prosaic rather than a poetic rhythm, but this may sometimes be mended by transposition of words or slight emendation of phrases. On the whole, the work has been well done, and gives the general reader a good idea of the form and substance of the ancient poem. It contains no introduction, but a brief preface summarizes the story, and is followed by a short bibliography of translations, a glossary of proper names, and a list of words and phrases used by the translator which are not in general use. Footnotes on certain passages give various readings and the views of other scholars, and in the addenda some discrepancies and other oversights in the Heyne-Socin glossary are noticed, but there are oversights in these. A practical drawback to the use of the translation is that there are no marginal numbers corresponding to the lines of the original text, as in Prof. Earle's translation, and this causes a waste of time in comparing the text with the translation. While the translation is not line for line, and therefore there could be no exact correspondence, the insertion of these marginal figures would facilitate reference. But, whatever deductions must be made, this is a commendable translation. The publishers have just issued a cheap edition for the use of students.

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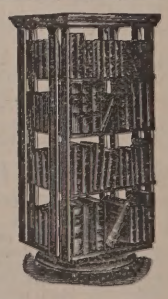

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 26, 1893.

## The Week.

THERE had been so much weakness and "wobbling" among all the other Democrats in official life at Washington that it was not strange that many people should have feared that even Mr. Cleveland might yield, more or less, to the pressure. It was therefore with a sigh of relief that the country received the announcement, made authoritatively on Monday, that "the President adheres to the position that the purchasing clause of the Sherman silver law should be unconditionally repealed." It seems almost incredible that politicians who pride themselves upon their shrewdness should for a moment have lent the slightest favor to any such compromise as the latest one —or, indeed, to any compromise at all. The idea that a party which had declared a law so intolerable that it ought to be repealed without delay, should propose to continue it in operation for another year, was in itself too absurd for serious consideration; and when the proposed extension for a twelvemonth of this "cowardly makeshift" was accompanied by other makeshifts even more cowardly and dangerous, one had not the patience to discuss the matter. The continuance of the present law unchanged was infinitely to be preferred to any such substitute as had been so readily accepted by nearly all of the Democratic Senators.

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To Mr. Cleveland, and we might almost say to Mr. Cleveland alone, belongs the honor of putting an end to the deadlock in the Senate and securing the passage of the repeal bill. If he had taken the advice of some of the most practical politicians in the party—Senator Gorman, for instance—he would have "compromised" long ago and have utterly ruined his party. For nothing is more certain than that any prolonged dilly-dallying with the silver question would have irretrievably associated the Democratic party with the worst business convulsion the country has experienced since 1837, and have consigned it once more to the powerlessness and obscurity from which Mr. Cleveland dragged it in 1884 and 1892. His silver letter was pronounced by all the wise men of the party a blazing indiscretion. It proved to be one of his masterstrokes. His firmness in the late trial of strength in Washington, maintained undoubtedly in the teeth of innumerable appeals both to his hopes and fears from quarters which he is accustomed to respect, shows that he has lost none of the courage which has most contributed to his political success.

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The attitude of the Republicans in Congress during this long controversy has been such as to merit the warmest praise. In the House during August, and in the Senate since early September, they have stood firmly for repeal, with the exception of the few from the silver States and (in the Senate) Don Cameron and "Bill" Chandler. They have resisted more than one temptation to try and seize partisan advantage by assisting a compromise that would undoubtedly have hurt the Democrats, but would also as undoubtedly have worked vast harm to the country. They sustained the Democratic leader in the Senate in his "test of endurance," they supported the Democratic President against the opposition of fully half of his own party, and, though in a minority of the body, they will furnish the majority of the votes that will carry repeal. In short, the record of the Republican party throughout this controversy is one that it may well be proud of.

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The latest plan for the "rehabilitation of silver" appears in the *Fortnightly Review*, in which Mr. A. G. Schiff proposes that silver shall be taxed by a "majority of the powers in conference assembled," so that its price shall never sink below 48 pence per ounce. The benefit, he says, of having silver kept at this price would be enormous, for this reason:

> "Silver has been used as money from time immemorial until 1813; at the present moment it still forms the currency of the greatest portion of mankind, and as a natural consequence of the greatest number of debtors.
>
> "Creditors are benefited by the solvency of debtors.
>
> "These are axioms which the most inveterate gold man will accept."

It is of course impossible to state with certainty and accuracy the origin of a craze, but we believe that we shall come as near as possible to the truth in saying that the origin of the silver craze is to be found in the notion that the mass of mankind are debtors. This is the "fons et origo" of the whole bunch of hallucinations which make up the silver movement, and have worked such unfortunate results in this country. The fact is that the civilized world contains far more creditors than debtors. The laborers are all creditors as long as they are laboring. The class which saves is a creditor if its savings are—as they usually are—invested. All persons living on salaries are creditors. All holders of stocks, bonds, and other securities are creditors. The debtors are everywhere a small class. Either they are great operators in stocks, or they are persons struggling with adversity, and likely soon to go to the wall. If we step into any small town and inquire into the circumstances of the inhabitants, we shall find that the debtors are well known, not much trusted, and sure to disappear before long. If it be said that this is not true of the farmers, so many of whom have mortgages on their farms, the answer is that every harvest as it comes round makes the farmer a creditor, so that at best his interests and sympathies are as much on one side of the books as the other.

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What has probably given rise to the notion that silver is dear to debtors, and that mankind is in debt, is, that a very large number of silver agitators are in debt, and want to pay off their obligations in a depreciated currency; but, compared to "the greatest portion of mankind," these gentlemen are a very small handful. The truth is that the world is divided between the creditor and the debtor interest, the vast majority of persons being the creditors of the community either for work and labor done, or for goods had and received. Every honest man pursuing a lawful calling keeps a running account with society, in which the balance is generally in his favor. The selling interest is probably smaller than the buying interest, unless we count in labor as a marketable commodity; but if we count this in, there will always be about as many vendors as vendees in the world's markets. So that the fearful racket about the catastrophe which is going to overtake the human race if gold goes up, is about as alarming as the music of a Chinese theatre.

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The confirmation of Mr. Van Alen by the Senate was so sure to come that it will attract but little attention. The Senate is not the kind of body in these days to reject a man because he has been a liberal giver to the campaign funds. Among the majority for confirmation were Gorman, Higgins, Quay, Jones, Stewart, Cameron, and McMillan. All that the occasion calls for is a word or two of condolence with Mr. Cleveland. He has satisfied Mr. Van Alen and Mr. Whitney, but he has given his own reputation a blow from which it will never recover. He has spoken and written so much about the use of money in politics, and about the sacredness of the trust created by the holding of public office, that Mr. Van Alen's success is a great misfortune for him. It will make a large body of moral literature almost ridiculous. The curious thing about it, too, is that it was not necessary. He could readily have shown Mr. Whitney that, much as he was indebted to him, this particular thing

was something which he must not ask him to do. In the whole range of possible Presidential errors or blunders, there is not one from which President Cleveland is so completely cut off as the sale of high offices for cash. There is no other against which his friends were so ready to offer warranties, and have given so many warranties. What is still worse is that there is not one so dangerous to the safety, honor, and welfare of this government. The sale of legislation for campaign funds may be said to have begun with the Republicans. The sale of high executive office may be said to have begun with Harrison. The Democrats have turned the Republicans out in order to stop both abuses, and, lo and behold, they have plunged in themselves the minute they got a chance. If Mr. Van Alen had been a prominent public man, holding all the ordinary titles to high places, we should greatly have regretted his getting a foreign mission after giving $50,000 to aid in electing the appointing officer. But considering that he is entirely unknown in public life, and holds no titles to high places, the transaction is one of unusual nakedness.

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The Massachusetts Civil-Service Reform League is not satisfied with Mr. Josiah Quincy's defence of himself, and has resolved that his refusal to recognize such a thing as "the spirit and purpose of the civil-service law" does not, in fact, entirely frown it out of existence. But a little thing like condemnation by his friends does not trouble Mr. Quincy, who reiterates his opinion that they are a sad lot of impracticables. He grants that there is "no objection to the assertion of the pure merit system by persons who look at the subject exclusively from the civil-service standpoint," but he himself, as a "party man," bound to follow some "practical method," is not free to take any such transcendental view. Mr. Quincy's shame is great enough without such glorying in it. His pretence that the stern realities of executive responsibility have cleared the reform cobwebs from his eyes simply invites comparison with the many examples of theoretical and practical spoilsmen who have, unlike Mr. Quincy, found executive power inclining them to reform. Ex-Secretary Tracy confessed that it was the hard experience of a "party man" in office that forced him to adopt reform methods in the Brooklyn Navy-yard, and even Wanamaker began to show some signs of weariness with the spoils debauch. We fear, therefore, that it is not the cares and teachings of office which have brought Mr. Quincy's civil-service reform professions to wreck.

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Mr. Peck, the ex-Commissioner of Labor, who fled the country to escape the penalty of his acts in stealing and destroying the official records of his bureau, has returned and surrendered himself for trial, encouraged, it is said, by the "harmony" in his party over the nomination of Maynard. It will be interesting to observe the outcome of his case, in view of the decision of the Court of Appeals upon it, delivered in June last. The crime of which Peck was then pronounced guilty was precisely the one which the Bar Association of this city, ex-Judge Danforth of the Court of Appeals, and other high authorities have declared Maynard to be guilty of, coming under section 94 of the Penal Code as a felony, "punishable by imprisonment for not more than five years, or by a fine of not more than $5,000, or by both." Peck reasons, not unnaturally, that if Maynard can be nominated for the Court of Appeals, there is no reason why he should be afraid to return to a State whose rulers are capable of such doings.

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Philadelphia has a Municipal League which is trying to secure better government of the city. At present the state of things is not quite so bad in Philadelphia as in New York and Brooklyn, but it is bad enough. Mr. Herbert Welsh says that the League has sufficient moral evidence to warrant the declaration that "the Councils of Philadelphia, as a body, are open to the charge that they look for orders to certain great corporations, and not to their constituents; that they legislate in the interest of these corporations as against the interests of these constituents, to the great detriment of the city." In his address at the recent annual meeting, Mr. Welsh pointed out that the League was working in the same line with men in all the other large cities of the country, who encounter the same discouraging obstacles and have the same intricate problems to solve; and he urged that, if it clearly perceived this fact, it would "work with a sense of generous rivalry, of enthusiasm, of careful thought and patience, far greater than that which marks its efforts now." The Boston *Herald* carries this idea a step farther by suggesting an organization of these bodies in different cities in the shape of a national municipal-reform league, which might meet in an annual congress for the discussion of the various important questions in which they are interested; holding that an interchange of views could not fail to be of great service in placing at the command of all a knowledge of the work for municipal reform in each city. This suggestion is well worth the consideration of municipal reformers.

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The refusal of the Synod of New York on Thursday to sustain the efforts of Dr. Briggs and his sympathizers to have his case reopened on technical grounds was only what they must have expected. With technical correctness of procedure or without it, the judgment of the denomination on the main issue involved has been pronounced with unmistakable emphasis, and it is mere contentiousness to prolong the struggle. There is the more reason for the friends of Dr. Briggs to acquiesce in this, inasmuch as they are now practically assured of toleration of their views within the church. The zeal of the conservatives has distinctly cooled since their success in securing the condemnation of the head and front of the offending. Now they are all for peace and letting bygones be bygones. They want no more trials. The followers of Prof. Briggs may go out of the church if they choose to, but they will be in no danger of being put out. They may even hold the identical opinions of Prof. Briggs if they will—only let them use a little tact and discretion, and be a little more patient than he was in waiting for the majority to catch up with him. Are they not all brethren? Such really seems at present the most likely issue of it all. The heretic must go, but his heresies remain to become orthodoxy all in good time. Pascal's Jesuit laid down the great principle when he said: "These opinions would be orthodox in any other mouth than that of M. Arnauld." Prof. Briggs is anathema, but Prof. Moore, Prof. Brown, and other Presbyterian professors in good standing that might be named are to be made perfectly at home in the household of faith, although holding substantially the same opinions.

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One of the topics for discussion before the World's Evangelical Congress at Chicago the other day was that nightmare of most clergymen—how to get people to go to church on Sunday evenings. A Wisconsin minister told of his success in building up an evening congregation by various means, among them the cutting down of his sermon to fifteen minutes. This is in line with the recommendation of the learned and pious judge who said, when asked how long, in his opinion, a sermon ought to be, "Fifteen minutes, with a leaning to the side of mercy." Yet we do not see how the remedy can be expected to be a truly permanent one. Those who think of a sermon merely as something to "hold a watch on," will be led on by such concessions only to demand a continued lowering of the record. Those, on the other hand, who look to the substance, will contend that fifteen minutes is too long for a poor sermon and not long enough for a good one. The only thoroughgoing reform is to multiply preachers whose sermons have more than that one point of intense interest which, according to George Eliot, all sermons have—the point when they are at last over.

The railroad disaster on the Grand Trunk Line on Friday was at once the most shocking and the most inexcusable of the long list which has disgraced the year. It was due, apparently, solely to the reckless disregard of positive instructions by the conductor of one train, who had been ordered to meet the other train on a siding, yet directed his engineer to keep on beyond that siding because he "thought" the other train had already passed him at a station. It is impossible that such a thing could happen on a road where there was proper discipline. Indeed, nobody can have travelled much this year without having been impressed by the spirit of recklessness and indifference which characterizes so many of the employees. This is a spirit which seems to grow naturally, when left unrestrained, in any employment which is especially hazardous; and the greatest reproach of American railroads is that they do so little to check its development in the only possible way, by the enforcement of severe discipline. The difficulty has been greatly aggravated this year by the immense increase in passenger traffic on all lines running to Chicago, which the companies have tried to handle without a corresponding increase in the working force—in some cases, indeed, with a smaller proportional force than usual. The result is that men have been compelled to work "till they were ready to drop"—we have heard of a brakeman who was kept on duty without sleep for forty-eight hours; and the too common recklessness has thus been heightened by the effects of bodily fatigue and mental exhaustion.

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A peculiar form of injustice to an author through the lack of an international copyright law to protect his property has just been brought to light by the eminent Danish critic, Georges Brandes. He had undertaken to bring out a German edition of his 'Currents of Literature in the Nineteenth Century,' and had actually edited and revised three volumes of the work, when a German publisher, on the announcement of the enterprise, flooded the market with a cheap reprint of an old and grossly imperfect translation. As there is no copyright treaty between Germany and Denmark, Brandes was without redress and was driven from the field. This was bad enough, but what must have seemed worse to the critic himself was the fact that a slashing attack recently made upon him in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* was based almost entirely upon this old and misleading translation. He asserts in a letter to the *Figaro* that not a single one of the statements of fact or of opinion which were made the ground of severe criticism in the *Revue*, occurs in his revised edition. This is not only robbing a man but maltreating him to boot.

The earnestness and versatility of French Socialists are in no way more strikingly shown than in their pressing literature into their service. Novels and romances setting forth the abominations of the existing social order and the beauties of the one to come have long abounded. Lately the playwrights have been enlisted in the good cause, and more than one drama has been seen in which the zeal of a socialistic apostle was more conspicuous than the literary or dramatic gifts of the author. One of the latest devices is a "Socialist Catechism" designed for wide circulation among the people. It contains ninety-nine formal questions and answers, in which the wickedness of employers and the virtues of workingmen are duly set forth, together with glorification of fraternity, appeals for insurrection, and all the rest of it. Occasionally one comes upon a witty turn lighting up the general sombreness of the catechism. For example, in answer to the question, "What is a conservative?" we are told: "A conservative is an old gentleman, as a general thing very badly conserved." The definition of an economist is as follows: "An economist is a *bourgeois*, stupid, but very eminent." Neat, if somewhat unkind, is the reply to the question, "What is a Christian Socialist?" "A Christian Socialist is a worthy reactionary who goes so far as to admit that, for the workingman, the bread of life would be much more attractive if some beefsteak went along with it."

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Several public executions in France have recently been attended with such scandals that interest is renewed in a proposed law to prohibit these demoralizing spectacles. A former excuse for public executions may have been, that by no other means could the popular mind be satisfied of the due infliction of the legal penalty, and freed from all suspicion that the real criminal had been smuggled away by some fraud or negligence. But such an end could be assured, as it is in this State, for example, by providing for a sufficient number of legal witnesses of an execution. One would suppose that the scenes of the Terror would have been enough to convince French lawgivers of the danger of cultivating a spirit of blood-thirstiness in the populace, and of making the guillotine a favorite toy with children. A curious and degrading feature of modern executions in France is the resort to them, besides the ordinary rabble, of decayed old roués and profligates, male and female, who go about in search of horrible sights to flog their jaded sensibilities into action. They cannot, perhaps, be shut out of their other favorite haunts, the morgue and mad-houses, but at least the State ought not to pander to their depravity by admitting them to public executions.

Count Taaffe's bill to extend the suffrage in Austria may be said to be one of the results of the successful struggle for universal suffrage in Belgium last spring. From Brussels the agitation was immediately transferred to Vienna, and, all through the summer, meetings were held and an active propaganda carried on to secure for the lower classes in Austria what had been won by the Belgian workingmen. There was, of course, the latent threat all along to resort to the same methods as had been employed in Belgium of public disorder and a universal strike. It was doubtless to head off any movement of that kind that the Government decided to come forward with the appearance of granting spontaneously a good part of the popular demand. Naturally, this action has been subjected to the usual comments made upon concessions of that sort. The "entering-wedge" argument is heard both from alarmed conservatives, who see the end of all things at hand, and from delighted radicals, who say that, having begun the descent of Avernus, the Government cannot stop till it lands at the very bottom. In like manner, the attitude of Roman firmness is advised by some of the same two sets of extremists—the conservatives asserting that it will never do to concede anything, even if just, to popular clamor, and the wilder radicals standing out for the "all-or-nothing" principle. Meanwhile the Government has to steer a difficult course as best it can, one of its prime necessities being to prevent any domestic discord in the Triple Alliance. The Triple Alliance, in fact, has become a sort of government above the Government, compelling both Italy and Austria to adopt financial and military measures which they would not think of if left to themselves.

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It did not need recent events to show how completely in Brazil the profession of arms dominates all others, or to explain why military ideas are so often permitted to override the methods of peace and of law. Some months ago a Brazilian paper published a list of army and navy officers—active, retired, and honorary—who were then holding civil positions or were candidates for such places. No less than 361 names were included. The President of the country—whose strictly legal office is the Vice-Presidency, and who is also Senator—is a marshal of the army. Other army or navy officers are found in the persons of eleven governors of States, fourteen Senators, and forty deputies in the national Congress. No wonder that the laws give way to the rough-and-ready practices of the camp and quarter-deck, or that aspiring young politicians are learning the lesson that military preferment is the surest road to political advancement.

*INHERENT POWERS OF DELIBERATIVE BODIES.*

MR. EDMUNDS'S letter makes the situation in the Senate perfectly clear. There has been so much talk of senatorial courtesy, and of rules of mysterious potency, that many people have received the impression that the Senate was entirely helpless under the tyranny of a small minority, and that any attempt to check the flow of speech would be of the nature of revolution. All this fog is blown away at a whiff by Mr. Edmunds. His letter was drawn out by an inquiry addressed to him by ex-Gov. Stewart of Vermont, himself an experienced parliamentarian through long service in Congress and in the Legislature of his State. Mr. Stewart found himself unable to believe that any legislative body could be so powerless as the Senate appeared to find itself, and he accordingly asked the opinion of Mr. Edmunds upon the question whether the presiding officer of the Senate was legally authorized to terminate debate, as also upon the question whether this officer, if powerless to end debate upon other subjects, was equally so when a change in the rules was proposed. Senator Edmunds shows that the rules of the Senate afford no protection to obstructionists, and that the present inaction of the Senate is not forced but voluntary.

It is not easy to overrate the importance of this opinion. Not only is Mr. Edmunds a constitutional lawyer of the highest rank, but he presided for several years over the deliberations of the Senate. It would not be too much to say that this opinion, in connection with Judge Cooley's, is an advance statement of the judgment of the Supreme Court of the United States, should the case ever come before them for decision. In fact, when one comes to look fairly at the question, there seems to be no question about it. The rules of the Senate say nothing, it is true, about stopping a Senator who is speaking with the express purpose of preventing action. But it is an extraordinary inference that any act not expressly prohibited by explicit rule is therefore permitted. There is no rule forbidding a Senator to speak when he is drunk, or to appear naked on the floor of the Senate, or to sing indecent songs, or to address the Senate in the Chinese language, or to do a thousand other objectionable things. There is no rule either against these things or against obstructive talk, partly for the reason assigned by the ancient law-giver for not providing punishment for parricide—that the commission of the act was itself incredible—and partly because they are covered by the general rule against disorderly conduct. That rule provides that at any stage of the proceedings, except when the Senate is dividing, any Senator may raise the question whether another Senator is out of order, and the question, unless submitted to the Senate, shall be decided by the presiding officer without debate. An appeal from this decision may be taken to the Senate, but if they sustain it, that ends the matter definitively. Debate is allowed upon the appeal, but if any member shall be called to order during this debate, the question shall be decided without debate, and, although an appeal is allowed from this decision, there can be no debate upon this appeal. So far from the rules of the Senate protecting obstructionists, they seem devised specifically to suppress them. If it is really a disorderly act to speak with the announced intention of preventing legislation, there is nothing whatever in the rules of the Senate or in parliamentary practice to hinder the Vice-President—if supported by a majority of the Senate—from declaring it such and from stopping it.

It is quite probable that this view of the situation has not hitherto presented itself to the obstructive Senators. They are men of no great attainments, for the most part, in constitutional law, and they have very likely believed that there was no legislative device to hinder them from talking till the crack of doom. The suggestions of compromise with which the air has been filled were quite probably due to the discovery on the part of these men that they have aroused the bitterest enmity against their cause by their use of a weapon which they supposed was irresistible, but which proves to be worthless. They have outraged their colleagues and the coördinate branches of the Government, and defied the people, thinking that they could do so with perfect impunity; and now that they find that there is nothing in the rules to prevent their being put in charge of the sergeant-at-arms, they begin to talk of compromise. But any compromise that may now be offered them must be dictated by their opponents and not by them. Their brief period of despotic power is over, and it is beginning to be understood by the public as well as by parliamentarians that their dominion was nothing more than the brief period of license enjoyed by a gang of ruffians before the constables can reach the scene of disturbance.

The disposition to proceed to action which is now evident among the majority in the Senate is doubtless due, in part at least, to the same cause. So long as it seemed to be conceded that the minority must rule, and that there was no way of stopping them, the majority felt itself relieved of responsibility. To very many of them, it is to be feared, this freedom from responsibility was acceptable. They could not be accused of hostility to silver, because they had not voted to repeal the silver law, nor could they be denounced by the believers in honest money, for they had not voted against repeal. Now they find that responsibility has rolled back upon them with increased weight. They see that they can put a stop to obstruction, and that the people are learning that they can. If they do not, it is now because they will not, and the odium that has been heaped upon the silver fanatics will be transferred to them. That odium is now so intensified by torturing delay that it will be too heavy for any political party to assume.

*AN EXTRAORDINARY SITUATION.*

HAS there ever been anything in the politics of this State quite so remarkable as the attitude of the Republican organization at present? The State is ready and willing to turn against the Democratic party and give the Republicans the greatest political victory they have had for twenty years, yet, instead of making the most of the opportunity, the whole power of this Republican organization seems to be exerted to keep the victory from coming to the party. They are pushing it away by every means in their power. Mr. Platt in the State convention refused to put forward the strongest possible candidate against the criminal whom the Democrats are running for the Court of Appeals, and insisted on nominating a candidate who, while eminently respectable and well fitted for the place, lacked the popular strength which a candidate more generally known would have commanded.

Not content with this curious political manœuvre in the interest of the opposite party, the Republican machine in this city put in the field as weak and inconsequential a municipal ticket as could be arranged, and when a most unusual opportunity was afforded for strengthening it by putting Mr. Myers on as candidate for comptroller, the machine refused to accept it. Most remarkable of all, the machine uses as the medium for giving publication to its decisions and proposals the organs of Tammany Hall. Mr. Robinson, the machine's candidate for comptroller, chooses the *Sun* rather than the *Tribune* as the organ most congenial to his tastes when he wishes to avow his determination not to withdraw in the interest of Mr. Myers, but to run in the interest of Tammany Hall. In fact, his whole course could not be better shaped if its design were to make it difficult for any independent citizen to vote for him, for it is calculated to create general disgust with both himself and his party.

As a consequence of these proceedings there is such a general lack of confidence in Republican sincerity that many persons suspect that there has been a "deal" in accordance with which the Republican machine has agreed not to defeat Maynard. That he cannot be elected unless there is Republican faith-

lessness is as clear as noonday. The Democratic leaders are finding out what a difficult task they have on hand, and are sending out earnest appeals for "competent speakers," saying that only those must be put on the stump who have been "carefully selected." That is confession that the task of defending Maynard is so delicate, and the situation so critical, that no speaker must be trusted who is at all likely to weaken under fire. Of course the situation is critical. Maynard's assailants are not men whose charges can be disposed of easily. They are the foremost men at the bar in this State, and their words carry weight with the people because of the personal character behind them. It would be a marvel indeed if a candidate so assailed could be elected in this State without a desperate struggle.

Added to the weakness which Maynard's candidacy creates, there is also the failure of the Democratic majority in the United States Senate to accomplish anything. This, under ordinary and fair conditions, ought of itself to give the State to the Republicans. Yet instead of improving that opportunity, the Republican platform is silent on the subject of silver-purchase repeal. How did that happen?

In view of these most suspicious proceedings, is it any wonder that political observers are saying that Maynard is likely to be elected because the Republican organization cannot be depended upon to work honestly for his defeat? Is it any wonder, after the Robinson performance in regard to the comptrollership, that the same observers are saying that if it is necessary to cheat in the count in this city in order to elect Maynard, there is no hope that the Republican machine will put any obstacles in the way of such cheating? That the candidacy of Mr. Myers, if accepted by the Republicans, would have drawn a large number of votes from Tammany, and would have endangered the success of their ticket, was shown clearly enough by the anxiety of all the Tammany organs to get him out of the field. His candidacy would also have added to the difficulty of electing Maynard, as was shown by the taking of Mr. Fitch out of Congress to run for his successor. By refusing to accept Mr. Myers as their candidate, the Republican organization has performed a great service both to Tammany and to Maynard, and the decent men of the Republican party ought to make themselves heard in protest.

In fact, the responsibility for Maynard's election, if it shall be accomplished, will rest squarely upon the Republican party. He cannot be elected if that party makes a sincere effort to defeat him. The defection in the Democratic party over his candidacy is widespread and great. He will receive a smaller honest vote than any candidate of his party has received for many years. He will be defeated if the Republicans do their duty not merely in getting out their own vote, but in opposing all Democratic schemes for cheating in the count. If the leaders of the Republican machine cannot be trusted to do their duty in these things, then the honest men in the party ought to take matters into their own hands, unite with the Bar Association and other non-partisan opponents of Maynard, and see to it that steps are taken to have both an honest election and an honest count. If there is not virtue enough left in both political parties to secure this result, the State is indeed in evil hands.

## *A GREAT MYSTERY.*

WE find the following interesting passage in a letter from Chicago to the *Spectator* of London, describing the impressions of some recent English visitors to this country:

"We were in the Fair grounds at all hours of the day and early night for weeks, and never heard of any pocket-picking; nor yet did we hear an angry word, much less an oath. Altogether, we saw so little that was evil, and so much that was good, that we began to wonder where all the wicked people whose doings made our blood run cold in the daily papers were to be found. These papers are a national calamity. With very few exceptions, they seem to serve up a banquet of brutal horrors to readers who will enjoy to the full every turn of the screw of the rack on which the murderer places his victims, and every agony of parents who still love the children whose evil deeds are made all too public. To an enterprising editor in America, no home has any privacy, no feeling of the heart any sanctity. The sins and sufferings of one-half of the world are to furnish the delights of the other; and scarcely a horror can be named which escapes serving as an occasion for a jest. If a man has the misfortune to lose a leg in a terrible accident, the headline of the paragraph which announces this is, 'His leg goes to Heaven before him.' If a couple of lovers are killed by lightning, we read, 'Lightning takes off two.' A lynching is gracefully described as 'a neck-tie party.' Worse things might be quoted, but we refrain; and yet, though these papers live and prosper, the people we see are as tender and compassionate as the heart of man can desire."

This remarkably accurate definition of the "live" American newspaper of the period raises a question which has troubled thoughtful minds for some time, and that is, Who are the readers who like these newspapers? One seldom or never meets a person who will admit that he likes them, or who says that he would discontinue them were they to stop publishing the daily "banquet of brutal horrors," scandal, and filth; yet one meets constantly people who denounce them as public nuisances and express unbounded contempt for the editors who conduct them. Even these editors themselves appear to be harassed with doubts about the attractiveness of their wares, for they are continually offering "prizes" or bribes of one kind or another to induce people to buy their papers. If horrors, scandals, exposures of private life, were the things which the "public wants" above all else in a newspaper, why bribe them thus? So in regard to the use of "cuts." It is evidently the belief of the editors of our great dailies that "cuts" are a wonderful attraction, but how often does one meet a reader who does not ridicule them and wish they were out of the paper? Indeed, it was only a few days ago that one of the papers formerly most disfigured in this way published a letter from a reader praising the paper's reports of the yacht-races, and saying that he enjoyed them all the more because they were not broken up with "cuts."

There is clearly a mystery here, and we know of no one so well qualified to explain it as the editors themselves. They must have reasons for their conduct. Take for example that great journalist who, for at least six months, was hailed by his admirers as the most wonderful editor the world had ever known, and who, when he was told by one of his reporters that a poor demented woman had delivered a wild harangue in a public hall which was so indecent that men as well as women were forced to leave, exclaimed, "Immense! Give it a page!" That man must have had some reason for thinking that his paper would be benefited by giving up a page to such "news." What was it? Why should he think that people would be eager to read in a newspaper the very things they had tried to escape from when they were said to them in a public place? His answer upon this point would throw light upon the whole theory of his kind of journalism. In private life, a man or woman who goes about prying into other people's business, discovering and disclosing family secrets, dragging from their sacred abodes private griefs and holding them up to the public gaze, is a social outcast, hated and loathed of all men. By what process of reasoning does an editor imagine that he becomes "great" and makes his newspaper prosperous by doing these things?

Unhappily we have in this vicinity a considerable number of editors who ought to be able to throw light on this mystery, for they are all engaged daily in this business. There was published recently in *Judge* an excellent picture of them and their occupation as it affects the youth of the land. It was called "The Modern School of Crime," and depicted a school-room filled with bright and handsome children eagerly receiving instruction from a real Professor of Journalism, who was expounding to them the "leading features" of the daily press. Above a raised platform the most "spicy" cases of newspaper horrors were displayed. The pupils held copies of the *Daily Sensation*, the *Daily Filth*, the *Daily Dirt*, the *Weekly Scandal* in their hands, and the professor was dilating on the instructive aspects of the collection. On a side wall was displayed in large and attractive letters the "Faculty of the School," which contained the names of all the really great and progressive editors of the period. That picture ought to be hung in every editorial sanctum of the land, and the men whose

names appear, rightly and justly, in that faculty ought to come forward and tell the public what the reasons are which impel them to engage in such business. They must have the key to the mystery which baffles every other mind.

It was only a few months ago that one of our newspapers, which had previously made a temporary descent in the same direction, departed permanently from the ranks of orderly and decent journalism and entered those of sensational journalism illustrated with "cuts." It is a matter of general knowledge that the editor has lost many of his former readers by this change, and there is no outward and visible evidence that he has gained new ones. He must have had some reason for the change, some strong and persuasive argument to convince him that there was somewhere a large number of people yearning for a newspaper which should either suppress entirely or hide in obscure corners all important news, and array on the first page all the scandal, silly gossip, and trivialities, each item in the list being expanded and topped with alluring headlines, under the remarkable delusion that almost anything can be converted into "important news" by "giving it a column and putting a scare head" upon it. There is no bid for intelligent readers in this method of editing, and the question is, Who are the people that the editor thinks will be attracted by it? Where do they live, and how does it happen that they are never encountered by any one from outside their set? The editors evidently believe there are untold millions of them somewhere, and that their appetite for newspapers is insatiable. Is this the case? If it is, it would be a great relief to a curious world to have some one of the parties to the secret give us exact information on the point. It would indeed be "immense" and would easily fill a page.

## *REFUSE.*

In the earlier months of the Chicago Fair, while the attendance was below 100,000, the administration was remarkably successful in keeping the grounds and buildings clean. It is no easy matter to "clean up" after a crowd—that is, to collect and dispose of the refuse of tens of thousands of lunches—the boxes, the paper, the grape-skins, the peanut and other shells, the orange and lemon peel, the peach and apple skins and stones, and, what is worst of all, the chop and other bones and the unconsumed pieces of meat, bread, and pie. But for some time the administration managed to perform this task by keeping the scavengers constantly at work. Since the attendance has doubled, it has become impossible, and portions of the exhibition grounds have fallen into a sad condition, through accumulations of refuse and offal. After the Chicago day, when the attendance passed 700,000, five hundred cartloads of débris were collected, but the work was still unfinished. It is now, of course, too late to make any change, and the Exposition will probably close knee-deep in some places in the remains of by-gone repasts.

There is one way in which this might have been prevented, and those who value the Exposition for its educational power will be the first to regret that it was not resorted to. It has been often remarked of this Fair, as of the Centennial, that the greatest service it rendered the country was familiarizing the untravelled portion of the population with other and better ways and things than those to which they were accustomed. It is not too much to say, for example, that the Centennial killed the linen duster as a national costume. Hundreds of thousands left home in linen dusters, unconscious of the effect they would produce if seen in masses. When they saw 100,000 persons of both sexes clad in linen dusters, the artistic shame of the garment came upon them with a rush, and they put it from them as soon as they got home. In like manner, there were before 1876 large areas, even on the eastern coast, in which good bread, raised with yeast, was absolutely unknown to the housewife. Of other bread than the saleratus-raised poison, she knew nothing. But once she had seen and tasted the Vienna bread, the baking art took on a new dignity in her eyes. She might still make saleratus bread and give it to her offspring, but she knew there was something better within her reach. We do not think it an exaggeration to say that the introduction of true bread, into the households east of the Alleghanies at least, dates from the Philadelphia Exposition.

In the great effort which we are all making just now for the introduction of a greater regard for beauty, order, and decency into the management of our towns, cities, and villages, one of the chief difficulties with which we have to contend is the national indifference to what may be generally termed "refuse"—that is, indifference to the sight and neighborhoods of things thrown away or cast out as garbage, or waste, or excreta. Spitting on floors is one manifestation of it, now rapidly passing away in this part of the world. Throwing down nutshells on the spot where the nuts have been eaten is another. Throwing down papers, baskets, boxes, and leavings of all sorts is another. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred this is done because the offender has not been used to places in which the look of things was of any importance. In the tradition of the frontier, as long as the inside of the house was clean and decent, the outside surroundings were of no importance.

This tradition reigns to-day in nearly all our great cities. The great mass of the population has not the slightest idea that there is anything wrong in throwing down newspapers, scraps of paper, or nutshells in the streets. Consequently the streets of nearly every American town are by the afternoon, and often for days and weeks in succession, a litter of confusion and disorder such as is not seen anywhere else in Christendom. That duty to one's neighbor includes the duty of saving him from unsightliness, is not taught to our children. Two or three years ago there was a great Sunday-school picnic in the Central Park in this city. The spectacle presented by the great lawn on the following day was something to remember. The children had left their lunch-boxes and the remains of their lunches wherever they happened to be, in perfect unconsciousness of anything faulty. The occasion might have been used to give them a lesson in civic order and decency which they would never have forgotten, had they been requested to roll and pack up their leavings, for such and such reasons.

There has been no question about the orderliness, and decency, and respectability, in the best sense of the word, of the crowd at the Chicago Fair. Not less remarkable has been their teachableness. They were there to learn and they have learned. They have in particular, we may be sure, profited above all things by the spectacle of so much pains taken and so much money spent to produce simply a vision of beauty—something which is to pass away like a dream, leaving not a wrack behind. But they might have been taught also very readily, by notices distributed through the buildings, that it was the duty of those who visited the Fair to assist the administration in keeping the grounds clean and sweet and orderly, by taking care of their own refuse. The great majority bring their lunch with them. They have to eat it in the Fair grounds, and it is sure to leave behind a certain quantity of débris. Had receptacles been provided for these at certain places, as in Lincoln Park, and had lunching parties been requested to deposit in them their leavings, not only should we have been spared many collocations of great beauty and great squalor, but we should have helped to diffuse through many regions of the West and Southwest a knowledge of the part which tidiness plays in all municipal splendor.

## *MRS. LUCY STONE.*

There are personalities which share with greatness the function of marking the progress of ideas. Such a one was the late editor of the *Woman's Journal*. Not the most intellectual, certainly, of the notable group of women whose names are associated with the woman-suffrage movement in this country; not a pioneer in the sense that the Grimké sisters

were pioneers; not a member of the first woman's-rights convention, which Mrs. Stanton helped assemble; not more devoted to the cause than Miss Anthony, who, like Mrs. Stanton, survives her; not more eloquent than Abby Kelley, who almost with bleeding feet prepared the way for her, Mrs. Stone nevertheless earned the reward due to pure, disinterested, indefatigable promotion of the reform she had at heart: she personified it in the mind of the public. Her departure has naturally evoked reminiscences of the period when she came upon the scene, and reflections upon the changes she had witnessed, and in no small measure brought about, in the position and estimation of woman during her nearly four score years.

In one of the very last of her public addresses Mrs. Stone truthfully affirmed that "the woman's rights movement owes its inception to the anti-slavery cause." Before she had finished her schooling, the Grimkés, by relating their experience of slavery to mixed audiences in Massachusetts, had drawn down upon themselves the famous Pastoral Letter of the General Association of that State to the orthodox churches under its care. When woman, said this document, "assumes the place and tone of man as a public reformer, our care and protection of her seem unnecessary; we put ourselves in self-defence against her; she yields the power which God has given her for her protection, and her character becomes unnatural. . . . We cannot, therefore, but regret the mistaken conduct of those who encourage females to bear an obtrusive and ostentatious part in measures of reform, and countenance any of that sex who so far forget themselves as to itinerate in the character of public lecturers and teachers." The vilest insinuations were freely vented from the pulpit against the women who went forth as accredited agents of the anti-slavery societies. Half-a-dozen orthodox clergymen of New England withdrew from an abolition convention which invited women to become members and participate in the proceedings; and when Miss Kelley had been put on a committee with two men, the editor of the *Christian Mirror* intimated the disreputableness of such a closeting. This committee's memorial was rejected by the Rhode Island Congregational Consociation as coming from an unscripturally woman-ruled convention. The speedy disruption of the anti-slavery organization, though induced by a variety of causes, was ostensibly based upon the question of the equality of the sexes in philanthropic agitation. The same division invaded the World's Anti-Slavery Convention in London in the same year, 1840. The ground was now ready for the organization of women on their own behalf, and the moving spirits, like Mrs. Lucretia Mott, were found in the abolition ranks.

Lucy Stone's own introduction to the public as a speaker was on the anti-slavery platform. She brought with her to that, and presently to the woman's-rights platform, the distinction of being the first woman trained in the higher education who had publicly advocated either reform. She was a graduate, in 1847, of Oberlin College, which made no distinction of sex or color in its admission and instruction, yet deemed it improper that female graduates should read their own commencement parts. Miss Stone accordingly declined to prepare hers. She lived to see State after State in the newer sections of the country establish coeducational universities until no other could be thought of, supported by general taxation; and to see in the older States, even at the South, a pressure everywhere, more or less successful, to obtain for women the privileges enjoyed by men in institutions founded on behalf of the male sex only. In the meantime, the movement for political equality had passed through an acute stage of odium, ridicule, and mob violence. Its stated gatherings were coarsely stigmatized as hen-conventions, and Lucy Stone herself, in her anti-slavery capacity, was heralded in this fashion from an orthodox pulpit in a suburb of Boston: "I am requested to say that a hen will attempt to crow like a cock this afternoon at the town hall. All those who like that sort of music will attend." In 1853, Miss Antoinette Brown (afterwards Mrs. Blackwell), on attempting to speak as a delegate at a World's Temperance Convention in this city, in which the clerical element prevailed, was greeted by her fellow-delegates with the manners of a bear-garden. The war and the Sanitary Commission hastened the disappearance of this sort of ruffianism and of popular prejudice as directed against the coöperation of the sexes in all works of charity and public spirit: and the comparatively tranquil era which then set in has been employed for the persistent propaganda of civil and political equality. As always, many external influences, like the woman's temperance movement, have contributed to further the labors of the agitators, and the approach to universal manhood suffrage, if slow, has been steady. What remained of the sentimental repugnance to the mere act of depositing a ballot at the same polls with men, has been completely dispelled by the Australian system. School suffrage now very generally obtains without distinction of sex, and municipal suffrage has supervened in many quarters, while one State has eliminated sex from its Constitution.

Mrs. Stone, no doubt, was loath to close her eyes upon such unequal accomplishment, and in the rectification of common and statute law the progress, great as it is, has not been all that she and her coadjutors desired. In the field of education and employment an unlimited extension of opportunity has been assured. The grave problems of marriage and divorce have been specifically affected by the labors of woman-suffragists, but still await for a more perfect solution the direct concurrence of both sexes in the framing of legislation; nor can the social evil be otherwise wisely taken in hand. In becoming a married woman, Miss Stone entered a protest against the convenient practice of adopting the husband's name, and continued to wear to the end the name imposed by her father upon her mother. The individuality of an actress or a singer has a merchantable value, but, as Mrs. Blackwell, Lucy Stone would have forfeited nothing of her power as a reformer. Her singularity in this particular has not found imitators.

Mrs. Stone was, in her prime, a very winning and effective speaker, of the emotional rather than the argumentative order, and possessed of great fluency. She furnished her share of that eloquence which Emerson said was dog-cheap among the abolitionists. How far oratory will be developed or checked among the college-bred women of to-day cannot yet be decided; but those who lived through the struggle for emancipation may not expect to see again the fervor and passion of that grand debate. Each fresh triumph, too, of the equal-rights idea tones down the clamors of its promoters along with the expostulations of its opponents, faint echo of the voice of the extinct mob. For the moment, the press, debased as it is, is the principal forum, and less and less are men's convictions formed or swayed by the spoken word.

## THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.—XI.

### PSYCHOLOGY.

CHICAGO, October, 1893.

THE division of topics in science at Chicago, whereby such subjects as Neurology and Psychology were included under Ethnology, has had in the event considerable justification, in spite of much criticism and some ridicule. For when we look at the way in which Psychology in particular fares, in comparison with its fate at other expositions, the difference is very striking. The principal, as it is also the official exhibit, in the department of Ethnology, is in the gallery at the north end of the Anthropological Building. It was gathered by Prof. Joseph Jastrow of the University of Wisconsin, who was appointed assistant to Prof. Putnam for this duty; and no praise would be, I think, too high for this really admirable collection of apparatus, charts, etc., illustrating the principal problems and results of the "new psychology." Prof. Jastrow's difficulties were great, and it is only fair to say that his success is also great. This main exhibit is displayed in three rooms, viz., a working laboratory, where a series of sense and memory tests are offered to candidates from the visitors in the building; an apparatus-room, which is well filled with instruments topically arranged; and a third room partly devoted to the exhibition of graphic charts, showing some results of modern researches in a form easily taken in by the eye. This last feature is, however, very meagre, owing, I suppose, to the difficulty of getting authors to restate their results in such a form for a special occasion. Another room is given up to an anthropological library of books and journals, only moderately full and representative, and with a rather poor showing for Psychology.

The collection of apparatus is probably the most complete, as a whole, that has ever been made, notwithstanding some obvious deficiencies. For example, instruments for sound and tone-experiments are almost altogether wanting; and if this omission is excusable in the working laboratory, considering the incessant noises made by the busy Fair-goers, it is unaccountable in a simple apparatus exhibit, except on the supposition that makers and owners could not be persuaded to contribute. The pieces for sight, muscle-sense, and color-sense are well chosen, and so is the apparatus for demonstrating the laws of reaction-time and other special psychophysical principles. Of course, it is impossible, without becoming too technical, to give a detailed account of these instruments; but some remarks on a few of the more recent adaptations of physical devices to the needs of psychological research may interest general readers.

The kymograph of Ludwig, exhibited by Petzold of Leipzig, still holds its place as probably the most complete and available apparatus for graphic recording. The instrument at the Fair has, besides a spiral attachment, an excellent device for tilting the revolving drum at any angle to the perpendicular. A new "movement," mounted on a table, devised by Dr. Witmer, and exhibited by the University of Pennsylvania, has a double writing attachment which will be found useful. Rothe of Prague sends a "polygraph" with accessories (after Knoll), which provides a very cheap revolving-drum movement of two velocities, with a variety of tambours for recording, and a seconds-clock for time-mark-

ing. Among other time-measurers, the two latest chronoscopes are those exhibited by Elbs and Verdin, devised respectively by Münsterberg and D'Arsonval. They are both excellently adapted to measurements to hundredths of a second, and both can be made to record thousandths. The D'Arsonval has this advantage over the other, as well as over all previous chronoscopes, viz., that it is practically noiseless. It is also portable, and in its attachments very convenient for the simpler reaction experiments. Among the pieces of apparatus for investigating movement, those of Cattell and Münsterberg are adapted to a great number of special uses; the former affording ready measure of force and rapidity, and the latter of direction, locality, symmetry, etc.

A new improvement in the matter of devices for color-mixing is shown in two instruments to be found among the exhibits of the University of Pennsylvania and the German Universities respectively—the former due to the ingenuity of Dr. Witmer, and the latter worked out by Prof. Ebbinghaus of Berlin. They both have appliances for regulating, during the revolution of the wheel, the amount of surface of each disc exposed. They both secure this (so far as they do secure it) by means of a spiral interlocking arrangement of concentric tubes supporting the different discs, so that by moving one tube within the other it is also turned upon its axis, thus disclosing or concealing more or less of the color-disc which it bears. They both seem to lack, however, an accurate means of recording the exact amount of color change secured by a given amount of longitudinal axis movement. Other interesting pieces of apparatus are the color-contrast instruments of Hering, exhibited by Rothe of Prague; a series of contrivances for utilizing the principle of the Marey tambour, exhibited by Verdin of Paris; the new control-hammer of Wundt, for use in connection with the Hipp chronoscope (in the German educational exhibit); Stumpf's tone instruments (also in the German collection); Münsterberg's large *Augenmass* apparatus for experimental work in the dimensions, locations, etc., of the field of vision; Cattell's dynamometer, and the capital series of simple sense-test appliances exhibited by Jastrow. The universities which contributed most generously of their apparatus, photographs, etc., are Harvard, Toronto, and Wisconsin. The pieces from the Johns Hopkins University are historically interesting.

In the testing-room, a series of interesting sense and memory tests are given to all comers. The educative value to those taking them, and to the public generally, is probably their greatest value under the circumstances, which are not conducive to scientific accuracy. More may be expected, however, from a series of results obtained from different colleges in this country, where the same tests were given to groups of students by competent instructors before the Fair opened. These results, together with a detailed description of the tests themselves, will, it is hoped, be published by Dr. Jastrow. The arrangements for administering these tests, I may add, exhibit much ingenuity; indeed, two of the pieces of apparatus used—one a time-marker constructed on the pendulum principle with well-contrived accessories (from Dr. Fitz of the Lawrence Scientific School), and the other a new falling-screen for brief exposures to the eye, designed by Prof. Jastrow—are, in my opinion, improvements on most of the older contrivances for their particular uses.

Besides this so-called "official" exhibit, the Fair has other smaller collections. The Deutsche Gesellschaft für Mechanik und Optik displays in the Electricity Building many pieces of apparatus which are in common use with physiologists and psychologists; and I have already referred to the small group put under the head of "psychophysics" in the German educational exhibit in the Liberal Arts. A magnificent piece of work in this latter collection is the apparatus designed for mixing the spectral colors, after Helmholtz. Smaller separate exhibits were also made by the University of Pennsylvania in its general exhibit, and by the University of Illinois, under charge of Prof. Krohn, in the Illinois State Building.

In conclusion, I may be allowed a word of reflection on the present state of experimental psychology so far as it is revealed in these exhibits. Most of the separate instruments are contrivances of particular men for the investigation of particular problems. The science has not yet reached the stage of real demonstration—the stage at which its acknowledged results may be stated under general principles of critical value, whose truth may be shown by a few representative experiments. No doubt we shall, in the future, have more demonstration apparatus of recognized value—apparatus indispensable to teachers in class instruction. But it must be admitted that instruction in this field is now very haphazard, and each teacher is a law unto himself, both as to what he shall teach and as to how he shall teach it.

Another reflection is more encouraging. It arises from the very extraordinary display made by American institutions and professors as compared with those from abroad. And this discrepancy cannot be attributed to lack of interest on the part of the foreign psychologists, for, despite such lack, it is still true that this continent has to-day more chairs for the prosecution of research and teaching than all the world besides, and as many laboratories. The actual results so far attained dispel all fear that the movement is a mistake or a fad; and, with a continuation of the liberal treatment already given to the subject by the universities, great things may be expected in the future.

J. M. B.

## THE OMAR KHAYYÁM CULT IN ENGLAND.

ALDEBOROUGH, October 8, 1893.

THERE are some old authors in whose writings survive their living hearts, and among these is Omar Khayyám, the astronomer-poet of Persia. Those who like him, presently love him: they feel as if holding not a mere book, but the warm hand of a friend; and some have heard, as if addressed to themselves, the poet's parting appeal to his friends, near eight centuries ago, that when they met, after he had sped, they would remember "old Khayyám," and "turn down an empty glass." Feelings of this kind, mingled with intellectual appreciation, led to the formation, last year, of the Omar Khayyám Club in London. It is small as yet, consisting of about a dozen gentlemen, who, with almost as many guests, have twice dined together. Each dinner had its artistic *menu*, with pictorial illustrations suggested by one or another of the Quatrains. Among the chief promoters of this club were, and are, Clement Shorter, editor of the London *Illustrated News;* Edwin Clodd, author and banker; William Simpson, artist and traveller; George Whale, solicitor (vice-president of the club); Frederick Hudson, solicitor (secretary of the club); Arthur Hacker; and Justin Huntly McCarthy, president of the club, who studied Persian that he might read Omar Khayyám in the original, and translate, as he has done, more of the Quatrains. It will always be a question how much of the personality which the lovers of Omar Khayyám find in his Quatrains is derived from his marvellous translator and interpreter, Edward Fitz-Gerald. He has made only 75 out of the 500 Quatrains; but it must be remembered that a larger number have gone into his seventy-five. To Prof. Cowell, by whom his Persian enthusiasm was kindled, Fitz-Gerald wrote (1858): "My translation will interest you from its form, and also, in many respects, its detail; very unliteral as it is. Many Quatrains are mashed together; and something lost, I doubt, of Omar's simplicity, which is so much a virtue in him. But there it is, such as it is." Careful perusal of the more exact translations of Nicolas (in French) and of Whinfield, proves that Fitz-Gerald has indeed taken extensive liberties with his author as to form, condensing a good deal; but he has not interpolated his own thoughts. Some have supposed that the religious heresies are largely those of Fitz-Gerald, and that Omar Khayyám would have been put to death for writing some of them; but in this respect the English poet has in several lines softened the original.

Fitz-Gerald, also, had a charming personality, a sweetness of heart, that won to him the love of the best men—of Thackeray, the Tennysons, Spedding, Carlyle, Laurence, Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, Lowell. "His friendships were more like loves," he used to say. Rarely has any man been more beloved. Bernard Barton, the Quaker poet, when dying, asked Fitz-Gerald to take some care of his only daughter, and the poet married her. He was about forty at the time (born in 1809), and she a little younger, I believe. Both soon reached the conclusion that they were happier in single life, and parted pleasantly, his comfortable income being equally shared with her. He lived, for the most part alone, in Boulge Hall, not far from the grander "Bredfield," where he was born (near Woodbridge, Suffolk). He could hardly be allured from his literary solitude. He had no ambition for publicity, and it required the persuasion of friends to bring his works to the public. Prof. Norton (whom Carlyle introduced to Fitz-Gerald with great cordiality) induced him to finish and print his two translations from Sophocles. He had as little care for money as for fame. While reading, if bank-notes came, they were apt to be used as bookmarks; a number were found in various volumes after his death, where they were placed and forgotten. He was eccentric in his charities. He invited the fishermen to a festival, and gave them fine old port instead of beer. Hearing that an humble neighbor, a grocer, was in pecuniary difficulties, he bought his entire stock. He was not wealthy, having only about a thousand pounds a year, but he owned his pretty homestead, and he was a practical believer in "plain living and high thinking." He made very little by his publications. Although Quaritch appears in the title of the first edition of the 'Rubáiyat of Omar Khayyám' (anonymous), it was not at once sold by Quaritch. Fitz-Gerald had it printed at his own expense, and gave a few about to his friends. Mr. Quaritch tells me that one day Fitz-Gerald, whom he had long known, came to him and threw on the counter about two hundred copies, telling him he was welcome to them. Quaritch began trying to sell them at half a crown, then sixpence, but got them off only at one penny. (I see by Qua-

ritch's last catalogue that he has one copy of that first issue held at five guineas). Dante Rossetti bought a copy, and at once communicated to his circle what a treasure he had found. Swinburne, William Simpson, and others procured copies, and the two hundred gradually came into circulation. Quaritch then brought out a second edition, and, although no money was to be expected, he offered Fitz-Gerald ten pounds, which the translator desired him to present to a Persian famine fund raised at the time.

The earliest critique on the book was, it is believed, written in *Fraser's Magazine* by the late Thomas W. Hinchcliff. Mr. William Simpson, who was Hinchcliff's friend, relates an anecdote about him. Hinchcliff was once at sea near Panama, in a formidable storm, when some on board were expressing doubts whether they could weather it. Hinchcliff said: "He knows about it all—He knows—He knows!" Instantly his hand was seized by an American, named Clarke, who cried, "You have been reading Omar Khayyám!" The two men fairly embraced, on account of the ancient Persian, and remained friends through life. Mr. Simpson could not tell me more about this Clarke, nor his first name, but Mr. Quaritch says that from the first Omar Khayyám has been more widely read in America than in England. The edition of Fitz-Gerald's works, published by Quaritch, and by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., is somewhat more complete than the edition of William Aldis Wright (Macmillan), but the latter contains the author's sparkling letters to his friends, giving many glimpses into the literary life of his time.

It is rather remarkable that Fitz-Gerald, though something of a hermit and fond of reverie, should reject mystical interpretations of the "wine" celebrated by Omar Khayyám and by Hafiz. He believes it was real wine, and the 'Rubáiyat' "an epicurean eclogue in a Persian garden"; but he does not suppose that the poets drank very freely of the wine they wrote so much about. Those who remember Fitz-Gerald personally may find some support for the transcendental theory in the fact that he himself, not without mysticism, should have been so absorbed in his Persian as to seem almost his reappearance.

What I have written thus far is mainly the talk of some ten "Pilgrims" (as the London papers call us) who, on October 7, left the great metropolis for the grave of Edward Fitz-Gerald, there to perform a "function." It was to plant beside the grave two little rose-trees bred in Kew Gardens from hips of a rose-tree growing beside the grave of Omar Khayyám at Naishapúr, in Persia. When the Afghan Boundary Commission started, it was instructed to try and find the Soma plant, the ancient Aryan nectar-vine; in this they failed, but William Simpson, when they passed Naishapúr (capital of Khorassan), sought out the grave of Omar Khayyám—which has been preserved, it seems, not from veneration for the heretical poet, but by being in a nook of the domed monument of some once majestic, now forgotten, imam. Omar Khayyám's hope was that the north wind might scatter rose leaves on his grave, and so it is to this day. The seeds were sent to Mr. Thistelton Dyer, who grafted them at Kew. They have not yet budded—being only a foot high—but there is reason to hope that their first petals will open above Fitz-Gerald's dust next year.

Mr. Clodd, who arranged the pilgrimage, had everything prepared. A brake was waiting at Woodbridge Station, and the pilgrims drove through four miles of embowered lanes to Boulge ("Bowidge," the folk call it), where we saw the poet's ivied home, a cluster of red roses peeping over the wall. There we were joined by Col. Kerrich (Fitz-Gerald's nephew) and the Rev. Mr. Doughty, his co-executor, the polit vicar of the little church (St. Michael's) whos rector had frowned on the homage which included a "pagan." A score of countryfolk, who remembered their benevolent neighbor, were present, and some children; also the family of Mr. Holmes White, the local solicitor, who now reside in Boulge Hall. These young ladies and gentlemen have taken the rose-trees under their care. There were also present several friends of the poet, Mr. Loder of Woodbridge, Mr. Barrett of Ipswich, also Sir Brampton Gurdon, K.C.M.G. After the rose-trees were planted, Mr. Simpson, with uncovered head, gave an account of his visit to the tomb at Naishapúr. The American present gave a brief address, in which the interest of some of his countrymen in Omar Khayyám, and the illustrations by Vedder, were spoken of, and concluded with some translations from the poet, not found in Fitz-Gerald's book, but thought appropriate for the occasion:

"Diversity of worship has divided the human race into seventy-two nations. From among all their dogmas I have selected one—the Divine Love."

"The morning hath already thrown off the veil of darkness. Wherefore thy sadness? Rise up, let us breathe again the morning air before having to long for it. For alas! long enough will the morning breathe when we breathe not."

"The entire world shall be populous with that action of thine which saves a soul from despair."

"A thousand chains of thine own broken by thee are less than to have chained to thee by sweetness the heart of a free man."

"The dogmas admit only what is obliging to the deity. But refuse not thy bit of bread to another, guard thy tongue from speaking evil, and seek not the injury of any being, and I undertake on my own account to promise thee paradise."

"Since from the beginning of life to the end there is for thee only this earth, live at least as one who is on the earth, and not buried under it."

"O my heart, thou wilt never penetrate the mysteries of the universe; thou wilt never reach that culminating wisdom which the intrepid omniscients have attained. Resign thyself, then, to make what little paradise thou canst here below; for, as for that one beyond, thou shalt arrive there, or thou shalt not."

Mr. Edwin Clodd then read some poetry written for the occasion. The poem of Justin Huntly McCarthy was printed in the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and that of Edmund Gosse in the *Athenæum*. Four lines by Grant Allen, sent to Edwin Clodd with deep regret at his inability to be present, and read by Mr. Simpson, represent the feeling pervading other letters sent by eminent men:

> "Here, on Fitz-Gerald's grave from Omar's tomb
> To lay fit tribute, pilgrim singers flock:
> Long with a double fragrance let it bloom,
> The rose of Iran on an English stock."

Colonel Kerrich made a felicitous address on behalf of the Fitz-Gerald family; and the Vicar pleasantly promised, for the ladies present and himself, care for the rose-trees. These were removed from pots, and planted by the gardener of Boulge Hall, amid silence, at the head of the slab of rosy granite which marks the grave. An iron frame was placed for their protection, and on it a bronze plate with the words: "This rose tree, raised in Kew Gardens from seed brought by William Simpson, artist-traveller, from the grave of Omar Khayyám at Naishapúr, was planted by a few admirers of Edward Fitz-Gerald in the name of the Omar Khayyám Club, 7 October, 1893." Such is the English answer to Omar's line, "The flower that once has blown for ever dies."

After looking through the small, but pretty and ancient, church, whose tablets are those of Fitz-Gerald's father, mother, and sister (near which hangs their arms), the pilgrims drove to Grundisburgh Hall, the mansion of Sir William Brampton Gurdon, where we were handsomely entertained at luncheon. Fitz-Gerald was sometimes lured from his retreat to this ancient mansion, because a friend of his there, a lady, excelled in music, of which he was very fond. Sir William is a near relative of the Saltonstalls of Massachusetts. The present baronet's wife has written an interesting book, 'Suffolk Folk-Lore. Compiled by Lady Camilla Gurdon. Introduction by Edwin Clodd.' In this entertaining book, published this year, there is notice of a ghost long supposed to haunt Boulge Hall, and described as "The Queen of Hell." It is the ghost of a Mrs. Short, who murdered a gentleman at Boulge Hall; the blood-stain being said to be still traceable on the floor. She wore, when last seen, a silk dress, and came out of the gates in a carriage, with regular driver but headless horses. That, however, was early in the century, but Mrs. Short has of late been superseded, and the present story is as follows: "At Boulge Hall, upon the stroke of twelve at midnight, a coach drawn by a pair of headless horses, and driven by a headless coachman, who dismounts to open the lodge gates, takes back the ghost of the late owner, Mr. Fitz-Gerald."

After walking about the beautiful grounds of Grundisburgh, the pilgrims departed—some for London again, some to pass the Sunday at Strafford House, seaside residence of Edwin Clodd, at Aldeborough. And it is here, mainly, in the intervals of our Anglo-Oriental symposium, that these wayside notes were jotted down, which are now written out so ramblingly. Even so, let me hope they may be of more value to your readers than any attempt at elaborate treatment of the many literary, philosophical, and religious matters represented in this singular pilgrimage. What Emerson said of every rose may be especially said of our Anglo-Persian rose: It speaks all languages.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

## A TRUE REALIST.

ITALY, September, 1893.

IT is strange that the little volume of Giovanni Verga, 'Cavalleria Rusticana, and Other Sicilian Peasant Tales,' should appear in the "Pseudonym Library" (London: T. Fisher Unwin), with a publisher's note to the effect that Verga's works have not hitherto been presented to the English public. As soon as Verga's best work, 'I Malavoglia,' appeared in Italy, it was translated by Mary A. Craig, with an introduction by W. D. Howells, under the title of 'The House by the Medlar Tree.' This work gives a very fair specimen of Verga's aims, method, and style; it is a perfect picture of Sicilian life in the fishing villages of the province of Catania, which mostly begin with Aci—Aci Reale being the district; Aci Bonaccorsi, Aci Castello, Aci Trezza, communes, with their separate municipalities and belfry-tower feuds and jealousies. The village of Trezza, or Aci Trezza, is one of the loveliest spots on the eastern coast of Sicily. We spent a day there last year. The shore was covered with artists painting the huge rocky needles which serve as bulwarks to the tiny bay full of fishing boats; and, as one does in Scotland among the scenes

where Walter Scott has laid his stories, we went about trying to find the originals of Verga's humble folk.

When he wrote, the fishermen and the caulkers and the boat-builders were merely grumblers at the new régime because of the taxes, light in comparison in those days to what they are now. Now they are openly rebellious because those same taxes are too heavy to be borne. Save salt, which cannot be taxed because of the innumerable salt-mines and salt-factories, nothing is spared; and, what is worse, as in all small communes in Sicily, the signori fill the posts of honor and of lucre, and put on the taxes as they please. Thus, cattle and horses, their property, are but slightly taxed, while mules and donkeys pay so much that their owner is often obliged to sell his cart to pay for the beast, lest that should be taken also; fruit, vegetables, the very wood that the poor creatures spend hours in collecting, are taxed, and the fish is all bought up by the *maffiosi*, or ring, in Catania, who make all the profits out of the men who daily risk their lives in plying their dangerous trade. The Don Micheles of these days think less of protecting people's property, of saving drowning fishermen, less even of smugglers, so engaged are they in the municipal and political struggles—urging the people to vote for the Government candidate, protecting the partisans of the Government from the just vengeance of the voters whose schedules have been burned or carried off by the Don Silvesters of the hour. You can scarcely take up an English paper without reading of brigands who have sequestrated proprietors, or condescended to plunder poor peasants and carters; of murders and woundings, of housebreaking and petty larceny, just as it was in the bad old times of the Bourbons and the still worse ones of the Moderates.

No truer picture did Dickens give of the Debtors' Prison, of the Chancery Court, of Dotheboys Hall, than does Verga of every phase of Sicilian life. His works have not the pathos, or bathos, of Dickens, even as they have not the repulsive details of Zola. He deems that life is sad enough and gloomy enough on its seamy side without the need of piling up the agony by the describer. He, however, spares nothing and no one, and there are notes of warning in even his earliest writings which might have saved many a scene of bloodshed, many a crime, had it been listened to by the classes who have monopolized the power, the wealth, the very sources of production which the makers of Italy fondly thought that they were securing for the masses of the newly liberated country. The 'Cavalleria Rusticana' is a simple incident taken from the daily life of the Sicilian people. They *are* chivalrous in their barbarous, Old World fashion. The stab from behind is not Sicilian. All the tales told of the Sicilians abroad have to be sifted. Are they malefactors? Then of course they use stratagem, craft, and all other evil means of committing crimes without being found out, just as do the burglars and murderers of every city in the world. But the constant killings and cuttings and woundings that go on among the common people are not inflicted without due notice. A has insulted B at the game of *toccu*, a drinking game in which not the drink, but the possibilities of giving offence, lead to endless quarrels. A knows, and all who are present know, that B will take his revenge where and when he can, but with equal arms. Whoever succumbs and is carried to the hospital is silent as to his antagonist; none of the spectators ever comes forward. Or C has touched D in his womanfolk. If caught in the act, swift and sudden vengeance follows, and no jury in Sicily—you may say in all Italy—will condemn the avenger. But if the husband or lover or brother learn that his house has been "ornamented" (that is the polite way to put it), just as Verga makes the jealous and abandoned Santa inform Compare Alfio of his misfortune, he takes it quietly, and the scene ensues as follows:

"Turiddu, the seducer, is at the tavern; the outraged husband enters, and merely from the way that he fixes his eyes Turiddu knows that he has come 'about that business,' and lays down his fork, asking, 'Have you any orders for me, Compare Alfio?' 'None. It is some time since we have met, and I came to speak to you of the thing you wot of,' and he puts aside the glass Turiddu offers him, who rises, saying: 'I am here.' The carrier puts his arm round his neck, saying: 'If to-morrow morning you will come to the Indian fig we can talk over the affair. Wait for me at the road and we will go together.' After these words they exchanged the challenge kiss; Turiddu closed his teeth on the ear of the carrier, and thus gave a solemn promise not to fail."

They meet, fight with knives; at the last thrust Alfio wounds Turiddu mortally, saying, "This is for my house which you have ornamented." A newspaper column would contain all Verga's simple story, and you may read it daily in the Sicilian newspapers in much fewer words. This "chivalrous method" of settling their old grievances you will never change among the people, unless, indeed, the signori leave off fighting duels as they do every day. When in 1866, after the revolution of Palermo, got up by the priests and carried out by the very scum of the island, the Government placed the city in a state of siege, and all the populace were disarmed—even the being found with a knife being made punishable—the people, as if with one instinct, found hiding-places in old walls and in holes dug along the shore to hide a couple of knives, so that the free fights went on just as usual. Only when the aggressor is of a higher class and would not stoop to give satisfaction to the injured man of the people, does he take his vengeance when and how he can; but the injurer knows perfectly well that this will be the case, and keeps on his guard as much as possible. The old folk-lore is full of these episodes.

One of Verga's most touching stories is "Jeli the Shepherd," who at thirteen makes friends with Alfonso the signorino (little squire) after they had had a good fight first. He used to teach him how to mount barebacked the wild horses under his care, to rob birds' nests from the tops of trees higher than the belfry tower of Licodia, while Alfonso astonished Jeli with his writing, especially when he wrote the name of Mara, the daughter of the factor for whom Jeli kept the master's herds and whom he meant to marry when he had six ounces of salary (twelve dollars and a half); but of this Mara was to know nothing. Jeli's mother, to whom he used to take his savings once a year, dies; then his father comes to him dying of malaria, which in the plains of Catania "kills more surely than a pistol shot." All sorts of misfortunes befall him: Mara's family go away, then a colt falls over a precipice, and he is sent adrift without his salary and goes where Mara is, and sees that she is going to be married to the son of the factor Neri, "who owned more than twenty head of cattle." But it comes to the intended's ears that Miss Mara was on too friendly terms with Alfonso, the little squire of other days, and the factor, to hush up the scandal, gives Mara to Jeli, who is in the seventh heaven, gets a good place and works like the good husband that he is to please and satisfy Mara's every caprice. But he has now large flocks of sheep to look after and the cheeses to make, and so he is absent from home weeks and sometimes longer. There are not wanting ill-natured people who hint at Mara's conduct; but Jeli, "who has never lived in the world, understands nothing." Mara welcomes him home, as she always knows when to expect him, but the eve of Santa Barbara he returns suddenly, a horse left with him being ill and needing the blacksmith, who acts as veterinary surgeon. He is left to knock at his house for a long time; the neighbors laugh and jeer. Now, although "all new ideas had difficulty in getting into his head," he becomes thoughtful when he sees Don Alfonso, a handsome young man with a long beard and velvet jacket and a gold chain to his watch. When Alfonso comes to his master's place to a picnic dinner, his heart shrinks, all the more when Mara, who never would come with *him*, appears, on the pretext that, being *enceinte*, she had a longing for fresh cream cheese. He thinks and thinks. It is the shearing season, and he is very busy, but is ordered to kill two kids, the year-old calf, a turkey, and poultry, and while he is doing this, the merrymakers get up a dance. Alfonso calls Mara to dance. "Don't go, don't go, Mara!" "Why?" "I will not have you go." Mara goes, laughs, dances, flirts with Alfonso, till Jeli, white as death, with his shears in his hand, rushes on Don Alfonso, and cuts his throat with the shears "just as if he had been a kid." They arrest him, bind, and take him before the judge, he making no resistance, only saying, "*Come?*—how then? Was I not even to kill him? Why, he took Mara from me!" How many of the so-called murders in Sicily occur because the *signorini* will take the one ewe lamb from the peasants and the laborers!

One of the most remarkable of Verga's short tales is entitled 'Libertà,' written as early as 1860, when the inhabitants of the circum-Etna communes rose up against the *galantuomini* who had robbed them of their land and their hard-earned produce and derided them into the bargain. Most horrible crimes were committed, but they were not prompted, as it was thought, by the reactionaries who desired the return of the Bourbon or who were aghast at Garibaldi's impiety. It was the beginning of that land war which, for all who have eyes to see and ears to hear, is preparing in Sicily with equal intensity and with much more method than heretofore in Ireland. But for the volunteers of Messina, the massacres would have been general of the women "whose flesh was formed of partridges and red wine," of the gentlemen with white hands who had never touched a spade or guided a plough. Then Bixio arrived and shot half-a-dozen of the ringleaders, and hundreds were imprisoned. The trial lasted three years; numbers were sent to the galleys. "To the galleys?" they murmured; "why, none of us has touched a span of land! And they told us that this was the reign of liberty!" Three and thirty years have passed since then, and the question is still unsettled. The *galantuomini*, the syndics, the assessors take possession of the land, sow and reap, and the people starve. This year there have been several riots in Sicily. At Cavaltatura the peasants, seeing that the lands said to belong to them were being all "annexed," went one day and dug them over; the troops fired, six were killed, many wounded, others were imprisoned.

Verga, who is a poet as well as an artist, without making any profession of Socialism shows that he sees clearly that the present

state of things cannot last, that the masses are drawing together in an ever-increasing hatred of the classes. As in the 'Malavoglia' he portrays the restless efforts of the very poorest to better their condition, to get some slight addition to their meagre fare, and follows the poor old grandfather (who would have been content to follow his dangerous trade to the last) to his deathbed in the hospital, so in the later volume, 'Mastro Don Gesualdo,' he gives the history of the proud, poor, noble family of the Trao in their crumbling palace—Don Diego and Don Ferdinando, with their young fair sister Bianca, seduced by her cousin, who would marry her if his miserly old mother had not refused him a cent. Nothing will induce Mastro Gesualdo to consent to the marriage, so the family look up a spendthrift duke. The story is a painful one throughout. All Verga's stories are sad, for life is so at this close of the nineteenth century. It is so especially in Italy, where the people are awakened to a sense of their suffering, of their misery, of the injustice that prevents them from bettering their condition. Nothing in Verga's writings tends to foster that discontent. He merely depicts things as they are—the false pride of the poor aristocrat, who will starve in his palace rather than let part of it; the greed of the strong and masterful ones, who, in despite of obstacles, are working their own way up, careless of those who fall under their feet. His satires on the governments of the day are quiet but very bitter. He suggests no remedy, does not seem to see one. Things will take their course, since those who have, take no thought for those who have not. In one of his rare prefaces he writes:

"The continuous, painful, feverish, fatal path which humanity follows in its march of progress is grand in its result seen as a whole and from a distance. In the glorious light which irradiates that path the restlessness, the greed, the selfishness disappear; passions, vices, become transformed into virtues. . . . But the observer, carried away himself by the impetuous torrent, has a right, looking around, to interest himself in the weak ones who fall by the way—in the spiritless ones who allow the waves to overtake them so as to end the sooner, in the vanquished who raise their despairing arms and bow their heads under the brutal feet of the newcomers, the victors of to-day, hurried, eager to arrive, and who will be themselves conquered on the morrow. . . . Who sets himself to observe this spectacle has no right to pass judgment on it. It is much if he succeeds in keeping outside the struggle so as to study it without passion, to depict the scenes faithfully in their natural colors, so as to represent the reality as it is, or as it ought to have been."

In this, Verga succeeds perfectly.

J. W. M.

# Correspondence.

## LONG'S PORTRAITS OF THE VIRGINIA PRESIDENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In view of the bold and somewhat novel outlines in which Prof. Goldwin Smith has limned the characters of some of the founders and early chief magistrates of the republic, in his recent political history of the United States, it may not be uninteresting to the readers of the *Nation* to catch a glimpse of Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe as they appeared to another distinguished Englishman, who personally knew them—the late Prof. George Long, author of 'The Decline of the Roman Republic.' It will be remembered that Mr. Long was one of the group of young Englishmen who, through the influence of Mr. Jefferson, were called to professorships in the University of Virginia on its organization, and who afterwards returned to England to win high rank among the scholars of the mother country. Fifty years after the opening of that university, Prof. Long wrote, under date of Portfield, Chichester, May 30, 1875, to his former pupil and life-long friend, the late Prof. Henry Tutwiler of Alabama, giving his reminiscences of those early days. That letter is now in my possession, and, although it was not intended for print, its historical interest will justify me in giving a few short extracts in which the three ex-Presidents in question are casually mentioned:

"A few days after my arrival at Charlottesville I walked up to Monticello to see Mr. Jefferson. I made myself known to his servant, and was introduced into his great room. In a few minutes a tall, dignified old man entered, and, after looking at me a moment, said, 'Are you the new professor of ancient languages?' I replied that I was. He observed, 'You are very young,' to which I answered, 'I shall grow older.' He smiled and said that was true. He was evidently somewhat startled at my youthful and boyish appearance, and I could plainly see that he was disappointed. We fell to talking, and I stayed to dine with him. He was grave and rather cold in his manner, but he was very polite; and I was pleased with his simple Virginian dress, and his conversation free from all affectation. I remember this interview as well as if it took place yesterday. During my solitary residence before the University opened I visited Monticello several times, and occasionally passed the night there. I thought that he became better satisfied with the boy professor, and we talked on all subjects. He saw that I took great interest in the geography of America and in the story of the Revolution; and he told me much about it, but in a very modest way as to himself. He showed me the original draft of the Declaration of Independence; and he could clearly see that I was in habits, as I have always been and still am, a man who preferred plain republican institutions to the outward show and splendour of European kingdoms.

"I often saw Mr. Jefferson between this time and his death. When he came on his horse to the University, he generally called on me. His thoughts were always about this new place of education, of which he was really the founder; and though the first few years of the University were not quite satisfactory, he confidently looked forward to the future and to the advantages which the State would derive from the young men who were educated in the University of Virginia.

"I remember well a long conversation which I once had with Mr. Jefferson on George Washington. He spoke of him freely and generously, as of a man of great and noble character. Mr. Tucker, in his 'Life of Jefferson,' has given the character of Washington as Jefferson wrote it, and it is perhaps certain that the character was written at the time when Mr. Jefferson spoke of Washington to me, though he told me something more than the written character contains, but nothing contradictory to it. The character is exceedingly well written, and it proves that as a mere writer Jefferson might have excelled most men of his day.

"I discovered that Mr. Jefferson was well acquainted with Polybius, who is not a good writer, but a man of excellent sense and the soundest judgment. The last time that I saw Mr. Jefferson when he was suffering from a complaint which caused his death, he was reading Pliny's letters, and we had some talk about a passage. A few weeks after, when I was at Sweet Springs during the summer vacation, I heard of his death. There was much foolish display on the occasion in Virginia, and some extravagant, bombastic orations. Those who had more sense showed their feeling in another way. The man who had done so much for Virginia and the United States was honored for his services, for his talents, and his grand and simple character. His great deeds are recorded in the epitaph which he wrote for his own tomb.

. . . . . .

"Soon after my arrival in Virginia, and it was either in December, 1824, or in January, 1825, I received a letter from Mr. Madison, whom I had not then seen. He asked me if I could write something in the newspapers which would give the people some notion of what I proposed to do as a teacher in the new university. I wrote something which appeared in the Richmond *Enquirer*, but I have no copy of it. Mr. Madison, on reading what I had written, wrote to me a very kind letter. It is enough to say that he was much pleased with what I had done, and with the plain, simple way in which I had expressed my meaning. I often saw Mr. Madison afterwards, and I think that he was one of the most sensible men that I ever spoke to. I do not know what I should think of my youthful work if I saw it now; but Mr. Madison's appreciation makes me suppose that it contained good sense and was of a practical nature, and adapted for the use of the young men whom I was going to teach."

. . . . . .

"I once saw Mr. Monroe, who was a Visitor of the University, and I dined in his company with the two other former Presidents, Jefferson and Madison. I could form no opinion of him, for I believe that he said nothing, and only made an unfortunate attempt to say something to me, for I sat by him. After some time he turned to me and said, 'How is your father?' I was so surprised at this question from a man who could have known nothing of my father, who was then dead and had only been in the West India islands, that I made an answer as silly as the question. My answer was, 'I have no father'; and he said no more to me. He was a man very unlike Jefferson and Madison; but I know he had some good qualities and some merits. But I think he must have been rather a dull companion. I have seen letters by Mr. Monroe, and I can testify that he neither wrote well nor observed well the orthography of common practice. Jefferson and Madison wrote in all respects as gentlemen should write. I can now understand how Monroe failed in his orthography. His education, I think, was imperfect; and I admit that I, who was great at spelling in my youth, am now by no means a very good master of orthography, one of the most disorderly parts of our language."

In this simple letter of reminiscence to a friend, Prof. Long does not attempt any subtle analysis of the character and ability of the personages of whom he wrote, such as we have in Prof. Smith's brilliant, but not impartial book; but we see in it no suggestion of the "feminine not to say feline face" which Prof. Smith ascribes to Jefferson, nor of the "somewhat prim mediocrity" which he discovers in Madison.

I cannot help expressing the regret which will be felt by many Southern readers that Prof. Smith's book, the brightest monograph that has yet been written on our political history, should be marred by an apparent prejudice against the Southern people. The student of American history who can see little or no good in our civilization outside of New England, has yet something to learn.

T. C. McCorvey.

University of Alabama,
Tuscaloosa, September 29, 1893.

## NEBRASKA BIMETALLISTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial comment on the recent Nebraska Democratic State convention is a further evidence of the fact that the silver sentiment of the West is very much underestimated in the East. I think I speak advisedly when I say that a fair majority of the delegates to that convention were pronounced bimetallists, and at least one-third of the delegates were advocates of the free and unlimited coinage of silver at a ratio of sixteen to one. The fact is notorious that this convention was packed and manipulated by patronage dispensers, made up of federal appointees and post-office applicants. Every applicant for a federal position that had been endorsed by the Democratic

State central committee was advised by letter that his endorsement *might* be subject to reconsideration, and was admonished to attend the convention as a delegate, or see to it that none but reliable Administration men were placed on the delegation; and many a delegate fixed his eye on a promised appointment, swallowed his convictions, misrepresented his constituency, and voted at the dictation of the patronage dispensers.

Your editorial does Mr. Bryan an injustice when you say, "Mr. Bryan thereupon announced that he should join the Populists." Mr. Bryan made no such announcement. He did say: "When I am convinced that the Democracy of this State are in favor of a single gold standard, I will serve my people under some other name." Mr. Bryan knows full well that this promise threatens no change in his party affiliations. Mr. Bryan has thousands of admirers in this State, myself among the number, who believe him honest in his position, but who do not endorse his sixteen-to-one ideas nor look with favor on his position towards the repeal of the purchase clause. Nebraska Democrats are in favor of the repeal of the purchase clause, but have faith that the Administration will carry out the promises of the Chicago platform and legislate to the end that both gold and silver shall be the money of the country, and shall be received and coined without charge for mintage. The sixteen-to-one wail that comes from the silver States meets with no approval from the thinking Democrats of Nebraska, for it smells of the paternalistic ideas of the McKinleyites; but when the Eastern press seeks to make the public believe that Nebraska Democracy is advocating a single gold standard, it is either deceived or deceiving. BIMETALLIST.

OMAHA, NEB., October 15, 1893.

## MEDICAL EXAMINERS FOR PENSIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The degree of debauchment to which the public morality has been led by our iniquitous pension system is constantly exposed by the *Nation*, and numerous remedies as frequently suggested. Among the latter, however, I have failed to find one which, it appears to me, would tap the root of the evil, and it is—if I may be permitted to offer it to the public—that the examinations of candidates for pensions be confined to the medical officers of the army and navy. They are peculiarly well fitted for such duty, and the amount of expense involved in their mileage, if it should be found necessary to order them occasionally from point to point, would in no sense approach that of maintaining the present "army of pension examiners," which, as I know from personal observation, is recruited frequently from medical men of neither professional nor moral standing in their respective communities.

If the *Nation* would publish this letter, or, better still, urge this idea editorially, I believe the Government would be saved an enormous expense, and the appearance of a worthy pensioner's name on the list be relieved of the tinge of suspicion or dishonor that now surrounds it. The crown ulcer of the present cancerous system is undoubtedly the method pursued in selecting the pseudo-medical examiners—men who, nine times in ten, if they possess any professional knowledge, are so far lost to all moral sense that they prove but tools in the hands of their vicious but virtual creators, the pension agents. B.

## MISSIONARY THORNTON'S DEATH IN ALASKA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Missionary annals record no more pathetic death than the murder of H. R. Thornton in far-off Alaska and the flight of his poor wife, news of which was telegraphed from the Pacific coast less than two weeks ago. The details of the tragedy are very meagre, giving only the fact that the murder was committed by a group of Eskimo boys, pupils in Mr. Thornton's school, and that the elder part of the community at once put to death several of the boys implicated in the affair. But I am just in receipt of a letter from Mr. Thornton (probably by the steamer which brought Mrs. Thornton to San Francisco) which shows that the cloud was gathering when the letter was written; the lives of the four whites had already been attempted, and they feared the worst. This last letter of Mr. Thornton is an appeal for help—congressional help in the way of money for protection, and especially for protection against the *liquor traffic*. A copy of a little yearly paper, from Cape Prince of Wales, opens with the sentence: "The liquor question in the Arctic is a question of self-preservation to white residents and the Eskimo race"—a fact true of many places south of Alaska!

Mr. Thornton's loss is a grievous one to his friends and to the work. He was a man of very great ability and culture. Coming as he did out of one of Virginia's most brilliant groups of brothers, he was a first-honor man at old Hampden-Sidney College and a distinguished graduate of the University of Virginia. In his life he was scrupulously careful and manly. His last letter gives repeated expression to a full trust in God and confidence in the future of the work in Alaska. There will, no doubt, appear some more extended and authoritative account of his life and death. I simply offer this tribute as but a suggestion of what might be said. JOHN A. PRESTON.

CHARLOTTE, N. C., October 17, 1893.

## PROFESSOR SAUPPE'S LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It will be of interest to all students of philology to learn that the library left by Prof. Sauppe, the famous philologist of Göttingen, is to be offered for sale. This collection includes 9,000 volumes relating to classical philology and archæology. The library has been examined by Prof. Wilhelm Meyer and Carl Dziatzko of Göttingen, who say that it is one of the choicest and most valuable libraries of its kind that ever have been offered for sale.

Believing that the fact above mentioned will be of interest to the readers of your esteemed paper, I take the liberty of communicating it to you.—Respectfully,

DR. CONSTANTIN NÖRRENBERG,
Commissioner German Library Exhibit.

No. 2 GERMANIA PLACE,
CHICAGO, October 16, 1893.

# Notes.

J. SELWYN TAIT & SONS have ready for publication 'The Larger Life,' by the Rev. Henry Austin Adams, and 'The Soul of the Bishop,' by John Strange Winter.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, announce 'The Literary Study of the Bible,' an account of the leading forms of literature represented in the Scriptures, by Richard G. Moulton, M.A.

The volume of poems, lyrics, songs, and sonnets by Charles H. Crandall, called 'Wayside Music,' to be published by the Messrs. Putnam, will be issued in a limited edition. A frontispiece will be furnished by Rosina Emmet. One-quarter of the collection has not hitherto appeared in print.

Brentano has in press 'Modern Scientific Whist,' by C. D. P. Hamilton.

How evanescent are the charms of the light essays on life, letters, and things in general with which the magazines regularly furnish us, one scarcely realizes until he sees them put on the outward appearance of books. The spice of anecdote and allusion and the meandering grace which characterize Miss Repplier's contributions to the *Atlantic* have, no doubt, won for her a place in the affections of many of the readers of that magazine; Mr. E. S. Martin's jocosely serious comments on life, in the style in which Robert Grant at present excels, may also easily have amused, or perhaps instructed, numbers of people who stumbled on them in the public prints. When, however, this disconnected matter is collected respectively in 'Hours of Idleness' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) and 'Windfalls of Observation' (Charles Scribner's Sons), it is hard to determine what their functions as books are, or to what public they address themselves. Those who read the magazines have already sated their appetites, and those who do not—Mr. Howells holds that the two classes are thoroughly distinct—can hardly have much taste for a course here and there from the banquets of seasons gone by.

Nor is the case greatly different with the miscellaneous essays—on more serious subjects, it is true—which Mr. Gosse collects under the title of 'Questions at Issue' (D. Appleton & Co.), defend the christening as he may by insisting in his preface that they have the common bond of treating unauthoritatively some of the unsettled critical questions of our time. Interesting as most of these essays are, they are not only now out of season, but incapable by their very shreds-and-patches quality of being woven into a single well-organized volume. If one should chance to be curious as to what Mr. Gosse thought of Kipling in 1891, or as to what part he took in such and such a discussion in the *Forum* in 1889, he could readily find what he desired from the periodical files in any good library. But in a book the reader—or, at least, the buyer—expects something more than miscellaneous literary matter. Of course, the case is different when the author's opinion on even a bundle of unrelated subjects is of high importance. We cannot, however, with safety set so high a value on Mr. Gosse's work. He has a deft hand and a dainty touch, and to read him is to row with the tide; but at best he offers us decidedly more style than substance. Even one who holds the tenets Mr. Gosse advances, finds himself unsatisfied with the justification they receive at his hands.

In 'An Embassy to Provence' (The Century Co.) Mr. Thomas A. Janvier has given a delightful account of a delightful trip in a one-horse "shay" to Avignon and neighboring towns. His purpose was to meet and become acquainted with the Provençal poets who form the brotherhood of Félibres, and who count among their number men like Mistral (a photogravure of whom forms the frontispiece to the volume), Roumanille, Gras, Mathieu, Tavan, and others. The magic charm of Provence and its poetry quickly fell upon Mr. Janvier, and it is in sympathetic and appreciative mood that he describes the scenes, the men and

the women he saw and met. A large measure of the fragrance of the sunny South has passed into his book—something of the witching grace of Daudet when he writes of the beloved land of mirage; so that, quite apart from the useful information the author has collected in his pages, he has succeeded in making his readers understand that the Félibre movement is not a mere ebullition of poetic fancy, but the expression in an already rich and true literature of a deep patriotic feeling. Readers who learn something of these poets of southern France from Mr. Janvier's daintily written pages will surely be tempted to extend their knowledge of the Félibrige and the works of the first rank to which it has given birth.

Prof. Genung's 'Practical Rhetoric' has been for some years one of the best-known text-books on that subject in common use in colleges. The author has now followed a prevailing tendency in treating almost the same material in a much more elementary fashion, in his 'Outlines of Rhetoric' (Ginn & Co.), for the use of high schools and academies. In many respects the smaller book is an improvement on the larger. It is more simple in plan, more compact, and shows the same good sense and absence of fussiness. This new attempt to make plain to children what has long been reserved for young men, will benefit the ordinary high-school curriculum, and help to hasten the day when colleges will no longer be obliged to waste precious time on elementary rhetorical training.

College instructors who give courses in argumentative composition will be glad to have their attention called to G. P. Baker's 'Specimen Briefs' (Cambridge: Harvard Coöperative Society), a pamphlet containing a large variety of briefs actually drawn by Harvard students in preparation for argumentative essays. Accompanying each brief are criticisms, and, in most cases, suggestions as to the precise way in which the plan in question could be improved.

'Old Anti-Slavery Days' is the title of a volume embodying the proceedings of a notable gathering held at Danvers, Mass., on April 26 of the present year, under the auspices of the local historical society (Danvers: Rev. W. M. Ayres). A large and representative number of veteran abolitionists and their posterity was in attendance; and the brief speeches, the letters from those unable to be present, and the biographical sketches in the appendix both reflect the spirit of the anti-slavery movement and add not a little of interest to its annals. Reminiscence here sometimes goes astray, as it will, and reports the thing that was *not*, or confounds date and place; nevertheless, this volume ought to find its way into every collection of anti-slavery literature.

Dr. W. Peterson's critical and explanatory edition of the 'Dialogus' of Tacitus (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) begins with a long introduction on the question of authorship (decided in favor of Tacitus) and date, on the matter of the dialogue with its language and style, and on the MSS. The bibliography shows that this work has been all but neglected hitherto by English and American scholars. The text is the result of most careful study, and differs often from that of Halm. The notes are full, and the evidences of painstaking work shown throughout the volumes make it a worthy companion to the editor's tenth book of Quintilian.

A new edition has just reached us of vols. i. and ii. of Prof. Jebb's 'Attic Orators from Antiphon to Isæus' (Macmillan). This masterly work, as valuable to the English student of oratory as to the classical scholar, was noticed in our columns on its first appearance seventeen years ago. We observe no changes in the present edition, except the new indexes required by a slight alteration of the pages in reprinting. The author has reverted to the conservative spelling of proper names, *e. g.*, Andocides, Clearchus (*vice* Andokides, Klearchos, of the former edition).

Dr. Fennell's 'Pindar' has long been favorably known to Pindaric scholars as the most important complete edition of the odes published in England. A new edition just issued ('The Olympian and Pythian Odes,' Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan), is primarily intended for students, and is very similar in scope and purpose to Prof. Gildersleeve's work, to which the editor makes repeated reference and due acknowledgment. It is remarkable for the self-denying brevity and pertinence of the introductions and notes, which condense in the smallest compass a vast amount of research, sound scholarship, and sober independent judgment. Touching Mr. Bury's extreme application of Mezger's theory of "verbal responsions" or catchwords, Dr. Fennell is somewhat sceptical. He concludes that responsion of single words recurring in exactly the same position as regards metre is as a rule without significance, and may sometimes be due to chance. Such responsions, he suggests, may be partly due "to perfunctory compliance with a lyric tradition derived from earlier and simpler forms of verse in which repetition had been both effective and significant."

It is always a satisfaction to open a new volume bearing Ferdinand Brunetière's name. He is at once so solid and so clear, so thoughtful himself and suggestive of thought in others, so bold in the novelty of some of the views he puts forward, and so dominating, aggressive, one might almost say, in his manner of pressing his arguments, that never yet has an intelligent reader wearied of following him. A declared believer in the law of evolution, he has applied it with singular success to the elucidation of literary movements. In the present volume, the fifth of the series of "Études critiques sur l'histoire de la littérature française" (Paris: Hachette), he has collected five essays which have appeared in reviews and magazines. All are interesting and valuable, the first and third particularly so, for they are excellent examples of his method. In the first ("La réforme de Malherbe et l'évolution des genres") he controverts the widespread belief that Malherbe broke completely with Ronsard and the Pléïade to inaugurate a new movement. On the contrary, according to M. Brunetière, Malherbe could not so break, and the influence of Ronsard was felt by him at the same time that he tended practically to the same end as that poet. In the last, and shortest, article in the volume, "Le caractère essentiel de la littérature française," he takes a comprehensive view of the literature of France, and brings out in a luminous manner its "sociable" character. Every page of the book is worth reading.

M. Ernest Tissot has written a book at once interesting and bold, 'Le Drame norvégien—Henri Ibsen; Biörnstierne Biörnson' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.). The boldness of it lies in his quiet assertion that Ibsen, though making use of a different poetic, is truer to nature than the most realistic of French dramatists, and, in many respects, superior to Augier and Dumas the younger, while Sardou is quite unworthy to be named beside him. In this latter opinion many will heartily concur, though they may not be disposed to agree that the work of Dumas and Augier is almost pure conventionality in comparison with Ibsen's. M. Tissot does genuine service, in his book, both to the pair of famous Norwegian writers and to the French public, by giving the latter a good insight into the marked personality of Ibsen and Björnson, and by briefly summarizing and describing their works. His effort in this respect is in many ways akin to Mme. de Staël's successful attempt to reveal to the French of her day the beauties of Goethe, Schiller, and other Germans. To Americans, what M. Tissot has to say is not novel; to most Frenchmen it will come as a revelation, in spite of the work already done by Mme. Arvède Barine and Count Prozor.

We have been dilatory in calling attention to a charmingly printed and useful little book now several months old, viz., Guido Mazzoni's 'Avviamento allo studio critico delle Lettere Italiane' (Verona: Fratelli Drucker). It was written by a teacher who has the good sense to acknowledge that even his advanced pupils are often ignorant as to the terms employed in describing books and manuscripts, the names and functions of common books of reference, and the location and contents of the great Italian libraries. All this and much more the little book tells us, and any one who has to do with Italian literature will find it an excellent manual to consult for many matters seemingly so obvious or so trivial as to be neglected by the larger books of reference.

The Bulletin of the Italian Dante Society for February, 1892, has at last appeared, simultaneously with the double number for June, 1893. The latter contains further directions for the exhaustive description and classification of manuscripts of the 'Divine Comedy' which the society has undertaken, as well as an elaborate account, covering more than a hundred pages, of the manuscripts now in the Riccardiana at Florence.

The educational section of the Liberal Arts Building, and the Woman's Building, divide the contents of Part seven of the 'Book of the Fair' (Chicago: Bancroft Company; New York: Rhule, Thomas & Co.). The illustrations are as abundant as ever, if not always precisely designated, and remain the chief excuse for this expensive work.

Mr. Arthur J. Balfour has found time, amid the distractions of home rule, bimetallism, and parliamentary fencing, to prepare for the October issue of *Mind* a paper entitled "A Criticism of Current Idealistic Theories." He describes it as a chapter from an as yet unfinished book. He presses the question whether idealists must not grant "that, in all experience, there is a refractory element which, though it cannot be presented in isolation, nevertheless refuses wholly to merge its being in a network of relations," even though the latter may be necessary to give this "refractory element" significance for us as thinking beings. Mr. Balfour accepts the Kantian dictum that "without matter categories are empty," and insists upon its rigid application as against idealists themselves. His conclusion—so far as he reaches any—is that neither idealism nor empiricism provides any method for extracting general truths out of particular observations unless *some* general truths are first assumed. Perhaps this is as far as the author of 'A Defence of Philosophic Doubt' can be expected to go.

The *Geographical Journal* for October opens with a paper by Mr. W. M. Conway, principally interesting for its graphic accounts of the mud avalanches in the upper Himalayas and the "astounding" scenery of the Hunza val-

ley, lately acquired by the British. He calls attention especially to the extent and frequency of these avalanches, making them a powerful agent in determining the physical character of the country which geographers and geologists have hitherto overlooked. There is also an unusually interesting account of Lieut. Peary's Arctic work, prepared from his unpublished note-books by Mr. C. C. Adams, in which special recognition is made of the value and importance of the ethnographical work of the expedition, "the most noteworthy yet done among the Arctic Highlanders." Among the other articles are an address before the Teachers' Guild Conference, held at Oxford, by Prince Krapotkin, on the teaching of physiography, which is in fact an earnest appeal for making the natural sciences the very foundation of education; and the opening address to the Geographical Section of the British Association by the President, Mr. H. Seebohm, a popular description of the North Polar Basin, closing with a very striking account of the sudden transition from winter to summer in the Arctic regions of Siberia, when the disappearance of the ice on its breaking up in the rivers is almost inconceivably rapid. An accompanying series of six maps shows the river basins, the heights and depths, the temperature of the coldest and warmest months, the amount of rain and snow, and the vegetation of this region.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* also publishes Mr. Seebohm's address at Nottingham, together with the notes, chiefly geological, of a journey in southern Africa from Mashonaland to the east coast. Besides the usual carefully prepared monthly record, reviews of geographical literature, and lists of new maps, we remark a very appreciative notice of the late Surgeon-Major Parke, the medical officer of the Stanley expedition for the relief of Emin Pasha.

As our English dictionaries tend to become encyclopædias, so atlases encroach on the domain of the gazetteer and 'Statesman's Yearbook' or political almanac. That new third edition of Kiepert's 'Grosser Hand-Atlas' which the house of Dietrich Reimer is issuing in Berlin, accompanies each map with statistics of government, area, population, industry, financial condition, etc., and with an index of places in which population is affixed to each name. The amount of information thus condensed is very great, and much enhances the value of the work. The third and fourth parts are before us with fine maps of the whole of Europe, of Russia, the German Empire in detail, Belgium and Holland, England, Spain and Portugal, and middle Italy; singularly clear, in spite of an exceptional fulness of places.

From the same house we have a notable map of the globe with reference to sea-soundings, coaling-stations and docks, submarine cables, and overland telegraphs. This work proceeds from a bureau of the Navy Department. It is in three sheets to be joined in mounting. The land surface is indicated as well as the ocean depths.

—The fourteenth volume of Washington's Writings completes the task of the editor, Mr. Worthington C. Ford, and publishers, G. P. Putnam's Sons. A "Note" contains information not communicated in the preface to vol i., viz., that this edition is a "selection from the wealth of material found," with intent to "preserve a proper balance between the public and the private acts of the man, so displaying his character more fully than has been done." We now learn, too, for the first time, that while Mr. Ford prints about 500 more letters than Sparks, he omits at least as many which Sparks printed, making good the room by drawing more freely "on the diaries, farm journals, and plans of campaigns and of army organization." There is a special index to these omissions, to which must be added the unused parts of letters that furnish illustrative extracts for footnotes. While in his preface four years ago Mr. Ford had a grateful word for historical societies throughout the country (and especially the Massachusetts society) that had assisted him, in his "Note" he excepts the New York and the Long Island societies; so that, slight as may hereafter be the inducement to print another edition of the Writings, Mr. Ford's is evidently not final in respect to what may yet be brought to light, as it is not in the perplexing choice between the numerous forms of the extant documents. It was Mr. Ford's plan to indicate in the present volume "the source of the printed version, whether an original, a draft, a transcript, contemporary letter-book, or a late copy"; but the labor probably seemed too great, even if it were worth while, and the attempt has been abandoned, the reader being left to reconcile as well as he can the inconsistency of literal and conventional reproductions of Washington's MS. Altogether, however, the "father of his country" is to be found entire in Mr. Ford's volumes, which cannot be read, especially in these degenerate days of national statesmanship, without increased admiration for Washington, and without a sense of obligation to his latest editor.

—This obligation is much enhanced by the chief feature of the volume before us, namely, the Washington pedigree, charted and set forth in detail for eleven generations, with wills, etc., together with a succinct history of the tracing of it, from Sir Isaac Heard to Mr. Waters and even (as our readers are not ignorant) to Mr. Ford himself, who has discovered some important links in the now convincing chain of evidence. This is a very valuable service indeed, and well-nigh final, though one represses a wish to see this chapter made a separate publication just yet. The remaining contents—Washington's correspondence of 1798, 1799, Tobias Lear's account of his death, the action of Congress thereon, his will, etc.—make a pathetic impression. His being dragged back into the public service by fears of an attack from France, leading to his appointment as commander-in-chief of a provisional army; the annoyances which immediately beset him from a want of coöperation on the part of Adams's Administration; the waning strength of Federalism; his overburdened estate, on which he maintained twice as many negroes as were profitable, whom he could not free, as they were mixed up with his wife's dower, and would not on principle sell or hire out; finally his last ailment, with the unskilful treatment and suffering end—make a picture in one tone. Mr. Ford tells the checkered fate of the will, which, being transferred for safety during the civil war to Richmond, was there exposed to the looting of the office of the State Secretary, and thrown into a rubbish heap. It now reposes in its original depot, the Fairfax County Court-house. Mr. Ford is able to fix the location of Washington's landed property in the District of Columbia devised in the will. An appendix contains a letter from Cambridge, dated August 20, 1775, which is quite the most remarkable in the volume on account of its strong and contemptuous judgment of "the People of this government." Washington was particularly incensed by the cowardice and peculation of the Massachusetts officers. The men, he concedes, might fight very well if properly officered, "although they are an exceeding dirty and nasty people." These privates, as he wrote to Richard Henry Lee nine days later, could not be induced "to believe that there is or can be any danger till the Bayonet is pushed at their Breasts"; not "from any uncommon prowess, but rather from an unaccountable stupidity in the lower class." In the former letter Washington censures the defeat at Bunker's Hill, as the fault of the officers. We conclude these remarks by calling attention to the last letter penned by Washington, the day before his death, which is given in facsimile in the current issue of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of American History*, for October. Its intrinsic value is nil, but the sentimental interest attaching to it would have insured it a place in Mr. Ford's collection if it had been available in season.

—Following in due sequence his school editions of Cæsar and of Cicero's Orations, President Harper, with Dr. F. J. Miller, gives us an edition of the 'Bucolics' and the first six books of the 'Æneid' (American Book Co.). The unique thing about it is that the notes, which are on the same page as the text, contain nothing whatever of a grammatical nature, but are designed "to afford stimulus and material for the study of the poet from a literary point of view." These notes, therefore, while presenting the usual brief explanations on points of antiquarian lore, are chiefly remarkable for containing a large collection of passages taken from Greek, Latin, Italian, and English authors in relation to whom Virgil stands either as the imitator or as the imitated. If the boy could be made to read them (a point, by the way, on which the gravest doubt may be entertained), such passages would be very enlightening to him. With the too narrow range of classical authors now read in our schools, it is extremely desirable that the student should be shown how wide a field there is beyond, and how great is the debt which modern literature owes to the ancient. Whether, however, such passages are really instructive as to the actual meaning of Virgil, and help to a real understanding of the Latin language *in the Latin*—whether they assist the boy to put himself in the place of a Roman reader and to get the Roman point of view—these are questions still *sub judice* and too long to discuss here. But about one point we feel no doubt, and this is that the series of supplementary notes contained in a dozen pages at the end of the book is a positive evil, for these notes contain nothing but out-and-out translations into English, without a word of explanation, of the more difficult passages in the poems. Such a translation, of course, applies only to the passages in question, the boy swallows it bodily, and it is of no more use to him, when he meets a similar phrase in his future reading, than is last month's pill for this month's headache. Such a passage should be explained by the teacher in the classroom without translation, and translation should never be employed until the boy has been made to feel the Latin thought as it stands in the Latin itself. Grammatical, prosodiacal, and rhetorical studies of Virgil are not neglected in this edition, but all such matters are treated in an introduction and by the "inductive method"; the treatment is excellent of its kind. Antiquities are illustrated by about fifty woodcuts in the text

(with no references to the sources from which they are taken), and by a dozen full-page copies of ancient statues and modern paintings.

—A very sumptuous edition of Catullus, together with the "Pervigilium Veneris," is that of Mr. S. G. Owen (London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Macmillan). It is a quarto, printed on the finest and heaviest hand-made paper, with wide margins and rough edges, and it is illustrated with eight beautiful photogravures designed by Weguelin. The notes at the end are purely critical, and show at a glance that the value of the book does not rest alone upon the lavishness of its outer attire, and that it is no mere *édition de luxe* of somebody else's work. Mr. Owen has bestowed upon these texts the same careful work which made his edition of Ovid's 'Tristia' invaluable for the critical study of those poems. While using the best editions as a foundation, he has not followed slavishly in the footsteps of any of the modern editors, and has even, in numerous places in Catullus, had recourse once more to a fresh collation of the Oxford MS. His own emendations and corrections he admits into the text in about twenty passages of Catullus, and in three or four of the "Pervigilium." Most of them have already been submitted to criticism, having first appeared in the pages of the *Classical Review;* all deserve respectful attention and study. It is only to be regretted that the magnificence of the book makes its price so high as to put it out of the reach of most scholars.

—Regarding "The Division of Words," a correspondent writes:

"The dispute in your columns is no new thing under the sun. It was evidently rife among the Romans in the Augustan age, and Augustus himself, in this altercation as in so many other emergencies, proved an artful dodger. He offended neither party and was safe from the criticism of both. He never divided his words at all. We read in Suetonius (Augustus, § 87): 'In his handwriting I have especially noticed this: he does not divide words, nor, when letters are too many, does he carry them over from the end of lines to another, but at once writes them there underneath, and draws a line round them" (Notavi et in chirographo ejus illa praecipue: *non dividit verba*, nec ab extremâ parte versuum abundantes literas in alterum transfert, sed ibidem statim subjicit, circumducitque.) Whatever the imperial division of words might have been, Augustus must have been suspected of partiality. But, thanks to a masterly evasion, he was as safe as the fox who, after running into his hole, pulls in the hole after him, or as the modern Paris in a picture at Chicago who eats up the apple himself, leaving the goddesses with much to lament but nothing to complain of."

—The Oxford and Cambridge certificate examination lists, published in the *Guardian* of September 13, give some interesting indications of the condition of the higher education in England. The number of candidates was 1,683, an increase of 100 on the previous year, and they were sent by 80 schools. Several of the largest, however, as Harrow, Marlborough, and Charterhouse, were not represented. Eton heads the list with sixty boys, followed closely by Winchester, Rugby, and St. Paul's, London. The subjects for examination were 19, and 1,486 offered for elementary mathematics, 1,274 for Latin, 1,214 for Scripture knowledge, 1,025 for Greek, 1,012 for history, 1,001 for French. Natural science was divided into six subjects, and the total number offering was 435. As compared with last year, the students in the following subjects have decreased, viz., history, botany, and physical geography; in the three divisions of "natural philosophy" there has been no increase, while the proportional numbers are the same in elementary mathematics and Scripture knowledge; and there has been a decided increase in French, German, and Greek, but especially in Latin. This would seem clearly to indicate that the leading public and grammar schools still hold fast to what have long been regarded as the best instruments of mental training, with a recognition of the unwisdom of the neglect of foreign languages in former days. The "honors" numbered 518, the higher mathematics leading with 95 (including a boy of thirteen), and being followed by French 78, English 73, Greek 51, and Latin 39. Two boys gained honors in five subjects, viz., Latin, Greek, German, Scripture, and history. The lists also show that the number of girl candidates has increased, and that they offer principally French, German, elementary mathematics, and the "English" subjects. Greek and (rather singularly) music and drawing are hardly offered at all. The number of "honors" was very creditable, the 154 successful students receiving 86 "distinctions." The "lower certificates," for boys who do not intend to go to the universities, were given to 406 out of 838 candidates, a slight increase over 1892. The leading subjects were mathematics, French, English history, Scripture, and Latin, there being a very marked increase in the number offering English history.

## LOWELL'S EVE OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

*The Eve of the French Revolution.* By Edward J. Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In the *ancien régime* lies the explanation of the Revolution: the state of France during the fifty years or so which preceded 1789 makes intelligible the fall of the French Monarchy, the foundation of the Republic, and the growth of the Empire. Yet there are thousands of educated men and women, throughout the length and breadth of the United States and of England, who find it impossible to obtain any clear idea of French society during the reigns of Louis XV. and Louis XVI. They have neither the time nor the opportunity to consult original authorities. Tocqueville's 'Ancien Régime,' every sentence of which contains some new thought, is incomprehensible to students who have not some acquaintance with the general history of France. Taine's volumes are easier reading than Tocqueville's succinct treatise; diffuseness is more intelligible than compression. Yet Taine does not provide for Englishmen exactly the guidance they need. Readers are perplexed by the mass of Taine's facts; they lose the outline in the details of the subject dealt with by their author. It is, moreover, impossible not to feel that Taine's work, lengthy though it be, is fragmentary and incomplete. He is most anxious to support certain political or social theses. But his desire to instruct exceeds his power of narration. To any man who has a general knowledge of the state of France immediately before the Revolution, Taine's first and second volumes are full of instruction; but no one, from the mere perusal of Taine's pages, will obtain any clear view of the state of France on the eve of the Revolution.

This bird's-eye view is exactly what Mr. Lowell's 'Eve of the French Revolution' supplies. It is not, nor does it pretend to be, a work of original research. It is a short treatise or essay; it does not lay before the public the original, and probably therefore worthless, notions of a writer who propounds new opinions of the Revolution, but sums up the assured results attained by historians and thinkers such as Tocqueville and Taine. The practical effect of Mr. Lowell's labors is most satisfactory. Any one who studies his pages will be freed from the two delusions which prevent Englishmen and Americans from understanding either the *ancien régime* or the political catastrophe which brought the *ancien régime* to its close.

The first of these delusions is, that France immediately before the Revolution suffered under gross and cruel tyranny. No idea is more prevalent and no idea has less real foundation. Of its prevalence any one may judge who meditates upon the doctrine inculcated by the most popular and the most worthless of Dickens's stories, the 'Tale of Two Cities.' What Dickens believed, and what he wished to impress upon his readers, is clear enough. He held French society to be a world full of knaves and tyrants, in which men and women of worth and character were oppressed by dissolute and tyrannical noblemen; he teaches that the outrageous crimes of the oppressors of France at last brought upon the country a just and dramatic retribution which unfortunately fell, as the vengeance of history is apt to do, more severely upon the victims than upon the perpetrators of iniquity. The Revolution thus looked at is a terrible storm necessary to clear the moral atmosphere of France from wickedness and cant. This doctrine, preached under different forms in England by Carlyle and Dickens, and in France by such writers as Victor Hugo and Michelet, has obtained the widest circulation among the English people on both sides of the Atlantic. In London and in New York ninety-nine men out of a hundred believe that, in 1789, the Bastille was filled with hundreds of captives, and would be startled to find that, as was the fact, the fall of the fortress released but six or seven prisoners. How erroneous is this popular picture of France during the second half of the eighteenth century, will at once become apparent to any one who reads with intelligence Mr. Lowell's brief but lucid rendering of Tocqueville's or of Taine's teaching. France no doubt suffered a good deal from a kind of governmental despotism and caprice which is inconsistent with the respect for fixed law characterizing English constitutionalism no less under the rule of the American commonwealth than under the rule of the English monarchy. But to admit that, under Louis XVI. or his predecessor, Frenchmen did not enjoy that sort of freedom which has always seemed of priceless value to the English people, is a different thing from allowing that, immediately before the meeting of the States-General, France groaned under a grievous and intolerable despotism.

No assertion could be further from the truth. The power of the French monarch was in theory unlimited, but in practice it was hampered on all sides. The French nobility enjoyed unjust privileges which profoundly irritated the nation, but it is the height of ignorance to suppose that the French nobility were as a class the oppressors of their countrymen. French nobles sympathized warmly with the American struggle for independence; French nobles ardently desired the meeting of the States-General. One reason why the commons were so strong was that many of the nobility shared the aspirations of the middle classes. The more you look into the matter in detail, the more clearly you perceive that not cruelty

and tyranny, but sentimentality and philanthropy, were the marked features, one may almost say the vices, of the nobility, who in their ignorance hailed with delight a revolution which proclaimed the doctrine of universal equality. In all countries, and especially in France, social feeling counts for a great deal more than the law of the land. When the Revolution broke out, there existed in France many iniquitous laws and many oppressive institutions; but it is clear enough that a generation which adored Rousseau was filled with humane and philanthropic sentiment.

The second of the delusions which prevent many Englishmen from really understanding the course of the Revolution is the idea that, because the French monarchy was not an oppressive despotism, the French people had no valid ground for detesting the *ancien régime*. This is an error which has infected some of the most powerful thinkers. It vitiates all Burke's speculations about the Revolution. He saw with greater clearness than any man of his generation, we might almost say than any man who has lived since his time, both the speculative unsoundness of Revolutionary principles and the practical viciousness of Revolutionary methods; he all but prophesied, during the sittings of the National Assembly, both the horrors of the Reign of Terror and the advent of a military despot. But he either would not or could not perceive why it was that Frenchmen preferred enduring the brutal cruelty of Jacobin tyranny to incurring the risk of a Restoration. Taine, with far less excuse than Burke, is guilty of a similar blindness. When he dwells on all the evils of the Jacobin conquest, he is apt to use expressions which suggest that, under the mild rule of Louis XVI., the French people had no reasonable ground for desiring fundamental changes. Yet every attempt to rehabilitate the *ancien régime* is answered by one remark of Tocqueville's which goes to the root of the whole matter: "A condition of society," he says somewhere, "which was detested by every one who knew it, was, we may be certain, detestable."

This observation, obvious as it is, is as conclusive as it is obvious. Yet one is naturally curious to know in some detail what were the causes which in the eighteenth century led the mass of Frenchmen to detest the social condition under which they lived. This curiosity is amply satisfied by Mr. Lowell's treatise. As one glances through the topics with which it deals, one sees that, towards the end of the last century, every class of Frenchmen was harassed and irritated by a system of government which France had outgrown, and which was the more annoying just because Frenchmen enjoyed enough freedom to feel bitterly the evil of arrangements which hampered every action of their lives. The smaller States of Italy and of Germany were far more oppressively governed than France, yet the subjects of Italian or German princes felt the ills under which they suffered less acutely than did Frenchmen. A despotism which has crushed the people's spirit is less resented than feeble tyranny which leaves its victims energy and hope enough to agitate for reform or to desire revolution. It is no exaggeration to say that, towards the later years of Louis XVI.'s reign, there existed no single large body of Frenchmen which did not feel bitter discontent. On the support of the army must repose in the last resort the power of every government, yet the French army was, long before 1789, prepared to coalesce with the populace against the crown. The main causes of discontent were two. Men of capacity who were not nobles could not hold high military rank, and the reforms suggested by the defeats of the Seven Years' war had broken up the old military system without conciliating the good will of the soldiers. Next to the army, the main prop of every government must be the magistracy. Yet, by a singular fatality, the magistracy of France had, for more than a generation, been engaged in a contest with the crown. There is no single department of government in which the incompetence of Louis XVI. and his advisers is so manifest as in his dealings with the parliaments. The French parliaments were very bad law-courts. From the point of view of a philosophic reformer there was a great deal to be said in favor of their abolition. A monarch who had despotically reformed the judicature of France would have gained the applause of philosophers and the good will of the people. A monarch who had conciliated the parliaments would at least have been supported by the French magistracy. Louis XVI. so mismanaged matters that he irritated at once the parliaments and the people. He allied against him all that was revolutionary and all that was conservative in France.

Consider, again, the position of French men of letters. Their influence was, towards the end of Louis XV.'s reign, greater than it has ever been at any other time either in France or in any other European country. Men talk of Johnson as a literary despot, but the moderate and constitutional rule of Johnson was as nothing compared to the limitless power of Voltaire. Nothing like it now exists in modern Europe. Nor was his influence due solely to his own astounding energy and talent; he represented in its highest form the authority of a class. The modern literary world has no despot, but one of the reasons why no man can play the tyrant of literature is that the world of letters, as a great social and political power, no longer exists. If every writer in the United States were hostile to President Cleveland, the hostility would hardly weaken his influence. In England at the present moment the enmity of literary men to Mr. Gladstone would be felt by every one to be a far less serious matter than (say) the defection from his side of the Nonconformist ministers, of the Irish priesthood, or of the leaders among the English artisans. Yet at the very time when literature was a real power in France, men of letters were to a man hostile to the King and to the governing classes. The hostility is intelligible enough to any one who ponders upon the story of the celebrated 'Encyclopædia.' Had the work been published in England, its appearance would not have affected for a moment the stability of the throne or the security of the church. Its publication shook the French monarchy and the French Church because the Government attempted to hinder its publication. The delay in bringing out the work and the danger involved in its publication irritated the masters of French opinion, and every volume that came out was a triumph over the Government. The 'Encyclopædia' was the outward and visible sign of the decaying authority of the State and the Church.

Let our readers, again, following Mr. Lowell's guidance, examine the general characteristics of French taxation. Our author appears to hold, and with reason, that the burden under which taxpayers groaned was not so heavy as is generally supposed. To make out what was its exact weight is now an impossibility, but the finance of the French monarchy was marked by two features which were enough to excite the bitterest popular indignation. Taxation was visibly unequal. The nobles and the priests did not, indeed, in reality escape from the payment of taxes, but it was patent to all the world that nobles and ecclesiastics enjoyed the odious privilege of exemption from taxation the weight of which crushed the middle classes and the poor. Taxes, again, were as a rule levied by farmers-general, or, to use an expression with which readers of the New Testament are more familiar, by publicans. It may well be doubted whether modern readers realize the results which inevitably flow from the farming out of the taxes. The resources of the State are thereby greatly diminished. Nothing like the whole tax collected ever flows into the national treasury; or, to put the same thing in other words, the taxpayers are inevitably made to pay a far larger sum than is required for defraying the expenses of the State. The exaction, again, of taxation which is already too heavy, becomes from the nature of things intolerably severe. The publican must, in order to recoup himself for his advances to the State, wring every penny he can out of the taxpayer. The State, in short, when it farms out the collection of taxes, borrows on high terms from usurers who, if they are to make a good thing out of the transaction, must cheat the State and oppress the people. England, during the great war, raised so huge a revenue that the present generation stand aghast at the taxes paid by their grandfathers, yet the Government of England was never stronger than during the contest for national existence. The France of the Bourbons was never called upon to pay any fine so tremendous as the milliards which were wrung from republican France by Germany; but the taxation of the Bourbons created and left behind it a feeling of bitterness which, after the lapse of a century, has hardly been forgotten, while the Third Republic has gained the adherence of the mass of the French people. The explanation of these facts has already been given. In England taxation has always fallen on all classes alike, and the farming of taxes has, as a general rule, been for centuries unknown. Republican France knows nothing of exemptions and employs no farmers-general.

Look at the matter, then, from whichever side you will, you come to one and the same conclusion. The *ancien régime* was not a system of oppressive tyranny, but it was a system of misgovernment which harassed, tormented, and irritated every subject of the French monarchy. This is the lesson taught by Mr. Lowell's 'Eve of the French Revolution,' and it is a lesson well worth learning, for, when once learned, it explains the enigmas presented by the history of France from 1789 to 1893.

## THE NEW LEWIS AND CLARK.—I.

*History of the Expedition under the Command of Lewis and Clark*, to the sources of the Missouri River, thence across the Rocky Mountains and down the Columbia River to the Pacific Ocean, performed during the years 1804–5–6, by order of the Government of the United States. A new edition, faithfully reprinted from the only authorized edition of 1814, with copious critical commentary, prepared upon examination of unpublished official archives, and many other sources of information, including a diligent study of the original manuscript journals and field-notes of the explorers, together with a new biographical and bibliographical introduction, new maps and other illustrations, and a complete index. By Elliott Coues, late Captain and Assistant Surgeon United States Army, late Secretary and Naturalist

United States Geological Survey, Member of the National Academy of Sciences, etc. In four volumes. New York: Francis P. Harper. 1893.

THIS title-page, printed in twenty-eight lines, is notable. It is six lines longer than that of the *editio princeps*, and stands in sharp contrast to the Dedication, in which, in six lines, Dr. Coues pays a fitting tribute to the people of the great West, as well as to the statesman who first foresaw, and the soldiers who first saw, their future domain. Lewis and Clark were the first men to cross the continent in our zone, the truly golden zone. A dozen years before them, Mackenzie had crossed in British dominions far north, but settlements are even now sparse in that parallel. Still earlier had Mexicans traversed the narrowing continent from the Gulf to the Pacific, but seemed to find little worth discovery. It was otherwise in the zone penetrated by Lewis and Clark. There development began at once and is now nowhere surpassed. Along their route ten States, with a census in 1890 of eight and a half millions, have arisen in the wilderness. These millions and more yet unborn must betake themselves to Lewis and Clark as the discoverers of their dwelling-places, as authors of their geographical names, as describers of their aborigines, as well as of native plants, animals, and peculiarities. In all these States the writings of Lewis and Clark must be monumental—the κτῆμα ἐς ἀεί that Thucydides wished for. In disputes about the ownership of Oregon, when it was urged that the United States could claim only the mouth of the Columbia because Capt. Gray had discovered nothing more, while a British vessel had been first to sail a hundred miles up the river, it was answered that the two American captains had explored it ten times as far. But they did very much more. They were the first that ever burst through the Rocky Mountain barrier, and they made known practicable passes. They first opened the gates of the Pacific slope, and hence filled the valley of the Columbia with Americans. We thus obtained possession, which is proverbially nine points, and that while diplomacy was still vacillating.

The credit of our Great Western discovery is due to Jefferson, though he never crossed the Alleghanies. When Columbus saw the Orinoco rushing into the ocean with irrepressible power and volume, he knew that he had anchored at the mouth of a continental river. So Jefferson, ascertaining that the Missouri, though called a branch, at once changed the color and character of the Mississippi, felt sure that whoever followed it would reach the innermost recesses of our America. Learning afterward that Capt. Gray had pushed into the mouth of the Columbia only after nine days' breasting its outward current, he deemed that river a worthy counterpart of the Missouri, and was convinced that their headwaters could not be far apart in longitude. Inaugurated in 1801, before his first Presidential term was half over he had obtained, as a sort of secret-service fund, the small sum which sufficed to fit out the expedition. He had also selected Lewis, his private secretary, for its head, and put him in a course of special training. But the actual voyage up the Missouri, purchased April 30, 1803, was not begun till the middle of May, 1804.

Forty-five persons in three boats composed the party. They were good watermen, but navigation was arduous, the river extremely rapid, changeful in channel, and full of eddies and sawyers. The last white settlement was passed within a week, but some meat and corn could be bought of Indians, though delays were necessary for parleys and even councils with them. Others were occasioned by hunting parties who were kept out in quest of game. After 171 days the year's advance ended with October, for the river was ready to freeze. The distance up stream they reckoned at 1,600 miles, or little more than 9 miles a day, a journey now made by railroad in forty-four hours. But it is not likely that any other men could then have laid more miles behind them. In addition to detentions already enumerated, rudders, masts, oars were often broken, and replacing them cost time; boats were swamped or overset, or could be forced onward only with tow-lines.

Winter quarters were thirty miles above the Bismarck of our day. Here they were frozen in about five months. The huts they built and abundant fuel kept them warm. Thanks to their hunters and Indian traffic, food was seldom scarce. Officials of the Hudson's Bay Company (who had a post within a week's journey) and many inquisitive natives paid them visits. From all these it was their tireless endeavor to learn everything possible concerning the great unknown of the river beyond. Scarcely one could tell about distant places from personal observation, but some second-hand reports were afterward proved strangely accurate, even as to the Great Falls, which turned out to be a thousand miles away. It was not long, however, before they learned that the wife of Chaboneau, whom they had taken as a local interpreter, was a captive whose birth had been in the Rocky Mountains. She, named the Bird-woman, was the only person discoverable after a winter's search who could by possibility serve them as interpreter and guide among the unknown tongues and labyrinthine fastnesses which they must encounter.

Early in April, 1805, the explorers, now numbering thirty-two, again began to urge their boats up the river, for their last year's labors had brought them no more than half-way to their first objective, its source. No more Indian purveyors or pilots: their own rifles were the sole reliance for food. Many a wigwam, but no Indian, was espied for four months and four days after they left their winter camp. It was through the great Lone Land that they groped their dark and perilous way. In twenty days after the spring start they arrived at the Yellowstone, and in thirty more they first sighted the Rocky Mountains. Making the portage at the Great Falls cost them a month of vexatious delay. Rowing on another month brought them on August 12 to a point where one of the men stood with one foot each side of the rivulet, and "thanked God that he had lived to bestride the Missouri, heretofore deemed endless." They dragged their canoes, however, up the rivulet for five days longer. It was 460 days since they had left the mouth of the river, and their mileage on its waters had been 3,096 miles. A mile further they stood on the great divide, and drank of springs which sent their water to the Pacific. But meantime they had been ready to starve in the mountains. Their hunters were of the best, but they found no game: buffaloes had gone down into the lowlands, the birds of heaven had fled, and edible roots were mostly unknown to them. For more than four months they had looked, and lo! there was no man. It was not till August 13 that, surprising a squaw so encumbered with pappooses that she could not escape, and winning her heart by the gift of a looking-glass and painting her cheeks, they formed friendship with her nation, one of whose chiefs proved to be a brother of their Bird-woman. Horses were about all they could obtain of these natives, streams were too full of rapids to be navigable, or no timber fit for canoes was within reach. So the party, subsisting on horse-flesh, and afterwards on dog-meat, toiled on along one of the worst possible routes. Nor was it till the 7th of October that they were able to embark in logs they had burned hollow, upon a branch of the Columbia, which, after manifold portages and perils, bore them to its mouth and the goal of their pilgrimage, late in November. Its distance from the starting-point, according to their estimate, was 4,134 miles.

A winter of disappointment followed, for no whaler or fur-trader appeared to supply the wayfarers with food or clothing or trinkets for the purchase of necessaries on the homeward journey. Game was so scarce that it is possible they would have starved had not a whale been stranded near them—sent, they said, not as to Jonah, to swallow him, but for them to swallow. In the spring of 1806, when they turned their despairing faces away from the Pacific, all the beads and gewgaws for presents to savages and procuring supplies during their home stretch to the Mississippi might have been tied up in two handkerchiefs, if they had had any such articles. Their last tobacco had been consecrated to the celebration of Christmas, and the last whiskey had been drunk on the previous 4th of July. All roads homeward are down hill. A forced march of six months brought the discoverers from the ocean to St. Louis, September 23, 1806, though they were obliged to halt a month for mountain snows to melt. From first to last not a man had perished through accident, wild men, or wild beasts, and only one through sickness.

Many an episode in this eventful transcontinental march and countermarch will hereafter glorify with romantic associations islands, rivers, rocks, cañons, and mountains all along its track. Among these none can be more touching than the story of the Bird-woman, her divination of routes, her courage when men quailed, her reunion with a long-lost brother, her spreading as good a table with bones as others could with meat, her morsel of bread for an invalid benefactor, her presence with her infant attesting to savages that the expedition could not be hostile. But when bounties in land and money were granted to others, she was unthought of. Statues of her, however, must yet be reared by grateful dwellers in lands she laid open for their happy homes. Western poets will liken her to Ariadne and Beatrice.

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*Personal Recollections of Werner von Siemens.* Translated by W. C. Coupland. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

SUCH a number of the Siemens brothers have distinguished themselves in the engineering world, and especially in electricity, that really a guide-book to their respective performances was becoming a public desideratum. This book in some measure fills that want. Siemens Brothers, Siemens & Halske, and other firms of Siemenses, which practically make one concern, are renowned all over the world for executing in the most scientific way possible everything connected with telegraphy, such as operating land lines, laying cables, inventing and manufacturing all sorts of electrical instruments, preparing gutta-percha, making the glass required in the business, mining the copper, and also as inventors and manufacturers of regenerative furnaces and the regenerative Siemens gas-burner. The brother whose name

is the most familiar to readers of English books was Sir William Siemens, who worked a great improvement in the quality of English enginery, and first forced the practical Englishman to entertain a sincere respect in practical matters for the scientific physicist. He died ten years ago, receiving the last distinction of a burial in Westminster Abbey. He was the fourth of the brothers. Hans, the second, made the glass. Friedrich, the fifth, inventor of the Siemens burner, devotes himself to regenerative combustion. Charles, the sixth, is probably the greatest business manager among them. Walter, the seventh, was the developer of the wonderfully scientific copper-mine in the Caucasus; while Otto, the eighth, was his successor there. Several others of the name have been connected with the business; but the most interesting man of them all has been the eldest of the brothers, Dr. Werner von Siemens, Member of the Berlin Academy of Sciences, inventor of the dynamo, discoverer of electrostatic charging by means of a battery, author of the Siemens unit of resistance, earliest adherent of Faraday's theory, and founder of the fortunes of the house of Siemens.

The mechanical perfection of the volume is worthy of the author. A sea-green linen binding, leaves of tinted paper so thick that 175 of them make an inch, tastefully cut pica, superb presswork, all proclaim that commercial remuneration has not been the first care. In fact, the work is in part quite frankly of the nature of a *réelame*. Dr. von Siemens had perhaps some share in a moral quality not unknown among his countrymen, a deep compunctious sense that his besetting sin was excessive modesty and self-depreciation, with an earnest resolve to fight it down, if so be by God's grace he might. But there are in truth several reasons why Werner Siemens did not for long receive all the credit to which he was justly entitled. In the first place, he was not a thoroughly educated physicist, and often made slips that show it. We will not recount the deplorable history of the bathymeter, but will rather select a less decided example. He says in this book (p. 327) that the problem of a flying-machine "is, for every mind possessing a slight mechanical training, a very simple one." He proceeds to say that inclined planes to assist in supporting the weight are worthless. Now, such argumentation was pardonable in Babinet forty years ago, but it has since that time been plainly shown that it rests on assumptions in regard to the motions of fluids which resemble but very slenderly the facts of nature. To-day, to accuse those who are engaged upon the problem of the flying-machine of ignorance is simply to expose one's own. Now, it is very natural that scientific men, with the enormous volume of new work that they have to examine, should be somewhat slow in finding out the real merit of those who so make themselves ridiculous. In the second place, Dr. Siemens stood, for the greater part of his life, outside the circle of German university professors, and advocated a theory to which they were disinclined. In some branches, such as that of philosophy, to be opposed to the official view in Germany means utter neglect. In physics, it is not so bad; still, even in physics nobody who understands the German can think that it could be unimportant. In the third place, Siemens's profession was one in which enormous profits were to be made—profits depending upon the man's reputation. No wonder, then, that, in that line, competition for the honor of discoveries should be particularly bitter and ungenerous. Add that Siemens himself had shown himself as adroit as anybody in combining scientific research with the pursuit of wealth, and it was hardly to be expected that the friends of his competitors should do him any public honor which, by any means not positively dishonorable, they could wrest from him.

After all, his scientific merit, which is certainly considerable, though hardly to be called great, is everywhere recognized. His highest capacity is not in pure science but in engineering, or, rather, it is of a military kind. He makes a marvellously clear and penetrating judgment quickly, and is ready to stake his fortunes upon it. The first successful deep-sea cable was laid in 1857 from Bona in Algeria to the island of Sardinia. The house of Siemens had furnished only the electrical apparatus; but Werner Siemens was to do the testing of the cable during and after the laying. He had no further responsibility. The cable was an old-fashioned affair weighing at least four pounds per yard. The problem of how to lay such a thing down, without breakage and without waste, at a depth of 1,000 to 1,500 fathoms, was so difficult that the different engineers who were to be upon the vessel found themselves, on the passage from Genoa to Sardinia, of the most widely different opinions about the matter. The man who was responsible, an Englishman, thought the best way was to proceed quickly, and let the cable run out without check, so as to bring no strain upon it. A French engineer, on the other hand, thought that the cable would hang down in a catenary curve, and would necessarily break. This was certainly far from a foolish idea. Siemens did not expect to have anything to do with the mechanical business, but declared that the operation could not be performed as the Englishman proposed, yet that it could be done by putting on a break sufficient to support a weight of cable equal in length to the depth of the water. They started from Bona in the evening, proceeding on the English plan. By dawn they found they had laid a third part of the cable, though they had covered only a fifth of the distance. They had only just enough left to reach a shallow spot near Sardinia. The contractor then went to Siemens and requested him to lay the remainder of the cable. Many a man would have simply washed his hands of it. Why should he undertake so difficult a task and such enormous responsibilty, without preparation, without any surplus of cable, and without adequate machinery? Incredible as it may seem, they did not even have a ship's log-line on board. Here was this untried problem of laying down perhaps a million dollars' worth of cable at the bottom of the deep sea, without losing it if one could help it. Yet Siemens does not seem to have hesitated. He laid the cable; and, although he strained it a little, he laid it successfully. We can well believe him when he says:

"The continuous mental strain, and the consciousness that any error committed may occasion the loss of the whole cable, makes the laying of a deep-sea cable a very anxious, and for a length of time thoroughly exhausting, affair for all concerned, and especially for the leader of the undertaking. Towards the end of the foregoing work, in which I would not allow myself a moment's rest and refreshment, I could only keep myself up by frequently taking strong black coffee, and required several days for recovering my strength."

The full account of Siemens's work will be most interesting to the engineer and to the man of science; but even the reader who may choose to skip all this will find it one of the most charming publications of the year. He will be surprised to find how many exciting adventures Siemens met with. At the very outset of his career he found himself defending a fort at Kiel against the Danes. For this purpose he was obliged to recruit a force, and, having enlisted them, to persuade them to go out of their own territory. It is needless to say that the defence was conducted on scientific principles. Submarine mines, or torpedoes, were used. They so scared the Danes that there was no attack. Another time he was shipwrecked in the Red Sea, and, with a whole steamer full of people, was cast upon a bare rock, where they nearly perished from thirst. Once, when he was laying a cable, a waterspout passed over the vessel. As for such incidents as accidental explosions, imprisonment, duels, being under fire in war, getting nearly frozen to death, complete destitution, peril from sharks and from robbers, danger of being put to death as a wizard, his life seems to have been full of them. There are many spirited descriptions of scenes and of phenomena of sky and sea. The anecdotes about curious personalities and amusing situations are many and good. Unfortunately the English of the translation, seldom excellent, is in many a place painfully awkward, quite ungrammatical, or downright unintelligible. The translator seems to be one of those persons who think they can improve upon accepted English idioms, and reform the language on a German model. There is, no doubt, some analogy between a rude, obscure style and disobliging, surly manners. It is singular how many admirers both find in Prussia. Siemens himself, though his style, when he is off his guard, is often delightful, yet explains, evidently with an approving conscience, that he has taken no pains whatever to write agreeably; and one of his main regrets at leaving the Prussian army was that he found the bluntness of the Prussian military manners so charming. He then considered whether or not he should become a Prussian Amtmann; but the manners of that class were not sufficiently rasping for his taste. Such tastes are certainly not to be disputed, but we should like to have them expounded. The idea seems to be that whatever is unamiable is sterling and virtuous.

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*People's Banks:* A Record of Social and Economic Success. By Henry W. Wolff. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

THE cry for governmental aid for all the poor and oppressed is now so shrill and incessant that the public has no ears for reports of what the humbler members of society have done for themselves. These reports will be neglected until philanthropists understand that the problem of poverty is a moral one, and that all schemes for regenerating men by improving their material conditions are idle unless their character also is improved. Meanwhile, those who hold that men must work out their own salvation are cheered from time to time by evidence that this is done to a greater extent than is commonly supposed. Not long since we noticed Mr. Wilkinson's little book entitled 'Mutual Thrift,' as revealing the unsuspected magnitude of the business of the provident societies in England. We have now before us a very striking account of what has been done in the same general direction, although with different methods, in some of the Continental countries, especially Germany and Italy. It is much to be regretted, however, that the description of this work did not fall into more competent hands. Mr. Wolff is enthusiastic in a good cause; but his knowledge

of banking and finance in general is so limited, and his language so extravagant, that we are unable to give implicit credence to his statements. Some of his information, however, is evidently trustworthy, and it is fortunately the most important matter in the book.

The Credit Associations of Schulze-Delitzsch are comparatively well known, but their main features may properly be restated for the purpose of contrast with the loan banks of Raiffeisen, which have attracted much less attention. In Schulze's banks a certain number of persons associate themselves for the purpose of collecting savings and making small loans, every member subscribing for one share and paying for it in instalments as he is able. Deposits are received from outsiders, but a law passed in 1889 forbids lending except to members. The capital thus received is loaned, at as high interest as can be obtained, principally upon personal securities, but for very short terms. Three months is the usual period, but a renewal can be obtained. The managers draw small salaries, but are allowed commissions upon the business done. After the shares have been paid up, profits are distributed as dividends. The liability of the members of the association is unlimited. It has been estimated that banks of this general type now number 4,500, and do a business of £450,000,000; but this statement lacks proof. It is known, however, that there are more than 1,000 in the Schulze-Delitzsch union, having more than half a million members, and a working capital of nearly 600,000,000 marks. The entire growth has taken place since 1860, and has gone on in spite of the hostile policy of the Government; Bismarck exhibiting persistent malignity towards Schulze, while actively aiding the socialistic schemes of Lassalle.

The Raiffeisen banks date from 1849, but it was not until 1880 that they began to increase rapidly. They now number more than one thousand in Germany alone, perhaps two thousand all told. These organizations are strictly local, and, as will be seen, require personal acquaintance between borrowers and lenders. One bank to a parish is the rule, but if the parish has less than four hundred inhabitants, a group is formed within which the bank may operate. Liability is unlimited, no salaries are paid except to the cashier (who is not a director), the shares are of almost nominal value, the dividends are practically nothing, and no pledge is required of the borrower, who must generally, however, furnish one or two sureties. The bank is therefore simply an association of neighbors who agree to lend of their collective wealth to such of their number as they know are honest and capable of using money. This, after all, is the secret of successful banking, as we know it, which differs only in being carried on more with an eye for gain, and less from neighborly feeling. Its basis is "two-name paper," but in the case of the Raiffeisen banks the borrower must explain precisely for what he requires the loan. The interest charged is low, and the term of the loans, as is necessary for agricultural operations, is long. It is said that none of these banks has ever failed, and that they are so highly esteemed as to obtain many loans from savings-banks, and to be designated by the courts as depositories of trust funds. A central bank has been formed that, to some extent, supervises the affairs of the local institutions, receives and distributes their balances, and acts as their agent in purchasing goods and for other purposes.

It is apparent that these two types of bank have not only different methods, but also different fields of operation. In a manufacturing and commercial community it would be difficult to lend upon personal character alone, because people do not know each other so well as in a tranquil rural village—they are too many. Nor where competition is brisk would it be practicable to find men who would make themselves liable without limit for no pecuniary compensation. In a country town the attractiveness of a serious occupation is a sufficient compensation, especially when that occupation is intrinsically so fascinating as the acquisition of minute knowledge concerning the circumstances of our neighbors. In short, where business is brisk, time is money; where there is a superfluity of leisure, men will almost pay for something to do. At the same time the success of these combinations of business and philanthropy, if it is as great as Mr. Wolff represents, is a very remarkable social phenomenon. Many of our country towns and villages suffer from the lack of savings-banks, and there is no economic reason why institutions of the Raiffeisen type should not succeed here, except the principle of unlimited liability, which is not a necessary feature.

Mr. Wolff describes the "Banche Popolari" of Italy, established by S. Luzzatti, as resembling the credit institutions of Schulze-Delitzsch, and the "Casse Rurali" of Dr. Wollemborg as similar to Raiffeisen's loan banks. But it is unnecessary to follow him further. Chapters are added upon institutions of similar character in Belgium, in Switzerland, and in France, but they need no particular mention. Mr. Wolff deserves credit for calling attention to a very unobtrusive but very important development of economic enterprise, and we trust that his book may meet with such success as to induce him to continue his studies, and to give us some further information in which fact shall count for more, and hearsay and imagination for less.

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*Shakspere:* Fünf Vorlesungen aus dem Nachlass von Bernhard ten Brink. Strassburg: Trübner. 1893.

At the time of his death, in January, 1892, Ten Brink had brought his 'History of English Literature' only to the threshold of the Elizabethan period, and had not made Shakspere the subject of any such long and thorough investigation as he had bestowed upon Chaucer. At the same time, Shakspere had long been a favorite study with him. It was the great dramatist that formed for him the central attraction of English philology, and dispelled whatever misgivings he might at any time have concerning the narrowness of his specialty. After his untimely death, therefore, it was natural that the pupils who had been delighted with his academic lectures upon Shakspere should wish to see them in print. But the manuscript proved unavailable, and so, as a second choice, his literary executors decided to publish a course of popular lectures delivered by him in 1888 at Frankfort-on-the-Main. These form the contents of the volume before us.

The first lecture is entitled "The Man and the Poet." Its problem, formulated in genuine German fashion, is the "possibility of identity" between the two. The lecturer pays his respects briefly to the Baconian theory, characterizing it as a "curiosity" and a "morbid manifestation of the time." He insists, however, that the miracle Shakspere will never be entirely cleared up. There is an inexplicable residuum there before which philology will always stand helpless. "All we can hope to reach," says he, "is the knowledge that the poet's inner development, as it can be inferred from his works, is compatible with what we know of the historical Shakspere." He then proceeds to a sympathetic sketch of the Warwickshire *milieu*—the aspects of nature, the life of the people, their sports, festivals, and superstitions, the inspiring historical associations of the place. Given a pupil of Shakspere's endowment, and what better education could his youth have had? School and university might easily have warped his mind, and destroyed that fulness of sympathy and that exquisite balance of faculties which were to be the secret and the condition of his power.

The second lecture deals with the chronology of the plays, as related to the great phases of the poet's spiritual history. A few words are devoted to the question of Shakspere's "objectivity," which is made to consist not in the suppression of self, but in the perfect transfusion of self with the matter in hand. "The most objective poet," we are told, "is at the same time the most subjective." Shakspere merges himself in his forms until he is one with them and his life becomes their life. This "holy earnestness" is a distinctive mark of his art. The chronology presented calls for little comment. "Titus Andronicus" is confidently claimed as Shaksperian—the work of a young imitator of Marlowe, whose life had not yet been crossed by the shadow of tragic moods, and who still conceived of tragedy as something utterly unusual, as a matter of peculiar characters, abnormal conditions, and horrible actions. In the sudden change which came with the year 1601, and ushered in the period of the great tragedies, Ten Brink sees a reflex of the tragic mood occasioned by the fate of Essex.

The third lecture, "Shakspere as Dramatist," treats first of the nature of the dramatic, as distinguished from the epic, gift, and of the advantages offered by the use of a traditionary fable. Then the "dramatic idea" comes in for consideration. Premising that earlier German critics went quite too far in reducing Shakspere's plays to abstract formulæ, Ten Brink still deplores the later tendency to repudiate "ideas" altogether. But when he attempts to give his own view as to what the "dramatic idea" of any given play really is, he can offer nothing better than that it is "the point of view from which the poet contemplates his subject-matter." Evidently alive to the vacuity of this definition, he turns from the domain of abstraction to illustrate his meaning by a comparison of "Romeo and Juliet" with Brooke's poem of 1562, which furnished the story. This comparison is more accurate and more instructive than the corresponding exposition in Freytag's 'Technik des Dramas.'

The fourth lecture, "Shakspere as Comic Poet," draws a comparison between Shakspere and Molière, with a view of showing why the former has not enjoyed that "universal and unreserved recognition" which has fallen to the lot of the latter. It is pointed out that in the essentials of comic art Shakspere is superior. On the other hand, Molière is nearer not only to the modern, but also to the antique conception of comedy. The Frenchman wrought more with the understanding and with singleness of purpose, the Englishman more with the fancy and with a freer admixture both of seriousness and of jest for jest's sake. "The Comedy of Errors," in its relation to Plautus, and the "Merchant of Venice," with reference to the character of *Shylock*, come in for somewhat extended discussion. Here it is remarked that "our feeling revolts against

the touch that the Jew is compelled to be baptized." There are people in Germany at present who would probably not accept this as a correct account of the modern attitude.

The last lecture is devoted to "Shakspere as Tragic Poet." The irrepressible Aristotelian definition is once more briefly explicated, though the lecturer does not omit to remind his hearers that Shakspere knew nothing, and needed to know nothing, of æsthetic theory. After this the salient features of the Shaksperian tragedy are described, the poet's artistic process analyzed, and "Julius Cæsar," "Hamlet," "Macbeth," and "Lear" are commented upon by way of illustration.

From this brief account it will appear that the lectures are in no sense a contribution to Shaksperian scholarship. We have not here such a treatment of the subject as we doubtless should have had if the gifted author had lived a few years longer. Still, just as it is, the little volume is worthy of a cordial welcome. It reads pleasantly and is characterized by urbanity and good sense. Here and there, too, imbedded in a context of easy popular exposition, one lights upon observations that go to the heart of the matter and testify to riches held in reserve. And, after all, we doubtless have here, unencumbered with any philological scaffolding, the main substance of what Ten Brink would have had to say in a more learned treatise. We may note in conclusion that the title-page is faced by a spirited etching of the author, and that the book is handsomely printed. One or two trifling misprints have come to our attention: *Porzia*, p. 53, but *Portia*, p. 146 and elsewhere; *Hindergrund*, p. 94.

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*Life with Trans-Siberian Savages.* By Douglas Howard, M.A. Longmans, Green & Co.

To the four hundred and sixty-five books or papers on the hairy Ainu of Japan and Trans-Siberian Russia enumerated by Prof. B. H. Chamberlain in his bibliography of 1886, and to the eight or ten published since that time, is added another work of peculiar interest. This little book of about two hundred pages is full of strange experiences that are most probably true, and of careless statements that are manifestly untrue. Indeed, it is such a mixture of fact and fiction that an English critic has denounced it as "a romance of adventure of the Rider Haggard school, crowded with incidents quite incredible." It is certain that in late years literary adventurers in book factories like the British Museum, or naval officers visiting the seas of Japan and oppressed with the vast leisure on their hands, have palmed off works of compilation or imagination as pure narratives of travel or the testimony of eye and ear-witnesses. One has to invoke the aid of the higher criticism and apply its principles to not a few books on the Far East produced during this decade.

Our present author, evidently lacking scholarship in physical geography, ethnology, linguistics, philosophy, and geology, is wholly uninteresting and voluminously inaccurate when he ventures into the domains of these sciences. He rushes rather hilariously into fields where trained experts move with caution. He calls a storm on the *west* side of Sakhalin and Yezo a "typhoon." He tells us that he enjoys "the distinction of being the only English-speaking individual ever known to have passed a night on any part of that entire island," though we have known personally British naval officers who have done so, and an Englishman who lived several months in Sakhalin. Out of the German-Latin-Russian of his Muscovite informant, he learns that "the very oldest book in Japan, a book which was published according to our reckoning (712) seven hundred and twelve years before Christ, states as follows" concerning the Ainu, etc. Now, the 'Kojiki,' or Notices of Ancient Things, here referred to, was committed to writing 712 A. D. Nevertheless, from the idea that the Ainu "are historic as a formidable race" in Japan "2,604 or 3,000 years" ago, it follows that "the Ainus of Sakhalin existed for unknown ages before that," and on this theory the author builds other theories that damage his book, reducing to nonsense the greater part of his elaborate chapters on Ainu ethnology, history, and theology. Mr. Howard speaks of "the syllabic character of the Ainu language, in which respect it is entirely unique among the languages of all other neighboring peoples," when the Japanese is nothing else than syllabic. The *kana* syllabary of Japan illustrates one of the three ways in which language can be written, the Chinese being logo- or ideo-graphic, and the Corean, with its true alphabet, being phonetic. Other careless statements, of which these are samples, abound in Mr. Howard's pages.

Apart from these defects, and regarding the work as a narrative of personal adventure, we see little, from what we know, through Japanese and other books and actual visitors, of Sakhalin and the Ainu which seems at all incredible or false. What the author says in general about the nine months' unbroken winter, notwithstanding that Sakhalin and France are in much the same latitude, the amazing hauls of salmon, the wolfish dogs and their fish-catching powers, the odorousness of the aborigines in a soapless land, their skill in deer- and their valor in bear-hunting, and their arrow-poison, do not seem unduly wonderful, but are in accord with the literature and science of the subject. To those not versed in these, and to the old reader about Ainus, the narrative of things seen, apart from the author's speculations, is a fascinating one, and the book is of real value.

The author says he left London in 1889 to study the Russian prison system, of which Sakhalin, ceded, as to its southern half, by the Japanese to Russia, in exchange for several of the most northern of the Kurile islands, is a part. To this outer verge of the Czar's dominions, life-prisoners, or the worst of all, are sentenced. By favor of a Russian prince, he secured an invitation to visit Sakhalin with the commandant. In the hospital he found an Ainu woman treated for syphilitic disease communicated by one of the exiles. With tattooed lips, shell-hung ears, amazing luxuriance of head-hair, and with "neck, chest, arms and . . . the whole body . . . more hairy than the most hairy man I ever saw," she seemed a "phenomenon"; whereupon he resolved to visit the Ainu in their forest home. Driven some miles inland by a convict driver, he was kindly received, and, apparently without the smelling-salts and insect powder with which Miss Bird provided herself as aids to ethnological research, he spent some weeks among this ancient and possibly Aryan fragment of humanity. The huts for the storage of dried fish and other food, weapons, etc., were on platforms twelve feet high. In a great hut ten times larger was their place for dressing game or fish. Once a year Japanese traders are allowed to come and barter pots and kettles, knives, arrow-heads, cotton cloth, rice, tobacco, etc., for furs and skins. Unlike their brethren in Yezo, who are being gradually debased off the face of the earth by alcoholic liquors, the Sakhalin Ainu, by Russian law, have no access to either saké or vodka. The Ainu house is made of thatch laid on walls five feet high. A shallow pit in the centre of the mud floor, and a hole in the roof for a chimney and one at the side for a window, complete the structure. In winter the snow masses brace up and keep warm this odorous dwelling of men, whose own name is alleged to mean 'who-smell-of-their-ancestors.' The summer is devoted to catching and preparing fish for winter consumption, in hunting deer and bear. The author gives vivid accounts of the making and use of the *inao*, or whittled sticks, with the long curled shavings kept on, which are set up in every place of omen, danger, tabu, or sacred import. We know of no book about the Ainu which presents so vividly, and details so fully, the method of making and using these sacred emblems.

Pretty full accounts are given of the women, who are solid-looking, ugly, and with very thick necks, owing to the habit of carrying heavy loads slung from the forehead. The making of Ainu arrow-poison is fully described; the active principle which quickly paralyzes the muscles of the wounded animal being derived from aconite. With pulverized spiders and foxgall a paste is made and thickly spread upon the flat side of the arrow-head, which is lashed lightly to the shaft in order to remain in the wound after all but the head is broken off. The hunters quickly cut out the flesh around the wound, and also remove and bury the animal's heart so that the dogs may not eat it. An Ainu funeral, incantations, and many curious customs are also interestingly described. In vain the savages tempted the Englishman to cast in his lot with them, by offering him two or three of the ugliest young beauties of the village. He left them, regained the Russians, and visited Yezo.

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*Sefton:* Comprising the Collected Notes of the late Rev. Engelbert Horley, M.A., together with the Records of the Mock Corporation. By W. D. Caroë and E. J. A. Gordon. Longmans, Green & Co.

In the village of Sefton, some six miles from Liverpool, stands one of the finest of old English parish churches. A recent rector was somewhat of an antiquary, and got together a good deal of information as to the history of the fabric; and these notes form the basis of the first 131 pages of this sumptuous volume. A club of jovial Liverpool citizens at the end of last century used to go over to Sefton every Sunday to dine and attend church, and amused themselves with parodying the proceedings of municipal bodies; the records of this "mock corporation" occupy the next 360 pages. And first a word as to these records. Except that they kept up an elaborate and—to the mere reader, who cannot enjoy their turtle soup—a tedious farce, the "corporation" differed no whit from scores of similar clubs, such as the festive Buccaneers with whom Captain Costigan spent the last night of his memorable stay at Chatteris. It is difficult to see what useful purpose is served by the printing of all these good gentlemen's ponderous jokes, unless it be to induce their descendants to subscribe to the volume and so assist in making more valuable matter accessible. What ought to have been done with such material was to pick out the few really interesting things and therewith to construct a little essay of some twenty pages on "The Liverpool Bourgeoisie during the French Revolution." Those drinking, church-going, slave-trading worthies were characteristic middle-class Englishmen. But we must

protest against their being allowed to bore us to the extent of 360 pages.

The earlier antiquarian portion of the book is fairly well done, and the architectural details come apparently from the hand of an expert. The horrors of restoration which the history of this church, like that of so many others, reveals, suggest that, now that the English bishops are widening the scope of their ordination examinations, they would do well to insist upon an elementary knowledge of architecture on the part of their clergy. The strength of the Church of England as a national establishment depends to so large an extent on the beauty and dignity of the edifices, that a little better understanding of the treasures committed to its charge would be no inconsiderable means of "church defence." To the historian, however, this volume, like most of the parlor books of its kind, offers only a few "pickings," although these are welcome. Thus we find in Sir William Molyneux, who died in 1548, a landlord who did not do what many of his fellows were doing, that is, "make the most of" his estate; for according to tradition "there were two things that he hated: (1) depopulating enclosures; (2) unworthy enhancements of rents; for he died with this advice to his son, 'Let the underwoods grow.'" The unaccustomed peace which Roman Catholics enjoyed for a few months after the accession of James I., is illustrated by the narrative of a recusant who tells us how, after living the life of a hunted hare for years "until the Queen's death," he "obtained from K. James a free and large pardon, which cost me in all but either 40 or 50 shillings. Deo Gratias."

Local records can do two things: they can help us to realize the continuity of every-day life; and, like the examples just quoted, they can give concrete illustrations of what otherwise are mere "movements" and "tendencies." But there is need of an improvement in editing.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Calendar of Verse. 2d ed. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25
Adams, Rev. William. Born in the Whirlwind. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Addresses delivered before the World's Railway Commerce Congress. Chicago: The *Railway Age*. $3.
Alger, Horatio, Jr. In a New World; or, Across the Gold-fields of Africa. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Bates, Prof. Katharine L. The English Religious Drama. Macmillan. $1.50.
Berlitz, M. D. Vero Drill: A Thorough Course in the French Verbs. Berlitz & Co.
Bradford, E. G. Search-Lights and Guide-Lines. Fowler & Wells.
Burnett, Mrs. Frances H. The One I Knew the Best of All. Scribners. $2.
Clark, Imogen. Robert of the Sunny Heart. G. M. Allen Co. $1.25.
Cossa, Prof. Luigi. An Introduction to the Study of Political Economy. Macmillan. $2.60.
Dale, Alan. My Footlight Husband. Cleveland Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Dougall, L. What Necessity Knows. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Earle, Mrs. Alice M. Customs and Fashions in Old New England. Scribners. $1.25.
Fairstair, Mrs. The Memoirs of a London Doll, and the Doll and her Friends. 2 vols. Brentanos. $2.50.
Fielding, Henry. Amelia. 3 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Forsyth, A. R. Theory of Functions of a Complex Variable. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $8.50.
Griffin, S. P., and Hill, F. T. Miniatures from Balzac's Masterpieces. Appletons. 50 cents.
Hale, R. B. Elsie, and Other Poems. Boston: R. B. Hale & Co.
Hazard, Miss Caroline. Thomas Hazard, called College Tom: A Study of Life in Narragansett in the XVIIIth Century. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
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|---|---|---|
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| Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1892 | | 1,472,142 48 |
| Total Marine Premiums | | $5,162,393 36 |
| Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1892, to 31st December, 1892 | | $3,759,193 05 |
| Losses paid during the same period | $1,466,178 06 | |
| Returns of Premiums and Expenses | $738,617 09 | |

The Company has the following assets, viz.:

| | |
|---|---|
| United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks | $7,816,455 00 |
| Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise | 2,027,000 00 |
| Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at | 1,029,345 26 |
| Premium Notes and Bills Receivable | 1,336,622 46 |
| Cash in Bank | 276,262 99 |
| Amount | $12,485,685 71 |

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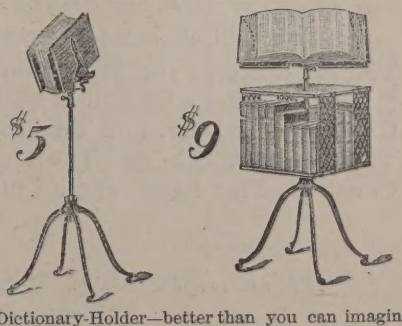


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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 2, 1893.

## The Week.

THE final scenes in the Senate on the passage of the silver-repeal bill were of a lugubrious nature in some respects, especially so to Senators Morgan, Cockrell, Vest, and Harris. It was very trying to them to be brought face to face with a condition of affairs which would expose the worthlessness of all the financial rubbish that has been issuing out of their mouths during the past ten or a dozen years. It was very sad for them to be "driven into a corner," without the smallest scrap of compromise to exhibit to their angry constituents. Senator Morgan, who enjoys the distinction of being wrong on every public question, made a spiteful attack on the President, and said that if he had told the people of Alabama that silver was to die by Mr. Cleveland's command, that State would not have cast her vote for him. When Mr. Morgan says people, he means Populists. The people of Alabama were never in ignorance as to Mr. Cleveland's position on the silver question. He had declared it over and over again. The Democratic party had adopted it in their national platform calling for the repeal of the Sherman act. The Democrats of Alabama ratified both platform and nominee in the election. The Populists of Alabama, and they alone, took a position antagonistic to Mr. Cleveland on the silver question. The Democrats were with him then as they are now. Four-fifths of the Democratic newspapers of the State sustain him and favor the repeal of the Sherman act. Senators Cockrell and Vest, if not equally out of harmony with their own party at home, are by no means on the footing that they have formerly enjoyed. They are unmistakably condemned by the commercial classes and by the intelligent members of the community.

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The *Congressional Record* continues to grind out the grist of speeches against time made by the Populists and silver Republicans in the Senate. The number for October 26 contains the two days' speech of Senator Allen of Nebraska, being mostly wind. During Mr. Allen's speech the ingenious Peffer came to his aid with some per-capita information that was particularly helpful. Mr. Allen had acquainted the world with the fact that during the war and the years immediately succeeding it the per-capita circulation of the country had been much larger than it is now, from which the inference was easily deducible that our monetary conditions were much happier and more satisfactory then than they are now. Gold was then at various rates of premium up to 280. The fluctuations in the value of the currency were rapid and excessive, affording great opportunities for speculation and turning all business into gambling—all except that of the wage-earner, who had no chance to profit by speculations, but was compelled to stand still and take whatever came to him. Senator Dolph ventured to question some of Mr. Allen's statistics. Then the ingenious Peffer, in whose nostrils currency inflation is the breath of life, came forward with tabular information showing the amount of various kinds of public debt in existence in 1866, including short bonds, compound-interest notes, national-bank notes, greenbacks, 7.30s, certificates of indebtedness, etc., all of which, as Mr. Peffer could prove, were in circulation at one time, making a glorious total of $52 per capita. The contrast between that flourishing state and the present stifling condition, when gold is worth only 100 cents to the dollar, is obvious without any argument from Peffer or Allen.

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Senator Sherman's proposal that the Secretary of the Treasury be authorized to sell bonds, not exceeding $200,000,000 in amount, bearing interest not exceeding 3 per cent, and redeemable five years after date, is judicious, reasonable, and most probably necessary to carry the Government through the next two or three years. That the Secretary is facing a deficit estimated at $50,000,000 for the present fiscal year has been officially announced. He is meeting his daily expenses in part by borrowing from the gold reserve, commonly called the greenback-redemption fund. Nearly one-fifth of this fund has disappeared in this manner, the residue being little more than $80,000,000. Whatever views may have been held regarding the sacredness of this fund, all precedents have been shattered by the march of events. It was maintained at one time, and not very long ago, by high officials of the Treasury that this gold reserve of $100,000,000 could not be used to redeem the new Treasury notes issued under the act of 1890, but when the pinch came, and it was necessary either to break in upon that fund or to redeem those notes in silver, and thus to create two kinds of money in the country, all technicalities and legal scruples were brushed aside.

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The ice having been broken, it was easy to dip in again when the panic had caused a shortage of revenue. It will be remembered that after gold importations began, as one of the consequences of the crisis, the $100,000,000 reserve was built up again. Gold was turned in at the Custom-house during the "currency famine" because the public preferred paper. This condition lasted until the currency famine had passed away, until the hoarding movement had ceased and the banks had again resumed payment in full of all checks. When the finances, both public and private, resumed their normal condition, the Treasury gold reserve began to shrink once more, from sheer inability to meet daily expenses out of daily receipts. The Secretary must either stop payment altogether or pay out such money as he has on hand. Senator Sherman a few days ago said that the Treasury was getting into a condition where it must either have bills payable or accounts payable, and that the former were preferable to the latter. This is a true tale. The case is analogous to that of a private person who owes his butcher, grocer, tailor, servants, etc., small sums of money which he cannot pay. His credit at the bank is good because his resources are ample. He can get his note discounted for enough to pay all the small claims, and thus get rid of duns and satisfy everybody. There are apparently some people in the United States, perhaps some Senators, who think that it would be a saving all around if the Government should continue to owe its clerks, judges, soldiers, sailors, pensioners, and other employees and creditors small sums which they cannot do without, rather than owe certain forehanded people a lump sum which they would readily pay for the Government's bills payable or bonds. Persons who have the notion that the Government can save something by not paying its debts promptly are as little to be reasoned with as Senator Pugh or the melancholy Bland. They must be voted down.

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The death of the mayor of Chicago at the hands of an assassin is a sad ending to the World's Fair, but he cannot be wholly acquitted of responsibility for it. He was during his whole political career a strong sympathizer with the lawless element in the Chicago population. He did his best to save the Anarchists from the gallows after their murderous attack on the police, and down to a very recent date he allowed mobs to assemble daily in front of the principal hotel in Chicago to declaim against poverty. One of the greatest objections to lawlessness is that it begets lawlessness. Everything—whether anarchical talk, or lynching, or open defiance—which diffuses contempt for the law and its officers, and for the society for whose benefit or protection the

law is enacted, is open to the capital objection that it may bear fruit. No one can guarantee that it shall be mere talk, that it shall not fall on ears which shall turn it into action. Every large city contains hundreds of shiftless, discontented, half-cracked fellows, who only need a suggestion from some seemingly responsible source to conceive themselves justified in "removing" some local impediment to human happiness with a knife or revolver. The people who swarm in the streets with concealed weapons do not all carry certificates of sanity. This class Mayor Harrison undoubtedly helped to keep alive and to multiply, and in doing so undoubtedly in some degree contributed to his own tragic taking-off. If the occurrence has a warning in it for Gov. Altgeld, so much the better. He is playing the same dangerous game, and with the same object—to get the Senatorship.

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Marshall Field's munificent gift of $1,000,000 assures to Chicago a memorial of its great Fair which will be of the highest educational value to the whole country. It was early in 1892 that certain public-spirited citizens of Chicago, the chief of whom was Mr. W. T. Baker, then president of the Local Board of the Exposition, and president also of the Chicago Board of Trade, began to agitate the project of establishing a Columbian museum as a permanent memorial of the Exposition. Seconded by President Harper of the University of Chicago, they formulated a plan which contemplated the erection of a fire-proof building in Lincoln Park, to be made the receptacle of the exhibits of scientific value bequeathed from the Fair. It was known that the exhibits in the field of natural history from the Central and South American countries especially would be of unexampled interest and value, and it was the desire to preserve these and others similar to them for the instruction of the people for all time which prompted the movement for a museum. The plan called for a fire-proof structure costing a million dollars, and assurance was given that if this could be erected, specimens and articles of historic interest aggregating three million dollars in value would be forthcoming. Mr. Field's generous gift secures the structure, which we believe is to be a reproduction of the present beautiful art palace in indestructible material, a fitting monument to the Fair, and to the seemingly limitless generosity and genuine civic pride of the people of Chicago.

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The removal of Mr. Henry White from the place of first secretary to the American Embassy in London has just been effected. Mr. White's resignation was asked for some time ago for the purpose of giving the office to Mr. J. Roosevelt Roosevelt, who, we understand, contributed $10,000 to the campaign fund. Mr. Roosevelt is an estimable gentleman who has already had some diplomatic experience on the Continent, but it cannot be repeated too often that London is a post for which no experience on the Continent is of any use. In London, which is the principal seat of our diplomatic business abroad, no experience takes the place of local experience. To be of use to his country in London it is necessary before all things that the minister should know the men and women of the capital thoroughly, and should know the usages, and prejudices, and feelings of all of that very composite, complicated, and, to the outsider, rather mysterious body called English society, which has so much to do as yet with shaping legislation and making war and peace. Ministers, as they come and go, do not always, and cannot always, possess this knowledge, and it has accordingly been a wise custom to keep some one who did possess it permanently, as it were, in the first secretaryship. Mr. Moran held the place in this way for a long time, and so did Mr. Hoppin. Mr. White has filled it admirably for the past ten years. We doubt if anybody has ever brought as much tact, industry, patience, and good temper to the discharge of its duties. He was invaluable to Mr. Lowell and Mr. Phelps, and Mr. Bayard was, we understand, very desirous of having him stay. To turn him out now for a newcomer is as serious an offence against our diplomatic service abroad as could be committed.

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Mr. Frederic R. Coudert, in his article on arbitration in the November *Harper's*, makes a brief reference to the Bering Sea case. He writes:

"What would have resulted from a persistent assertion of its rights by force, on the part of the United States, is of course a matter of conjecture. Mr. Phelps, minister at the Court of St. James's, was in favor of vigorous measures, and urged the continuation of the only course which, in his judgment, was consistent with self-respect. He felt and expressed entire confidence that Great Britain, knowing that she was in the wrong, would never go to war in defiance of the impregnable moral grounds on which the claims of the United States were based. This view was entitled to special consideration, emanating as it did from a profound jurist who had also proved himself an exceptionally skilful diplomat. But there certainly was some danger that the seizure of British vessels in the open sea might lead to a disturbance of the friendly relations between the two great powers."

This is putting it very mildly in view of the documents in the case. On June 14, 1890, Sir Julian Pauncefote, after vainly trying to get Mr. Blaine to abate something of his pretensions, served upon him a formal notice, of which the concluding paragraph was as follows:

"The undersigned is in consequence instructed formally to protest against such interference, and to declare that her Britannic Majesty's Government must hold the Government of the United States responsible for the consequences that may ensue from acts which are contrary to the established principles of international law."

After the receipt of this unmistakable intimation of what they were rushing upon with their seizures of British ships upon the high seas, Mr. Blaine and the President suddenly discovered that they had always been strongly in favor of a *modus* and arbitration. Mr. Coudert's way of putting the thing helps us to understand the laughter with which his jocose treatment of the American case was received by the Paris Tribunal. Mr. Phelps will immensely enjoy the humor of the references to himself.

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Admiral Stanton's explanation of his conduct in saluting the rebel admiral in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro does not acquit him of having been guilty of an indiscretion, in view of his instructions to have nothing whatever to do with the revolution, but it does show how difficult was the situation he had to deal with. Precedents to guide him were exceedingly scanty, if indeed a single one precisely in point could be cited. As he says, Mello was the only Brazilian admiral afloat, and had sent an officer to make a ceremonious call upon the American admiral. Now there is no hard-and-fast rule about the receipt and return of these naval courtesies, though the principle is laid down in the books that, on the high seas at least, "they ought generally to be returned if offered by one of the parties," and admirals' ships, in particular, are expected to salute each other. The case was certainly a puzzling one. Here was the entire Brazilian navy under a single commander flying the Brazilian flag. It was not a question of choosing between the recognition of Mello and that of some admiral loyal to the established Government. Admiral Stanton had, in fact, first recognized the *de-facto* Government by saluting the forts under Peixoto's control. Then came the visit from the rebel admiral. It would have been an undoubted discourtesy not to return it. Mello was no pirate. He was an insurgent, and an insurgent of standing. Back of him was practically the entire navy, and two or three of the richest and most progressive States in the country. We suppose Admiral Stanton had no idea that he would be practically recognizing Mello's rights as a belligerent by saluting him. There is room for doubt whether such was, in effect, the consequence of his action. But there appears to be no room for doubt that he exceeded his instructions. He was in a delicate position. He should have managed to be "not at home" when the rebel admiral's card was sent up.

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The last Legislature of Michigan passed a law which attempted to confer upon

women the right to vote in municipal elections. It was questioned at the time whether the Legislature possessed the power, under the State Constitution, to make so radical a change in the suffrage, and these doubts have been justified by an appeal to the judiciary. The Supreme Court rendered a decision last week declaring the law unconstitutional and void, on the ground that the Constitution of Michigan does not extend the franchise to women, and that the Legislature cannot confer the right by a statute, an amendment of the Constitution being the only lawful way to accomplish the result. Constitutional amendments providing for woman suffrage are, in fact, now pending in two Western States—Colorado and Kansas; and the vote on the question in the former State will be taken at this month's election. The Michigan law became practically a Republican party measure during its passage through the Legislature, the Democrats opposing it and predicting that the Supreme Court would annul it for unconstitutionality. Now that this prediction has been verified, the Detroit *Tribune*, the leading Republican organ, declares that "woman suffrage in Michigan, either equal or limited, is placed beyond the pale of political possibility for a generation at least." The *Tribune* considers it practically impossible to secure an extension of the franchise to women by means of a constitutional amendment—except "at the end of a long agitation, resulting in a very considerable change of sentiment among both men and women." Women still retain the right to vote at school elections in Michigan, but any further extension of the suffrage to the sex is, in the *Tribune's* opinion, far in the future.

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As one more instance of the way the American manufacturer has to be protected against his foreign competitors, the *American Stationer* cites a statement made by Mr. Johann Faber of Nuremberg in regard to the difficulties which he is encountering in his European trade through the underselling of American lead-pencil manufacturers. He said that England was "flooded with cheap American pencils" to such an extent that his product had no chance of a sale. American cedar pencils are sold in England at from sixty-six to sixty-eight cents a gross—a price which the Germans cannot touch. This only shows how flagrantly Herr Faber has been deceived. If he had looked into the American tariff laws, in which the duties are never higher than are absolutely needed to withstand foreign competition, he would have seen that the rate on lead pencils is 50 cents a gross and 30 per cent. ad valorem additional. This amounts to about 130 per cent. of indispensable protection, and hence it is clear that the Germans can undersell the Americans by fully that margin. Yet it is just possible that the profound German mind is on the track of that great beauty of protection which consists in reserving the blessings of dear goods and high prices for its own people, and which ruthlessly degrades the foreigner by selling him the same goods at a ruinously low figure.

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Mr. Asquith, who is unquestionably the coming man on the Liberal side in England, has been making a speech at Glasgow which has attracted a more than usual amount of attention, because it contains what may be considered the Liberal programme. He positively promised the passage at the present session of Parliament of the parish-councils and employees' liability bills, and then proceeded to discuss the defeat of the home-rule bill by the House of Lords, declaring that there "was no greater fallacy than to imagine that the House of Lords affords any effective safeguard against rash and revolutionary legislation." He illustrated this proposition by the promptness with which the Lords passed two of the most revolutionary measures ever introduced into the House of Commons, one the repeal of the corn laws, the other the extension of the suffrage in 1867—which Lord Derby called "a leap in the dark." Both these measures were introduced by ministers pledged to resist them, but the Lords passed them without hesitation, so that Mr. Asquith says they never resist rash legislation unless it is introduced by Liberals. Ridiculing the notion that the Lords have the people of England at their back, he calls attention to the fact, for fact it is, that the conversion of the large Tory majority of 1886 into the Liberal majority of 1892, on the home-rule question, came almost exclusively from England. In Ireland the Liberals lost two seats; in Scotland they gained four or five, but the majority by which the home-rule bill was finally passed came from a change of opinion in England only. He claimed that in discussing the details of the home-rule bill for eighty-two days, the House of Commons conceded the principle, and "that the whole difficulty between us arises in a manipulation of comparatively small points of legislative details." He concluded with the declaration that if, as Mr. Goschen advised, they were "to drop home rule," the Liberals "would be guilty of a gross dereliction of duty and dishonorable violation of pledge." But he did not say when the bill would be introduced again.

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The fighting at Melilla is peculiarly well fitted to fire the Spanish heart. Besides being in line with the traditional glory of smiting the followers of Mohammed, it revives the memory of O'Donnell's successful campaign in Morocco in 1859-'60—an expedition which has served for food for Spanish boasting ever since. In addition is the certainty that a military triumph can be won in the end at a comparatively small outlay of treasure and blood, and that Spain may again appear, at slight cost to herself, to be cutting a considerable figure in European-African politics. Further must be reckoned in the solid military qualities which the recent desperate fighting seems to prove to be still inherent in the Spanish character, recalling the proud days of Charles the Fifth and the heroic period of the Napoleonic invasion, when the Spanish irregulars won an unequalled fame for valor and tenacity. There can be no doubt that the Spanish ministry will find the country, impoverished though it is, responding cheerfully to the call for men and money needed to secure and possibly to extend Spanish possessions in the north of Africa.

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A recent prosecution for lese-majesty in Würtemberg had some peculiar features. A delegation of peasants, from a region suffering terribly from drought, visited the capital to lay their distress before the King, choosing as their spokesman the village doctor, named Hartmann. King William refused to receive them, whereupon Dr. Hartmann published an account of the affair in a popular newspaper, adding that the King's ministers were at fault for having advised his Majesty not to listen to "unpleasant truths from the mouths of his subjects," and that they were "sleeping upon a volcano." This was too much for a monarch brought up in Berlin, under the high and mighty idea of the divine right of sovereigns now prevalent in that capital, and accordingly the daring doctor and the equally audacious editor who let him into print were promptly hauled up for lese-majesty. To say that the King's subjects had "unpleasant truths" for the royal ear was a clear implication that the King had been doing something wrong—an absurd and impious supposition on its face. To talk about anybody sleeping on a volcano in a country blessed by so mild and beneficent a monarch was clearly incendiary and a direct insult to the good King, who, if he had his way, would have all his dear subjects sleep on (or under) nothing more dangerous than a German feather bed. Such, at least, were the contentions of the King's counsellors, but they were unhappily made short work of by the courts, which decided that the right of free speech and discussion had not been exceeded by either doctor or editor. Thus the effort of the King to strut at Stuttgart as the Emperor does at Berlin only served to show how thoroughly the divine-right props are knocked from under modern thrones.

### *EXIT SILVER.*

THE prolonged contest over silver has ended—as was inevitable if the majority of the Senate should stand firm and spurn every compromise—in the unconditional repeal of the purchasing clause of the Sherman act. Unfortunately this will not be the last of silver in American politics, but the future controversies over it will be with reference to the disposition of the stock on hand. There will be no more contests over free coinage or over new purchases. Silver will be no longer a persecuted sister, but an inconvenient ghost. From time to time we shall look at our enormous store of the white metal, and wonder how we ever became so bereft of reason as to buy it. How France, and Germany, and Austria came to have more of it than they want is easily understood. Their holdings descended from former generations. Their silver coins were really the "dollars of the fathers." Ours are our own dollars. Our fathers had no such dollars. They got rid of theirs in 1834. When the monetary revolution of 1870-76 was going on in the commercial world, why did we go backward? Why did we seek to stem the tide and put ourselves in opposition to a wholesome reform?

To answer this question we must go back to the legal-tender act of 1862. This act has been the parent of all the bad monetary legislation that the country has suffered from in the past thirty years. It planted in the public mind the idea that the Government could make money. It eradicated to a large extent the true conception that the Government's stamp on a coin is merely a certificate of its weight and fineness. The greenback, apparently, gave the lie to all such antiquated notions. Did not the greenback pay debts as well as gold? Did it not answer all the purposes of gold, except the single one of paying debts abroad? Was it not an advantage to have a kind of money that could not be exported? These and a great progeny of half-truths and quarter-truths secured extensive lodgment in the minds of the people, so that when the war was ended a demand for more greenbacks became ominous. "Don't you want to have plenty of money?" asked the demagogues of the day. Plenty of money signifies ease, luxury, freedom from care, and everything that this world can afford. Next to the hope of heaven, and sometimes far transcending it, is the desire for plenty of money.

To those who took the opposite view was assigned the task of proving that an addition to the paper currency would not add anything to the quantities of bread and meat, clothes, shoes, coal, lumber, and other commodities. The battle continued till 1874-5 with varying fortunes. Then President Grant vetoed the inflation bill and the people sustained the veto. This was the first knock-down for sound money, and here the battle would have ended but for an unexpected and calamitous circumstance, the like of which had never been seen in the world's history. The price of silver as compared with gold fell 11½ per cent. in the space of three years. During the previous two hundred years it had fallen only 7 per cent. Here was material for a new campaign of inflation and for a fresh appeal to the "debtor class." When it was discovered that the silver dollar had been legislated out of existence in 1873 (having been out of existence *de facto* nearly forty years), the discovery added fuel to the flames. The charge of fraud, of bribery and underhand legislation, was brought against the Congress of 1873 even by men who had been members of it and had voted for the act in question. There has hardly been such a disgraceful and unfounded libel in American history. In spite of repeated proofs that it was a false and calumnious charge, it has survived and has found men shameless enough to repeat it in the national Capitol within two months.

The arguments which were used to beat down greenback inflation would not serve the purpose as against silver, because that was a metal produced by labor in limited quantities, although rather larger than before. The fact that it was larger added zest to the campaign. "The larger the better," said the silverites, "the more the merrier." With these catchwords they carried the day and have held their supremacy in national politics for fifteen years. The "gold-bugs" told them that a panic would come whenever the public should apprehend that the pile of silver in the Government vaults could not be kept at par with gold, but this was so long in coming that most people thought it never would come.

It came a few months ago. The clock struck on the day when it was rumored from Washington that the Secretary of the Treasury would not use the $100,000,000 gold reserve to redeem Treasury notes, but only the old greenbacks for which it was first accumulated. This meant that there would soon be two kinds of money in the country, one at par with gold and the other not so. Although this story was quickly contradicted by the President's authority, it found lodgment in the public fears, because it was something which had been long though vaguely apprehended. People began to clutch at their money. The panic so long foretold had come at last, and from that moment silver was doomed. It is doubtful if a vote in either branch of Congress has been changed by arguments. The victory is due to the overwhelming compulsion of facts, the pitiless stringency of the money market. The people have learned at last that it is confidence which makes money plenty, and the lack of it which makes money scarce. They have learned, too, that gold and confidence go hand in hand the world over. Why it is so, it is needless to inquire. If gold is universally acceptable and silver is not, that fact is sufficient unto itself. To argue against it, to fight against it, is as idle as to combat the public preference for straight noses over crooked ones.

Greenback inflation made the war more costly to the Government by $800,000,000 than it would otherwise have been. This is the computation of first-rate authorities in finance. The silver craze, which is the second chapter of greenback inflation, has loaded us with $600,000,000 of unavailable assets, and has virtually added that amount to the national obligations, not counting cost of coining and guarding the stuff. The next problem in national finance will be to devise a banking system which shall gradually supersede all the Government paper afloat and give us a currency responsive to the wants of trade. When silver takes its final exit, this task will not be difficult. All classes will be alike interested in it. Prejudices against banks will disappear. These prejudices were an outgrowth of the inflation craze. Bankers, as a rule, understanding these questions better than the community at large, were opposed to all the unsound schemes. Their influence was thrown against greenback inflation back in the seventies, and against its lawful progeny, silver. Hence they acquired the hate of greenbackers and silverites and the persecution of Congressmen. But this too shall pass away.

### *SOUTHERN LYNCHING.*

THE editor of the *Forum* has obtained from Chief-Justice Bleckley of Georgia a very strong condemnation of lynching from the jurist's standpoint, and he adds to it a discussion of the matter from what he conceives to be the negro's standpoint. But there is one matter which all the Southern writers on this subject neglect, and that is the frequency of the offence which for the most part brings about the lynching of negroes. This is a capital point, because, if the thing were extremely frequent, it might be pleaded that the ordinary police arrangements of the communities in which it occurred were insufficient to deal with it. Bishop Haygood and Dr. Hoss gave us to understand, in a vague way, that the offence was very common, but refrained from saying how they knew it was very common. Neither of them made the slightest attempt at figures, or cited any better authority than vague rumors, circulated doubtless by horror-stricken women, or by the mobs who do the lynching and have to provide some justification of their conduct when they get home.

Our own belief is, that the offence is very rare. A few cases here and there over the vast area of the South doubtless occur in the course of the year—

probably about as many as occur at the North, and the imagination of the whites does the rest. Every one likes to add something to the tale of horror, as it increases his importance. The man who knows of five cases of negro outrage on white women is of course, for the time being, a "bigger man" than the man who has heard of only one, and thus the ghastly list grows till it reaches the editor of some newspaper, who multiplies it by ten. What is needed at the South is some process of official investigation and enumeration. Reports of negro violence ought to be hunted down and analyzed and the result published. The negroes themselves ought to have enough influence to bring this about. We suspect the count would make a great many people ashamed of themselves—including the editors of religious newspapers who claim for mobs the privilege of "emotional insanity."

The other agency which, added to the vagueness about figures, does most to keep this negro lynching going at the South is touched on lightly—too lightly—by the editor of the *Forum* himself, and that is the feeling that any sort of violence is justifiable if perpetrated on behalf of or in defence of women, "our women," or Woman with a capital W. One of the sure marks of the old Southern antebellum bully, and of the swashbuckler of the eighteenth century in every country, was his perpetual alarm about the honor of his women. His uneasiness on this point was always his most striking characteristic, and made his near neighborhood, when he had women under his care, something from which the quietest and most pure-minded male might well shrink. His readiness to fight with his equals about his women naturally begot a readiness to avenge all wrongs on them, *manu militari*. It is not very long since a South Carolina colonel "called out" and shot dead a lawyer of the same State for impugning his wife's veracity as a witness in a trial about a will. The curious feature of this case was, that the lawyer felt himself obliged by public opinion to accept the challenge, although he knew the colonel never missed his mark.

This supersensitiveness about women probably plays a larger part in the lynching troubles than most Southern moralists are willing to acknowledge. It is one of the marks, however, of a state of civilization which has passed away in other communities, and must pass away in the South. The notion that women, for instance, can "dishonor" other people by their conduct is uncivilized, and is fast dying out. That every human being is the guardian of his own honor is the larger and wiser doctrine under which all civilized states are learning to live. The notion that women cannot, like men, live under the law and trust to the law for their safety, honor, and welfare is another relic of barbarism of which the South must rid itself. There are cases, of course, where the strong hand of the man has to interfere for the protection of female weakness, but they are not more numerous than the cases in which the big strong man has to help the small and puny man against the insolent bully. Women are everywhere taking their place under the law as physically weak men, and the law has to take care of them as such, and popular manners are adapting themselves to the change. Women themselves are the last to ask for the services of roving mobs for their protection against any form of outrage. The courts and police suffice, and must suffice, for the purpose. The women of the North, or of England and France, dispense with the services of lynching parties by means of extra care in their goings and comings, with the certainty that the law will overtake all wrongdoers. For what can be more demoralizing to sheriff or police than the belief that mobs will do their work?

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### *THE SUPPRESSION OF IMMORAL LITERATURE.*

An international congress against immoral literature—probably the first of its kind—was held at Lausanne, September 12 to 14. The eighty delegates present were united and emphatic upon the extent of the evil they had met to combat, but gave no signs of supernatural wisdom in the practical remedies they were able to suggest. In fact, the only thing they really decided to do was to do nothing—unless the agreement to establish an international "bureau of vigilance" may be regarded as better than nothing. Propositions were indeed made of every conceivable kind and degree of impracticability. One excited delegate was for having the authors of immoral books seized bodily and made to erase their offensive writings with their own tongues, after the ancient method of dealing with heretics. A Belgian member of the congress solemnly proposed that editors of reputable newspapers should agree to "exclude from their association" any fellow-editor who disgraced it; overlooking the fact that it is the non-reputable editors who are in a position to do the excluding, and that it would be just like the rascals, even if in a minority, not to go nor give up their rascality when ordered to do so by resolution. There was a great deal of talk, too, about the need of a strict enforcement of the laws against obscene books and periodicals, and about supplying good literature to supplant the bad, but nothing came of it all except the chance afforded the speakers to free their minds.

Nevertheless, the Lausanne Congress served a useful purpose in bringing into strong relief the fundamental difficulties in the way of suppressing immoral literature. The first is the impossibility of defining accurately what is immoral literature. There is, of course, a general agreement about the flagrant forms of obscene literature, which carry their grossness and their evil purpose on their face. Every civilized country has stringent laws against commerce in that kind of provocation to vice, and it everywhere has to be carried on clandestinely, if at all. But as soon as we try to extend our definition so as to make it cover the subtler forms of prurient literature, we break down. When the evil is disguised, and resides in the covert suggestion or the latent intention, it cannot be reached except by legislation which may be used against the harmless as well as the pernicious. The sort of danger we are exposed to, when thus on the border-land between the unmistakably indecent and the dubiously immoral, was shown in the Lausanne Congress by one delegate—it is needless to say he was from England—who told of his labors for the suppression of an illustrated edition of Rabelais and of another immoral French book, 'Paul and Virginia'!

The truth is, it is utterly impossible to reach this form of evil by any law, municipal, national, or international. To execute a law which would be effective against the elusive forms of immoral literature without being an instrument of tyranny, would require, in the authorities set for its interpretation and enforcement, a critical and æsthetic faculty and a moral sense such as the world has never yet seen in officialdom, or out of it, for that matter. Such a law would necessarily vest a great amount of discretion in the executive officer, which is only another way of saying that it would allow the executive officer to give his own subjective view of what was immoral the force of a statute. We should straightway have a burning of books more disastrous than Omar's, and should speedily be reduced to a literary diet which might be guaranteed to be moral, but which would be mightily like sawdust and water. Moreover, even supposing a law could be devised delicate enough to reach existing fashions of unwholesome allusion and inflammatory suggestion, a new dialect of immorality would be at once invented to take the place of the old one, and so the work would have to be done all over again. Even to the Lausanne delegates it was obvious that this would never do.

They were nearer on the track when they dwelt upon the need of driving out bad books with good. The example of the "Société Franklin" of France was held up for imitation, with its earnest attempts to get good literature into circulation. But a great deal of solemn truth on this subject was condensed in the remarks of the head rabbi of Geneva, who was a member of the congress. He reminded his hearers that good books were not made to order. It is not enough to say, "Go to, let us have a library of unexceptionable books to put into the hands of the rising genera-

tion." First get your books, and then, what is still harder, get your readers. "The good book," said this Nathan the Wise, "is too often the stupid book"; and he might have added that to force a young person to abandon an interesting book which may be dangerous, for a safe book which is infinitely tedious, is only to escape one kind of immorality by falling into another. It is a truth, which many excellent people fail to perceive, that what really gives some objectionable books their hold is their wit and grace and literary charm, and not at all the regrettable features which hide everything else to certain eyes. Nothing could be more deadly than to confound moral literature with the prosy preaching of morals.

The sum of the whole matter appears to be that there is no way of getting rid of all forms of immoral literature. This temptation will always remain in the world, as far as we can see, to beset unformed characters, and must be met, like all the other constant temptations of life, by bracing the individual to withstand it. Healthy sentiment and pure taste in the reading public will be surer death to corrupting books than all the laws which the wit of man can devise.

## THE COPYRIGHT CONFERENCE IN BARCELONA.

BARCELONA, October 7, 1893.

THE Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale boasts an illustrious founder, Victor Hugo, who presided at the conference of organization held in Paris in 1878, in connection with the Universal Exposition. Since that time there have been yearly reunions in different cities in the following order: London, Lisbon, Vienna, Rome, Amsterdam, Brussels, Antwerp, Geneva, Madrid, Venice, Paris for the second time, in 1889, in connection with the Société des Gens de Lettres, upon the occasion of the Exposition of that year; London again in 1890, Neuchâtel, and Milan. In addition to these fifteen regular sessions, there have been two extraordinary sessions held in Berne, in September, 1883, and October, 1889.

As appears from the above list, two conferences had already been held in the Iberian peninsula, and why Spain should have been selected for this year's meeting is not apparent. It could hardly have been for the sake of the propagation of the ideas of the association, for Spanish literary-property legislation is already in some respects—notably as regards the length of the term of copyright protection—in advance of that of other European countries. Moreover, the city chosen offers few special attractions. It is not at all typically Spanish, even the old part having been so much invaded by modern constructions as to retain its characteristics only in secluded corners. With an aspect distinctly that of a flourishing commercial town, it belongs to what has been called the "Mediterranean type," lacking, however, the picturesqueness of Genoa. A certain beauty, even magnificence, the city possesses, with its lively and attractive boulevard of the Rambla, and still more beautiful Paseo de Colón, with its double row of fine palm trees and abundance of shrubs and flowers. The new town, which has been built within twenty-five years, makes a good impression because of its broad and tree-lined avenues. This part of Barcelona possesses one characteristic peculiar to itself. The streets all cross at right angles, and at every crossing the corners of the blocks have been sliced off so that each crossing becomes a small square. The effect of this is fine, but the excessive regularity of the solidly built-up streets, lined with six-storied apartment-houses, is monotonous. Aside from the fine cathedral, the Casa Consistorial, and old Palacio de la Disputación y Audiencia, there is little to attract the sightseer. The University building is modern and not particularly interesting.

A characteristic local note was the frequent remindings that the visitors were welcomed, not to Spain, but to Cataluña, and that they were among Catalans. But the hospitality extended, whether Spanish or Catalan, was lavish. The reception and entertainment of the members of the Congress was intrusted to the "Associación de Publicistas" (Press Association), and most liberally were these duties construed. The guests were serenaded on their arrival and departure, and during their stay were supplied with free passes for all the tramway lines and suburban trains, as well as with tickets to the theatres, and cards of admission to the literary clubs. Five public dinners were tendered, one involving an all-day excursion to the country-seat of an opulent Catalan at the hillside village of Vallvidrera, where were enjoyed extensive and beautiful views, with the Mediterranean upon one side and Montserrat upon the other. There were public sessions of inauguration and closure, and, for the evenings, club receptions and specially arranged theatrical performances—among the latter an evening devoted to original Catalan plays. The result was that although the Conference extended from Saturday to Saturday (September 23 to 30), inclusive, there remained time for only nine working sessions, insufficient for the work planned.

On Saturday afternoon, September 23, an informal meeting was held in one of the rooms of the University Library, for the purpose of introducing the members of the Conference to one another, and of laying before them the printed reports of committees, and announcing the programme for the working sessions. On Sunday morning the troops were reviewed from the balcony of the University, and it was just at the conclusion of this parade that there occurred the one event which threw a shadow upon the sunny days of the Barcelona Conference—the throwing of the bombs under the horse of Gen. Martinez Campos. Fortunately the general escaped with such slight concussions that he could participate in the public reception three hours later. In the afternoon the official inauguration took place in the Paraninfo—the richly decorated audience hall of the University. The exercises began more than an hour after the appointed time, an example of Spanish punctuality. It was characteristically Spanish, also, to account for the rather slender audience, notwithstanding the great number of tickets of invitation distributed, by the explanation that the hour of the meeting was such that attendance would interfere with the usual Sunday's *corrida de toros*. The mayor of Barcelona delivered, in Spanish, an address of welcome, which was afterwards distributed to the audience in a French translation. He was followed by other Spanish dignitaries, and responded to by members of the association, who, for the most part, spoke in French, but two Germans won hearty applause by speaking in good Spanish.

On Monday morning began the working sessions, also held in the Paraninfo, between the hours of 9 and 12 A. M. and 2 and 5 P. M. The attendance was at no time large, and the business of the sessions proceeded with an apparent briskness, due in part to the quick movements and rapid speech of the French delegates. But a certain amount of informality reigned, and there was no limitation either of the frequency of speech or the length of the remarks, while interruptions were common, and occasionally four or five persons would be speaking and gesticulating at the same time. Besides the president of the association, M. Eugène Pouillet, the author of a learned work on literary property, the persons in attendance whose active participation must be considered of the highest importance to the progress of copyright were M. Henri Morel of Berne, Switzerland, director of the Bureau of the International Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Property; M. Desjardins, delegate from the Ministry of Public Instruction of France; M. Chaumat, delegate from the French Ministry of Justice; Sig. Augusto Ferrari of Milan, representing various Italian literary associations; M. Jules Lermina, the perpetual secretary of the association, and Don Adolfo Calzado, a member of the Cortés of Spain. In a second group might be placed the younger men showing an active interest in copyright legislation, chiefly lawyers, rising literary men, or publishers, such as MM. Georges Harmand, Albert Vaunois, Ernest Eisenmann, Armand Ocampo, Lucien Layus, Georges Maillard, and Victor Souchon of Paris, and Dr. Albert Osterrieth of Heidelberg: while a third division would include the remaining members, for the most part literary men or artists whose greater or less interest in the proceedings of the congress is primarily due to their vocations—prominent among these being Dr. Max Nordau, the dramatist Grenet Dancourt, the brilliant young novelist Marcel Provost, M. Jules Oppert, the artist J. Davrigny, and Dr. Gustav Diercks of Berlin.

It is noticeable that while the association has skirted Germany, it has abstained from entering upon the territory of that empire, and this fact, together with some other evidence, leads to the conviction that, despite the word international in its title, the organization is still dominatingly French. At the Barcelona Conference the members bearing German names were found to be chiefly German literati living in Paris; and while there were representatives present from Belgium, Germany, Italy, and, of course, Spain, I fancied I detected in this non-French contingent a note of opposition. Great Britain sent no representative, and there was no one from the United States except your correspondent, who, while a member of the Authors' Copyright League, was present solely in his private capacity. In view of the object of the association, as declared in its constitution, "to defend and propagate the principle of international literary and artistic property," and in consideration of its primary practical purpose, viz., the unification of the legislation of the world regarding copyright, it is much to be desired that it should assume a truly international character.

The programme embraced the following subjects for discussion: (1) Translations; (2) contracts between authors and publishers; (3) the registration of copyrights at Stationers' Hall, London; (4) literary property in the South American States; (5) on the term of copyright; (6) on property in architectural designs; and (7) on the desirability of establishing at Berne a general registration of all works

upon which copyright is claimed in any of the countries of the International Copyright Union. In addition, there was to be an Essay on Catalan Literature, by Don Salvador Poggio of Barcelona.

The rector of the University, Don Julián Casaña, opened the first session with a brief address of welcome, and the secretary of the association followed, reporting on copyright movements in general during the year which had passed since the last conference. The president then read a report, by L. Lyon-Caen of Paris, on the right of translation, which was taken up with much interest, and the sense of the meeting was expressed by a resolution in favor of giving to authors control over the translation of their works for a minimum period of twenty years. The second topic was introduced by Don Antonio Torrents y Monner of Barcelona, who read a carefully prepared paper on contracts for publication, which elicited favorable comment. In the afternoon session the subject was continued by the consideration of M. Pouillet's printed report on a "Projet de contrat d'édition," and by a conscientious discussion, paragraph by paragraph, of the accompanying draft for a general code of law to govern the relations between authors and publishers in cases where no special contract existed between them.

The twenty-seven articles of this bill occupied the two sessions of Tuesday as well, but this considerable allotment of time was not disproportionate when the practical importance of the matter under discussion is considered. It may be said to be just now the burning question in relation to literary property, and is being agitated in France, Germany, Italy, Denmark, and Sweden, with a view to securing desirable legislation. M. Pouillet points out, in his interesting report, how especially necessary on behalf of the young writer—the author who approaches a publisher with his first book—is the existence of some law which shall secure his rights, in the far too common case of his having surrendered his literary production for publication without any definite contract with his publisher. But the difficulties in the way of evolving an international code of law governing literary and artistic publication are very great. The practices which have grown up in the different countries with regard to publication are so dissimilar that it would seem almost impossible to formulate a law of general application. It seems manifest, also, that the successful elaboration of such a project would require the sympathetic coöperation of an association or committee of publishers, and this last cannot be said to have been fully secured at the Barcelona Conference.

The discussion in Wednesday morning's session turned on the interesting question of what should be the period of copyright protection, a lengthy report being submitted by the novelist Armand Ocampo, entitled: "Rapport sur un projet d'unification de la durée du droit de propriété attaché aux œuvres de l'esprit." The report concluded with a series of votes, of which the following are the most important: (1.) That the duration of the protection in the case of intellectual production should be uniform in all countries; (2) that this term, if it must be limited, should be a fixed period of one hundred years from the date of the first publication of the work; and (3) that in the near future this provisionary term should be extended to perpetuity. These resolutions gave rise to a lively debate, several members defending the author's right to a perpetual property in his production, and others objecting to the term proposed as retrogressive, on the ground that it might prove a shorter period than the possible term under the present law of Spain, which secures the intellectual property for eighty years beyond the life of the author, which last might easily exceed a period of twenty years after the publication of his book.

The next subject taken up was of as much interest from the bibliographical point of view as from the side of copyright protection. This was M. Jules Lermina's scheme for a general registration of all literary, artistical, theatrical, and musical literature published in the countries within the International Copyright Union. It was proposed to charge the bureau of the Union at Berne, Switzerland, with the establishment of a registry of titles and names of authors, and with the statistical tabulation of intellectual production, and also to authorize the bureau to furnish on demand certificates of original publication which should be considered proof in the law courts. There seemed to be unanimity of mind as to the desirability of such a central bibliographical bureau, but considerable divergence of opinion as to the practical measures for securing it. M. Lermina's interesting report closed with a resolution to the effect that it is desirable that the States of the Copyright Union should impose on all their authors or publishers the obligatory deposit of one copy of every work published, this condition, however, to rest independent of a recognition of the author's property in his book. One of the professors of the University of Barcelona, Don Odón de Buen y del Cos, read with excellent effect a paper in Spanish, pointing out what might be called the natural order of deposit of copies in relation to literary property. As a record of the literature of the author's place of nativity one copy should go to the public library of his province, a second be sent to the capital of the State to register the national literature, and a third deposited at Berne to mark the growth of the literature of the world.

The time set aside for working sessions proved too short to do justice to several interesting subjects upon the programme. Papers relating to topics such as property in portraits, concerning which a report had been prepared by Albert Vaunois, Lucien Layus, and Jean Lobel; property in architectural designs, with a report by Georges Harmond; and recent copyright movements in South America, with a report by Alcide Darras and Ernest Eisenmann, entitled "Du mouvement législatif en matière de droits intellectuels chez les peuples de langue espagnole ou portugaise," could only be laid before the Congress with scarcely any discussion. The matter of registration in England was not brought up at all, and two exceptionally interesting contributions had to be passed over in silence, one by Dr. Max Nordau on property in the titles of literary works ("De la propriété des titres au point de vue des œuvres littéraires"), and the other containing the draft of a proposed new copyright law for Germany, by Dr. Albert Osterrieth, which embodied some original ideas well worthy of consideration.

It would be well if the Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale could shortly hold a conference in the United States. It would afford an opportunity for correcting existing wrong impressions in the minds of foreign authors as to the actual law and practice under our present copyright statutes. On the other hand, the moral effect of the presence of a representative body of foreign authors seriously discussing copyright from the advanced standpoint of European thought on that subject would certainly be excellent, and would help to create fresh interest in the matter, and thus hasten the time for attempting such a revision of our copyright laws as would bring them more nearly into accord with the legislation of other civilized countries for the protection of intellectual productions. T. S.

## THE TOURIST IN NORWAY.

FAGERLUND, September, 1893.

SOMEBODY has called Norway a "Switzerland by the sea," but, aside from the fundamental characteristics it must necessarily have in common with Switzerland as a mountainous country, nothing more different can be imagined. It is the charm of Norway that it is unlike anything else, that it has a character as distinctively Norwegian as Switzerland's is Swiss. It is utterly impossible to see it vicariously by visiting some other part of Europe. You may get its elements elsewhere, its lakes, and rivers, and waterfalls, its forests and fields, its barren rocks and its snow-covered mountains; it is their combination here that is new and makes Norway a thing apart. The fjords of the western coast are the part of Norway most frequently visited and described. They are easily accessible by steamer from England or Scotland, and in the great majority of cases they and the North Cape form the objective and only point of a Norwegian tour. Not only people who have never been there, but many who have, believe that this is all there is. Americans and Englishmen in plenty, after such a coasting voyage and an occasional short drive inland to enable them to get across to the head of another fjord to resume their trip by water, come away with the idea of having "done" Norway, when they have, in reality, seen but its outermost edge.

The proper way to see the country is to leave the steamer say at Molde or Naes, post down (by *cariole*, *stolkjaerre*, or *vogn*) through the glorious scenery of the Romsdal and the Gudbrandsdal, and take the steamboat on Lake Mjösen, the largest lake in Norway, and the railway into Christiania, and then go back again, first by rail, then by the little steamboat that pushes its way through the floating logs on the long and narrow Lake Spirillen, and by carriage, as before, through the lovely scenery of Valdres to Laerdal on the Sognefjord. The traveller in this way sees Norway in all its phases—its desolate and its fertile parts, its vegetation and its natural resources; and he will come away with some knowledge, at least, of the manners and customs of the people. If, fortunately, he hits upon a season when there is not too much rain, he will inevitably be fascinated by the country, no matter where he may have been before.

To the traveller accustomed to other European scenery Norway will possibly, at the outset, be deficient in one particular charm. There are very few old buildings in any part of it, and very few places that have for any but a Norwegian an historic interest. For those who care about that sort of thing it lacks, in short, on all sides, the picturesqueness of association. So far as I know, there are but two ruins in all Norway—the four arches of the old Hamar Cathedral and the meagre remains of a Cistercian monastery on the Hovedö, near Christiania, both of which date from the twelfth century. There are stone churches at Christiania and Bergen; parts, at least, of the Cathedral at Throndhjem are ancient, and several wooden churches in various parts of the country are quite as old; but these complete the list. This

result is, no doubt, partly owing to the fact that the principal building material has always been wood. While some few of the buildings, like the churches just mentioned, which were exceptionally built at the beginning and have been carefully kept at all times, have lasted down to the present day, the great majority have necessarily perished. Almost all of the Norwegian towns, besides, have been swept by fire again and again. The larger ones are now being gradually more substantially built of bricks and stucco, but the buildings of the farms and in the smaller villages are still almost wholly constructed of squared logs, which are then, in the better houses, covered with clapboards. They are guileless here, as yet, of the lath-and-plaster walls of an American frame house, although the exteriors are often astonishingly familiar.

There are in Norway, particularly in the country, many resemblances to America that strike the traveller. In various parts of rural Norway, but particularly in the south, it is not an uncommon thing to see white farmhouses with red barns and outbuildings, which at a distance look the very counterpart of those in America. The resemblance is, of course, only superficial, and is quickly dispelled by a nearer view, which discloses the multifarious buildings that are characteristic of a Norwegian farmstead in their peculiar grouping about the spacious court. In remote parts of the country the more ancient farm buildings, dingy with age, are often curiously carved, particularly on the door-posts and lintels. This is especially true of the *stabur*, a sort of glorified corncrib, which, for some reason or other, all over Norway, is the one building of the farm which has best preserved an antique appearance.

The farms themselves and farming methods have but little resemblance to ours. There are very few large holdings, and it is curious to note the divisions and subdivisions of land indicated by the lettered posts by the wayside. Much of the tilled land has been fairly wrested from natural conditions by an energy which it seems might have been elsewhere better applied. The bastions along the roadside, ten or twelve feet wide at the top, made of all sorts of stones picked off the land and piled up to get rid of them, are evidence in point. Little strips of field high up on a mountain side, so inaccessible that the scanty crop of hay must be sent down on wires, are frequent enough, and, on the upland meadows which are too steep for a wagon, it is the common custom to get the hay in on sledges that are often drawn by man-power. Farming under such circumstances is necessarily done by primitive methods, and there is little modern machinery even where it might be used. In many places, girls and women may be seen cutting oats and barley with a sickle, not seldom in comparatively large fields.

Some of the farming methods are peculiar. One of the first things to attract the attention in agricultural Norway is the long, upright frames on which the grass is dried; these make a hayfield look like a parade-ground, with the troops drawn up in irreproachable line. The plantations of gnarled birch trees, whose tender boughs with the leaves on are cut off and dried in late summer for winter fodder for the sheep, are a new element in the landscape. Peculiar, too, at least to the extent that prevails in Norway, is the summer *saeter* life. Regularly with the coming of St. John's Day, the 24th of June, the live-stock of the farms, the cows, sheep, goats, and swine, are driven off to the mountain pastures, where they are kept until early September, while the home fields are mown for their hay. Up at the *saeter* the girls who attend the cattle live in a very primitive fashion, often in a house with a single room which is dairy and living-room combined. The butter and cheese produced are not infrequently brought down on their backs, and the few necessaries of life are carried up in the same way. The grass of these mountain pastures, especially on the sunny slope of a valley, is short but astonishingly abundant, and the cattle thrive. Norway without the life of the *saeter* would lose some of its most characteristic charms of sight and sound. Every one who has been through the Norwegian mountains will call to mind the plaintive sounds of the cattle-horn echoing down through the woods from some high pasture, and the minor notes of the cattle-call: *Kuss! kuss! kuss! kom hjem!*

One other resemblance to rural America that impresses itself upon the traveller from these shores is the way in which the farmsteads are scattered about the country, and the comparative absence of villages. Norway, as a whole, is very sparsely inhabited, partly owing to the nature of the country itself, and partly to the drift of the population to America. Long stretches are uninhabited, and the roads wind for miles without interruption through dense forests of tall, yellow-trunked pines, and spruces that have their equal for luxuriance of growth nowhere else in the world. There is a strange absence of animal life in these regions. A squirrel occasionally runs across the road, but there are few birds and no songsters. Norway in this respect is strangely silent. There were skylarks in the meadows in July, but they soon disappeared, and the only birds commonly left, besides the sparrows and the familiar little wagtails, were the ash-gray crows and the magpies, who seemed to have entered upon an alliance and were often seen to fly and feed together.

In spite of the sparseness of population and the comparative poverty of the country, the roads of Norway are scarcely surpassed by those of any other part of Europe. Of late years vast sums have been expended in this direction with superb result. Yearly, new districts are taken in hand, and the old roads are either straightened and levelled, or, in many cases, abandoned outright. It is an admirable country for bicycling; and wheelmen and wheelwomen, also, are met everywhere. Norway in most respects is not behind the rest of the world. There are few railways, to be sure, but such a recent appliance as the telephone is used all over the country to an extent that is absolutely unknown in America, and charges for it and the telegraph are astonishingly cheap. In most respects, although a peasant population is naturally conservative, ideas of all kinds penetrate rapidly through Norway, and this we may largely ascribe to an abundant and wide-awake journalism. In the present political conditions there is, in this way, a peculiarly active exchange of opinion throughout the land, which, under a calm exterior, is really undergoing a period of storm and stress whose intensity is utterly unsuspected unless one purposely looks for it.

At the time of my coming to Norway, all eyes were fixed upon the Storthing in Christiania, and the pending consular question was, for the time being, to the Norsemen, the most vital matter in the world. Outside of the newspapers, the two political parties kept their temper admirably. There were, almost as a matter of course, journalistic recriminations of the old familiar sort, and charges and countercharges which nobody believed. A Conservative did say once in my hearing that he wished that Ullmann, the Radical president of the Storthing, might be providentially and suddenly removed, but I have heard Englishmen speak much more disrespectfully of Gladstone. The popular attitude towards Sweden was less constrained and was often freely expressed. The feeling against Sweden is sometimes very bitter, and the Swedes themselves not seldom by their own actions help on a sentiment that, to say the least, is unfortunate. As far back as 1814, one of the Swedish commissioners then in Norway engaged in negotiations looking towards the election of Charles XIII. as King of Norway wrote to Bernadotte of *l'irritation enfantine de cette nation*, and I heard a Swede use the very term who was probably utterly unaware of any historical precedent. The Norwegians—that is, some Norwegians—in much the same way speak sneeringly of the "great Swedes." The feeling has actually grown among certain classes of the people into a traditional attitude of hatred on the one side and of contempt on the other. The most violent partisan that I saw in Norway was a little man who afterwards turned out to be a commercial traveller. I met him on the boat on Lake Mjösen, where he had a deck passage. He informed me that if he had a son he would show him the way to the Swedish frontier, with a rifle on his shoulder, and tell him to shoot five Swedes. Five, he explained when I questioned him, he thought would be one man's share. Such acrimony, however, is not frequent. After the dissolution of the Storthing the agitation and excitement soon calmed down, and the situation resembled the usual state of midsummer politics elsewhere. The members of the Storthing, with a view, doubtless, to a possible reëlection, addressed their admiring constituents in the schoolhouses throughout the country. Up at the large and fashionable sanitorium in the Gausdal, a little later on, an ex-cabinet minister and the leader of the Right might have been seen playing the game of bowls they call *boccia*, while a Swedish admiral looked approvingly on. At that very time, lower down the valley, at Björnson's estate, Olestad, a new element had come into the life of the nation—little Manfred Ibsen, the grandson of the two poets Björnson and Ibsen, whose voice, if he inherits the characteristics of both grandfathers, will by and by be loud in the land.

The time for a visit to Norway is early in the summer season, say, from the middle of June to the end of August. By the first of September the tourist tide has turned and many of the conveniences of travel disappear. The season is short at the best, for winter comes early and lingers late. What it is like when it fairly sets in, the immense wooden snowploughs, tilted up by the roadside at short distances all over Norway, unmistakably tell.

W. H. C.

## THÉOPHILE GAUTIER.

PARIS, October 12, 1893.

DURING the last years of the Second Empire, I hardly ever went to the opera without seeing Théophile Gautier in the place which he had chosen and which he invariably occupied—a stall in the middle of the first line of stalls that fill the inclined part of the pit, which rises towards the boxes of the first tier. There he was, in the centre of the immense hall, looking like a good old lion, half asleep, with his long, flowing, manelike hair. He never came for anything except the ballet; he looked through

his half-shut eyes on the evolutions of the ballet as if he were in a dream. There was nothing coarse in his admiration of the human forms which were moving before him and which looked to him almost unreal: he was old and careworn; the ballet was to him a sort of ideal recreation. He never ceased to be the poet of *form*, of "l'art pour l'art." Théophile Gautier was in truth a poet, though he was not a poet of the highest order; he materialized ideas and feelings more than he idealized matter. He was an artist in words, and he liked to play with them with a consummate skill. He never expressed any deep emotions, any sublime sentiments; the moral world seems to have been to him a *terra incognita*. He remained to the end what he had been in the days of his youth, full of a certain sort of animal admiration for the splendors of the world, and ignorant of its spiritual meaning.

He was born at Tarbes on the 31st of August, 1811. As he once said of himself: "Though I have spent my whole life in Paris, I have kept a meridional substratum." It was true. Born at the foot of the Pyrenees, of a family which came from Avignon (then subject to the Pope), he was a sort of foreigner in France. He was educated in Paris, in one of the great barracks of the University. When he left it, he tried first to become a painter, and entered the atelier of Rioult, near the Collège Charlemagne; but he soon abandoned art for literature. It was the time when Victor Hugo was proclaiming war against the Classic school. Gautier was one of the noisy and enthusiastic lieutenants of the great Romantic poet; he entered into notoriety at the first representation of "Hernani." Gérard de Nerval recruited young men in the Latin Quarter as *claqueurs* at this first representation; he gave six tickets to Théophile Gautier. For this occasion Gautier ordered a flaming red waistcoat. "One day," writes Maxime Du Camp, "I said to Theo [he was so called by his friends], 'You were famous very young.' 'Yes,' answered Theo, with the air of indifference which gave so much character to his pleasantries—'yes, very young; it was on account of my waistcoat.'"

This first representation of "Hernani" was the battle of Austerlitz for Victor Hugo; it was truly a battle. The young Romantics of the parterre, headed by Gautier and by Gérard de Nerval, actually almost came to blows with the Classics. When *Hernani* exclaims to *Ruy Gomez*, who has given *Doña Sol* as a hostage to the young *Don Carlos*:

"Vieillard stupide! il l'aime,"

somebody in the parterre, instead of "vieillard stupide," heard, or affected to hear, "vieil as de pique"! A great tumult arose, and the representation was nearly interrupted. To the end of his life, Théophile Gautier liked to give all the details of this representation: how with his friends he had to wait for eight hours in the darkened theatre. He continued ever faithful to his youthful admiration; he always looked on Victor Hugo with deep reverence; and when, under the Second Empire, he became a writer on the official paper of the Empire, he had the courage to speak admiringly of the author of the 'Châtiments,' though he had nothing to live upon but his salary.

At the age of nineteen he left the atelier and published his first volume—a small one—under the title of 'Poems.' Alas! it appeared on the 28th of July, 1830, the first day of the Revolution. He entered the "Cénacle," the club of the Romantic school, and, like the other members of this literary club, he wore long flowing hair and a beard (which was then contrary to fashion), a long pointed hat, and overcoat with broad facings and slender waists; this was the Romantic costume. In the novel 'Les Jeune-France,' which he wrote at the age of twenty-two, the new school is described, with its contempt for old things, old forms, old sentiments. "Remember this," says, for instance, a Young-France (we say now *fin de siècle* for a similar state of mind), "and put it in your judgment-box: 'One woman is as good as another, if she be only as pretty.'" These young men spoke of burning the Institute, of hanging for an example the last of the Classic poets. These young enthusiasts of the Cénacle are now well forgotten; only one made a name for himself—it was Gautier. The others spoke much and wrote little, and, as Rivarol says: "It is a terrible advantage to have done nothing, but you must not abuse it."

In one sense Gautier always bore the mark of the Cénacle: he was always—and it was one of the two causes of his failure in life—a Bohemian. Mürger has painted, in his 'Vie de Bohême,' the life of the young men who, filled half with animal spirits, half with the spirit of independence, made their lives a sort of perpetual carnival. Some of the Bohemians of 1830 had the sense to understand early that they were not in harmony with the general laws of a tyrannical society; many became ministers, ambassadors; like Balzac's Rastignac, they forgot their own part. Gautier, owing to his lazy nature, his real want of ambition, never tried to emerge from the ranks of the artistic and literary Bohemia; he never consented to wear the uniform of the world and to bear its tedium. He found at last, to his own detriment, that he had to undertake many duties without having any of the advantages which generally accompany duties. He became a slave to those duties, which, to do him justice, he never tried to shirk; he condemned himself to dull work entirely unworthy of him; he gave accounts of the most stupid vaudevilles and operettas in his theatrical *feuilletons;* he described very indifferent pictures in his Salons, and consoled himself only by recommencing, in his own colored style, the work of the painters, and showing that there was more life in his pen than there was in their brush.

I said that there were two things which became constant stumbling-blocks in his way: one was the remnant of the Bohemian which persisted in him from the days of the Cénacle and of "Hernani," the other was his novel, 'Mademoiselle de Maupin,' which can only be called pornographic. Our time has become very lenient, and the author of 'Nana' has just made a sort of triumphal visit to England: Zola may some day force the door of the French Academy. Gautier never could do so. Mlle. de Maupin, half man, half woman, a mysterious creature that united the vices of the two sexes, always stood between him and the Academy. I found some difficulty in reading this much admired and much abused novel, and I must confess that I found it simply dull. I much prefer Gautier in his travelling notes, such as 'Tras los Montes,' which he wrote in Spain; and, after all, there is much truth in the axiom of the new school of painting, "Paint what you see." Gautier saw Spain; he never saw Mlle. de Maupin, and it is to be hoped that such a creature never existed. Far be it from me to reduce the artist to a thorough realism; but reality must be the foundation of all works of art. The poet says nothing to us if the sentiments he paints are not real. This brings me back to what I said at the beginning: Gautier was a poet, and it is a great pity that his poverty forced him to become a penny-a-liner. He showed his poetical faculties especially in a small collection of poems, called 'Émaux et Camées.' Some of these small poems are really jewels, and so impress themselves on the mind as never to be forgotten. They have a precision, a distinctness, a richness of color, which is really remarkable.

In 1836 Théophile Gautier entered on the staff of *La Presse*. "There," he says, "finished my happy and independent life." He became a slave of the *feuilleton*. He had already published 'Albertus' (1832), 'Les Jeune-France' (1833), the first part of the 'Grotesques' (1834), 'Mademoiselle de Maupin' (1835), and innumerable articles, of which the details may be found in a bibliographic work by Vicomte Spoelberch de Lovenjoul, a Belgian devotee of Théophile Gautier. When the *Journal Officiel* took the place of the *Moniteur Universel*, Gautier accepted the position of theatrical and art critic, and held it for thirty-six years. As an art critic he remained loyal to the ideas of the Romantic school; he treated Delaroche with the greatest severity. In 1833 he began for the *France Littéraire* a series of articles called "Les Grotesques." They were a sort of exhumation of such writers as Scarron, Scudéry, Cyrano de Bergerac, Villon, etc. Théophile Gautier never sold his pen; his eulogies were ever absolutely disinterested. He was not satisfied with the small salary paid him by Alexandre de Girardin, the millionaire editor of *La Presse*, and he sometimes thought of resigning. But he often said to Maxime Du Camp: "I have nothing else to live upon, and others have to live by my aid." Towards 1862 or 1863, Maxime Du Camp met Girardin at a watering-place. One evening they were sitting by each other, and Du Camp reproached Girardin for the harshness he had shown to Gautier in various circumstances.

"He looked at me," says Du Camp, "with his familiar impertinence. 'Gautier,' said he, 'is an imbecile who does not understand journalism. I placed a fortune in his hands; his *feuilleton* ought to have brought him thirty or forty thousand francs a year—he never got a sou out of it. There is not a theatrical manager who would not have paid him a salary on condition that he would be his mouthpiece. Since he has left the *Presse*, he is on the official paper of the Empire; he makes nothing out of it. I repeat, he is an imbecile who never could improve an opportunity.'"

We find in a letter written by Gautier to one of his sisters (December 17, 1858): "My sole regret is not to be richer and to give so little to you. . . . You know into what disgust at men and things I have fallen; I live only for those I love. . . . I wrote a *feuilleton* the day our mother died, and it helped me to pay for her burial." Gautier lived long enough to see the fall of the Empire, the invasion of France, and the Commune; he died at the age of sixty-one years, October 23, 1872.

# Correspondence.

## AMERICAN PRINTING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I should be sorry to let any blame rest upon the shoulders of others which really ought to rest on mine. The faults, if they are faults, of orthography, punctuation, and capitalization which you have noticed in my little book on the United States are entirely mine.

All three things are really in a very fluid state. The weakness of my hand, which obliges me to dictate, and a pair of old eyes have perhaps something to answer for.

I am able to compare the work of the American house of the Messrs. Cushing, who printed this book for Messrs. Macmillan, with that of the University Press at Oxford, of which I was one of the Delegates, and which is supposed to have arrived at perfection. I really do not see any inferiority on the side of the Messrs. Cushing.

Yours faithfully,

GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, October 30, 1893.

## ADMISSION TO SOUTHERN COLLEGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of October 19 your correspondent from New Orleans on "Entrance Examinations in Southern Colleges" suggests two or three interesting questions:

(1.) To what extent does the "tendency" "in the direction of the curriculum" in Southern colleges prevail? It would be certainly a valuable contribution to our working knowledge on that line if we could have a more detailed statement of the comparative movements in this direction of a larger number of Southern colleges, provided a more complete examination shows the movement to be as universal as your correspondent believes to be the case. In the University of North Carolina, for example—the oldest Southern college except William and Mary—no such tendency is manifest; but the trend has been rather towards such an elective system as is found in the majority of the best Northern institutions. In the A.B. course, for instance, the elective studies begin in the second year; and during the third and fourth years they increase, respectively, to nearly half, and considerably more than half, the total number of hours of work required.

(2.) Is it because of the lack of good secondary schools, or for what reason, that Virgil is required so rarely for admission to Southern colleges? Only seven of the twenty cases cited by your correspondent show any requirement at all in Virgil; and none but the University of North Carolina appears from the tabulated statement to have reached the usual Northern standard of six books of the Æneid. A similar question might be propounded concerning Homer.

(3.) What stands in the way of the organization of a *Southern Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools* on a similar plan to that well-known association whose annual meeting has just closed at Yale University? Various beginnings point not only to the usefulness of such an association, but to its possibility in the immediate future. Your New Orleans correspondent mentions a meeting of delegates from South Carolina colleges. An association of North Carolina colleges has existed for two years. Moreover, experience, in this State at least, shows that the better academies and city public schools are eager to know and to reach the standard of admission set by the colleges. No one thing would raise so rapidly the grade of Southern preparatory schools as a steady and united insistence by Southern colleges on a more nearly uniform standard of admission. Nor is there any other one thing that would go so far to prevent so large a proportion of college students leaving college after one or two years. As it is now, men often find themselves deceived as to their relative advancement when they enter, and are unable in the long run to keep up with their classes.

Yours respectfully,

KARL P. HARRINGTON.

CHAPEL HILL, N. C., October 23, 1893.

## COLUMBIAN EXPECTORATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Happening to pass through the French section of one of the great buildings at Chicago, I saw a disconsolate exhibitor raising his hands in attitude of prayer towards a beautiful case in which were displayed a number of exquisitely artistic articles. I had the rudeness to interrupt his devotions: "Vous priez, monsieur?" He received my impertinence with imperturbable good nature, and replied in tragic accents: "Yes, sir, I am praying to the good God to send me back to France, away from these barbarians who are driving me crazy here in *Shicago! On crache partout!*" he added.

It was pathetically true. The great national vice of spitting was never more repulsively exhibited than at our splendid Exposition. Placards mildly requested visitors not to spit from the elevator-landing in the Liberal Arts Building, but to remember the human insects crawling below! In the Kansas Building you were similarly urged not to insult the life-like effigies of coyote and moose; but, in spite of it all, there was often a rain of saliva from above and a fringe of tobacco stains in the sacred enclosure. Everywhere men were spitting. I saw women indulging in the same vulgar vice. But it was not only Americans born: Germans and Turks, Russians and Samoans, Irishmen and Zulus, with equal effrontery, left their traces on corridor and rug, on sidewalk and car.

It was disgusting. But then there is room for optimism: only a little more than a hundred years ago Dr. Samuel Johnson, just returned from Paris, said: "The French are an indelicate people; they will spit upon any place." And when Boswell asked him: "Is not modesty natural?" Johnson replied: "I cannot say, Sir, as we find no people quite in a state of nature; but I think the more they are taught, the more modest they are. The French are a gross, ill-bred, untaught people; *a lady there will spit on the floor and rub it with her foot.*" (Boswell's 'Johnson,' Hill's edition, ii., 462; iii., 400). The French would therefore seem within a century to have learned manners. Is there not hope that Americans also will some time, though not in our generation, grow ashamed of such barbarism and make it a penal offence to spit? I know of one Harvard graduate who has his epitaph already composed in both Latin and English: "Here lies one who never spat upon the sidewalk."

I am, etc., N. H. D.

BOSTON, October 27, 1893.

# Notes.

HENRY HOLT & Co. have nearly ready 'Novel Notes,' by Jerome K. Jerome; 'Days of Lamb and Coleridge,' by Alice E. Lord; and a translation of Karpeles's 'Heine,' by Arthur Dexter.

A sumptuous edition, in English, of Victor Hugo's 'Ruy Blas,' illustrated with etchings after paintings by Adrien Moreau, and limited to 500 copies, is announced by Estes & Lauriat, Boston.

The new *édition de luxe* of the Standard Book of Common Prayer, of which we have already given an account, will soon be off the press of Theo. L. DeVinne & Co.

Macmillan & Co. promise shortly a volume on 'Irish Life and Character,' by W. R. Le Fanu, late Commissioner of Public Works in Ireland, and brother of the late J. Sheridan Le Fanu, the well-known novelist.

Brentano's has in preparation five more volumes of the "Petite Library" of biography of great musicians and poets. Wagner, Weber, Handel, Haydn, and Mendelssohn are to be the subjects of these lives.

Pending the publication of the official Proceedings of the Parliament of Religions at the Columbian Exposition, the market is to be forestalled by "enterprise." We already have "a condensed report" of the speeches and papers under the title, 'The Religions of the World,' put out by the Latin Historical Society of Chicago; and now a "Narrative of the Grandest Achievement and of the Most Important Event in Modern Religious History" is to be given to the world by F. Tennyson Neely, Chicago, under the title, 'The Parliament of Religions.' The writer is Prof. W. R. Houghton.

A Scotch professor of moral philosophy, who puts into the preface of his volume on 'Aspects of Theism' (Macmillan) a confession of great indebtedness to Matthew Arnold, Spencer, Huxley, and Tyndall, and who takes up the various formal "proofs" of the existence of God with the frank warning to start with that they are philosophically "unsatisfactory," invites attention to himself as a novelty, if nothing more. These lectures by Prof. William Knight of the University of St. Andrews are, in fact, remarkable throughout for their candor and freedom from dogmatism in a field too often ravaged by it. The author's note may be gathered from these words in his final chapter: "Theistic evidence comes and goes; it is not, and cannot be, constant in any of its manifestations. There are not only many minds to which it does not appeal in any mood; there are also many subjective states in which even the most convinced theist has no realization of it." Darwin's parallel sentiment will occur to every reader.

The procession of reprints is endless. At the head of the section now in view on our table we may properly name the series already familiar to our readers—through Macmillan, the 'Pirate' in the Messrs. Black's Dryburgh edition of Waverley, and Fielding's 'Amelia' (three volumes) and Anne Brontë's 'Tenant of Wildfell Hall' (two volumes) in Dent's admirable productions. Next in importance is the new Riverside edition of Thoreau's Works, the first uniform and the only complete, to embrace ten volumes (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Some unprinted matter will be introduced, we are told, and the letters are not included in the scheme, being "reserved for separate and extended publication." Beginning is made with 'A Week on the Concord and Merrimack Rivers' and with 'Walden,' the foundations of this writer's fame. The former volume has for frontispiece a copy of Rowse's crayon portrait of Thoreau (1854), with its Emersonian suggestiveness. These books are, we need not say, handsomely printed. In this particular, and in the binding, they conform to the much-prized editions of Lowell, Emerson, Hawthorne, Whittier, and Longfellow proceeding from the same press and firm. Each is complete in itself and is properly indexed. As little as in the case of the foregoing need we speak of the contents of Carlyle's 'French Revolution' and Blackmore's 'Lorna Doone' which bear the

imprint of T. Y. Crowell & Co. They are, both, cheaply made and illustrated, and there is a fine assurance in mingling with the portraits in the Carlyle a loose latter-day fancy sketch and dubbing it "A Favorite of Louis XV." Charles Scribner's Sons have revived the Memoirs of Mme. Junot, in four volumes, well printed and sparsely illustrated with portraits. They fit in well with the present renewal of interest in and publications about Napoleon and his era; but, like the two-volume edition of the Messrs. Appleton in 1880, they lack the distinction of an index, which, in the case of memoirs particularly, would be an all-sufficient excuse for a new edition. This reproach cannot be laid at the door of the new impression of the 'Conversations of Lord Byron with the Countess of Blessington,' which forms an octavo volume of liberal typography, interspersed with several good if familiar steel portraits. Finally, we will mention with praise the neat two-volume edition of Frederika Bremer's 'The Home; or, Life in Sweden,' from the Knickerbocker Press of G. P. Putnam's Sons. It will be seen from this summary how much attractiveness for the present generation our publishers (in the temporary default of literary creativeness) discern in works that delighted their fathers and grandfathers.

By way of postscript we may as well mention here the handful of "Literary Gems" from the press just named, in continuation of a series begun in past seasons. The little pocket volumes in question contain Ruskin's 'Ideas of Truth,' De Quincey's essay on 'Conversation,' Matthew Arnold's 'Study of Poetry,' D. G. Rossetti's sonnet sequence, 'The House of Life'; Keats's 'Eve of St. Agnes,' and sonnets; and Goldsmith's 'She Stoops to Conquer.' Each of these booklets, except the last, has a portrait of the author.

Mrs. Van Rensselaer's more than clever 'Handbook of English Cathedrals' (The Century Co.) is a reprint of the articles from the *Century Magazine* which were before reprinted in the handsome volume called 'English Cathedrals,' duly noticed by us. The only changes are apparently changes of detail. Some slips and errors are corrected, some paragraphs recast. Mr. Pennell's captivating drawings are thinned out, and those that remain, though sufficient for illustration, have lost much in clearness and brilliancy by the loss of the cut-paper and careful printing that set them off before. The book naturally suggests comparison, in fact, invites it, with King's larger 'Handbook.' It is much the more interesting, more shapely, and better adapted for general use, though it is also much less full and less valuable to students. It would be worth while to complete it by a second volume including the other dozen of the cathedrals of England, for it is probably the best thing of its kind—but its title is now a little misleading.

Mr. Denton J. Snider has taken upon himself the task of commenting on the "Literary Bibles" of the world, viz., Shakspere's dramas, 'Faust,' the 'Iliad,' the 'Odyssey,' and it remains to be seen what else. The present work, 'Dante's Inferno' (Chicago: Sigma Publishing Co.) is written in a somewhat exuberant style, not unlike that of a popular preacher, and is addressed to the masses, not to scholars. The comment is subjective in the extreme. Minds and tastes differ, and we can scarcely imagine those who know the great poem best finding in it quite what Mr. Snider reads there. It is impossible, however, to treat with disrespect such an earnest attempt to regard the 'Divine Comedy' as poetry, not as mere philology or history.

'The Repudiation of State Debts' is the title of a study in the financial history of twelve of our States by William A. Scott of the University of Wisconsin (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). The history of twelve States is considered, and if the irredeemable currencies of the colonies were reckoned, the number might be swelled. In some cases what was called repudiation amounted to nothing more than refusal to acknowledge fraudulent claims, and in others to rejection of claims without legal validity, although possessing merit in equity. The particulars of all the acts of repudiation are stated with clearness by Mr. Scott, and though his discussion of the causes of and remedies for repudiation is not very profound, his work has a value in its collection of facts concerning some interesting and instructive episodes in State finance.

Admirers of the father of Mrs. Edith Emerson Forbes will be pleased to see the ancestral leaven producing a 'Children's Year-Book: Selections for Every Day in the Year' (Boston: Roberts Bros.). It is intended to affect children of from seven to fifteen years of age, by forming a "habit of reading each day at least a few sentences from the Bible, or some religious book," and so "cultivating the spirit of *reverence* which is usually found in young children, and can only be retained by cherishing; and the lack of it," Mrs. Forbes truly adds, "is the saddest characteristic of the young people of this generation." Like other similar collections, it is recommended for bedside reading perhaps before the volume is given into the child's hand to read for himself. Where it was easy, one observes an obvious fitness in the extracts, *e. g.*, in those for New Year's, February 22, April 19, July 4, December 22 and 25. Altogether, any parent, without regard to systematic use, should be glad to have this repertory of wholesome and elevating prose and verse at hand.

Mlle. Delphine Duval's 'Petite Histoire de la littérature française depuis les origines jusqu'à nos jours' (D. C. Heath & Co.) is practically Petit de Julleville's 'Leçons de littérature française,' interlarded with extracts from or paraphrases of criticisms by Nisard, Brunetière, Lemaître, and Demogeot. Whole paragraphs are taken from Petit de Julleville, to such an extent that, were they excised and the contributions of the other authors named also removed, the book would be reduced to not much more than the table of contents, the signature of the scissors-and-paste-brush professor, and the claim to copyright. It is true that Mlle. Duval acknowledges that she has "gleaned" and has "not hesitated in copying the text itself" when, strange as it may seem, it expressed her ideas better than she could have done it, and that she has "consulted" some authors named, and "borrowed largely from Petit de Julleville." Still, when one compiles, one should not sign the work as one's own. If a college student handed in a theme "written" in a similar manner, what would be his or her lot, even at Mlle. Duval's hands?

Jean Moréas, the Symbolist poet, has brought out a new edition of 'Le Pèlerin passioné' (Paris: Vanier), into which he has introduced a number of new poems not different, in their inspiration and form, from those which he has withdrawn, and which are with others to form a separate volume. Moréas is not, perhaps, as difficult of comprehension as most of the singers of his circle, but he is not invariably clear, and while one cannot fail to perceive that he has genuine poetic feeling, the language in which he too frequently disguises his thought proves a stumbling-block to the uninitiated reader. Happily, among the pieces under the caption "Enone au clair visage," there are several easily apprehended and enjoyed, while the final invocation has a ring in its verse that reminds one somewhat of the splendid sonorousness of Heredia.

Albert Soubies's 'Le Théâtre en France de 1871 à 1892' (Paris: Flammarion) is not only one of those dainty little volumes justly prized by bibliophiles, but one which contains, together with a great mass of authentic information, some sound reflections on the past development and future prospects of the drama in France. It will prove useful in many ways to those who study the history of the drama from a purely literary standpoint; to those who desire to be thoroughly informed of the nature and number of dramatic productions for twenty years past, it is indispensable.

That bone of contention to critics, the Independent Theatre, was to begin its season last week (October 27) with "A Question of Memory," a modern prose play in four acts by "Michael Field." The same author's "William Rufus" had been announced for the first performance, without scenic accessories, but the difficulties in the way of producing it apparently daunted even the energies of Mr. Grein. Another author with whom Mr. Grein proposed to make the London public acquainted is the Belgian Maeterlinck, whose "Princesse Maleine" he last spring announced his intention of giving by marionettes. Whether this plan prove feasible or not, Mr. Grein has an ardent supporter of his admiration for Maeterlinck in the art critic William Sharp, who, in the September number of the *Nineteenth Century*, gave an able study of the new literary movement in Belgium, including an appreciative estimate of that most weird, gruesome, and unique production of Maeterlinck, "Les Aveugles." Other up-to-date plays promised by Mr. Grein are "The Death of Count Godfrey," a one-act piece of Messrs. Walter Besant and W. H. Pollock, Ibsen's "Wild Duck," Zola's "Heirs of M. Rabourdin," translated by Mr. A. Teixeira de Mattos, and a translation by Justin Huntly McCarthy of Strindberg's three-act tragedy, "The Father"—this last to be read at an "at home."

In *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for August there is a detailed description of the changes of the coast of southwestern Schleswig during the past six centuries, with three maps showing the conditions in 1240, 1643, and at the present time. There is also an unusually clear account of the semi-independent States on the southern slope of the Hindu-Kush mountains and their geographical relations to the Pamirs. It is accompanied by an admirable map showing the principal roads and passes. Dr. G. Schweinfurth contributes a review of Maj. R. H. Brown's recently published work, 'The Fayûm and Lake Moeris,' which he regards as offering a nearly final solution of one of the most difficult problems of ancient geography. The principal article of the September number is an account of the methods employed in several European stations for automatically recording the earthquake waves over the earth's surface, together with a list of 193 observations made since 1889. Much too brief notice is taken of the heroic attempt of Miss Taylor of the China Inland Mission to reach Lhasa. She was turned back when only three marches distant by the assurance that her life would be the forfeit if she should enter the sacred city. There is also an abstract of the meagre information which the authorities of

the Congo Free State have permitted to be published about their mysterious expedition to the Equatorial Province, sent out in February, 1891. Little is yet known except that the expedition reached Wadelai on the Nile, and that the leader, Vankerckhoven, had been killed. A supplemental number contains "New Contributions to the Geology and Geography of Japan," by Dr. E. Naumann.

The Yale Psychological Laboratory signalizes the close of its first year by issuing No. 1 of 'Studies' therefrom, edited by Edward W. Scripture, Ph.D., instructor in Experimental Psychology. The two papers possessing a popular interest are "Experiments on the Musical Sensitiveness of School-Children," by J. A. Gilbert, and "Drawing a Straight Line: A Study in Experimental Didactics," by E. W. Scripture and C. S. Lyman. There are several cuts of new apparatus.

A correspondent writes that in the colonial MS. records of a Massachusetts town he has encountered the following sentence: "Paid for Doing ye Meeting hous and for a Suppolidge . . . £4." And he desires to ascertain the nature of the service or thing described by the closing word.

"G. A. R." writes from Washington:

"The suggestion of a correspondent that the medical examination of pension applicants be made by army and navy surgeons, leads to the further suggestion that the administration of the pension laws be placed in the War Department. The pension roll would then become, what everybody professes it should be, a roll of honor; honorable to the country and the pensioner."

—We instinctively associate with the *Atlantic* the "literary" essay of not quite the newest and most fashionable cut. It is not, however, the characteristic critical articles, or even the original verse and fiction, that redeem the November number from dulness, but two short and very businesslike essays on current affairs, which strike freshly the minds, and perhaps touch the imaginations, of all readers save those who are unusually well informed. The first is an expansion and justification of the dictum of the president of the ophthalmological section of the British Medical Association, that a man who goes about with his eyes unspectacled will ultimately be so rare in civilized lands as to cause beholders to blush. Nature, it seems, has not dealt so kindly with us after all. She has not only left us the useless and dangerous legacy of tonsils and vermiform appendices, but she regularly misfits us with eyes, and provides that age and use make the calamity more grievous. The wise child, therefore, whatever he may do in regard to his other troublesome bequests, consults at an early age the expert, who studies the interior structure of each eye by means of the ophthalmoscopic mirror, calculates the degree of refraction he finds there, and sets Nature right before she can do any really serious damage, by prescribing glasses of an appropriate character. The general use of spectacles thus becomes a test of the degree of civilization to which a nation has attained. Not less suggestive to the imagination than this spectacled future of our land is the knowledge of the fact —and the significance of the fact—that the Legislature of North Dakota has passed a bill establishing courts of conciliation, before which all civil suits must come before being brought to trial. The system is well established in Norway, where it is found that nine-tenths of such suits are amicably settled without going further. A scheme more simply patriarchal and kindly can scarcely be imagined, nor one that if generally adopted might have a greater influence over the devious paths of law and justice.

—The *Century* is full of interesting biographical material touching a whole galaxy of famous men of both past and present times. We have an account of George Michel, the French painter of romantic landscapes, never widely known at home or here; the rest of the contemptuous British diary concerning the voyage to St. Helena of the "once great" Napoleon; a light sketch of Bismarck at home among his dogs and canes and pipes; and a good narrative of the adventurous escape of Gen. Breckinridge from Florida to Cuba after the capture of Jefferson Davis. Most interesting, however, are the memories and letters of Booth which his friend Mr. Bispham begins to collect in this number, and the two pieces which Prof. Norton prints from the manuscripts left by Lowell. One consists of fragments from a college lecture of his (presumably introductory to his course at Harvard on Cervantes) on humor, wit, fun, and satire. Distinctions of the kind he makes are always subjective and somewhat too subtle for unquestioned acceptance, but here, as in all of Lowell's work, the charm lies not in the result of his thought, with which any one may disagree, but in the individuality of the suggestions which he conveys to the reader at almost every line. A talker, not a lecturer, he was always at his worst in wholly objective work, and at his best where a linked chain of thought is not indispensable. The other piece is nothing less than Emerson's poem in honor of Lowell's fortieth birthday, a "horoscope, half of memory, half of hope." The lines, with all their rhythmical defects, may rank with the writer's best; they contain a text of criticism that we can easily imagine Arnold's spinning into a whole sermon-essay. "Strength for the hour" was Lowell's horoscope as Emerson cast it in 1859, nor did the thirty years that came after find his strength inadequate for whatever his genius or his duty impelled him to perform.

—In *Harper's* for November Mr. Arthur Symons describes, after a somewhat conventional fashion, the French school of decadents, impressionists, symbolists, or whatever they please to call themselves. The first term seems to him most significant because "this representative literature of to-day is really," in contrast with classic literature, "a new and interesting and beautiful disease." All this we have now heard many times, with an implication that æsthetics and literary criticism must now make themselves anew in order to include a new order of data. A "school" like that which Mr. Symons gives the outlines of with such wonderment is picturesque, of course, but it is not new, not worth the inventing of a new critical vocabulary nor the admiration and imitation of a host of college boys. Mr. Symons goes on to put two of his contemporaries, Mr. Pater and Mr. Henley, inside the mystic ranks of the impressionists. The latter's verse is, however, in no need of a new recommendation; it is rather of an old fashion than a new, and any reader may adequately express his opinions of him without necessarily comparing him with queer painters, or falling into the lingo of decadent criticism. As to the impressionism of Mr. Pater, the reader may judge from his "Apollo in Picardy," which is luckily printed in the same number with Mr. Symons's essay, perhaps as a specimen of symbolism, certainly not as a proof that Mr. Pater never writes "a page that is not perfectly finished," with a minute elaboration that "can be compared only with goldsmiths' work."

—The current number of *Scribner's* contains a great variety of matter, from the picturesqueness of the World's Fair to that of the upper Burmese border, and from Madame Roland to Lincoln and the late Prof. Freeman. The most suggestive article treats of girls' education in France, and deserves careful reading at the hands of the thousand or more young women who have this fall entered our better colleges. In this country the whole trend of ambition is towards an education which fits women to take the world by the horns for themselves. The curriculum is thus usually modelled almost absolutely on the norm of the college for men. The Harvard Annex and Barnard College do not even diverge in the slightest from Harvard and Columbia in the amount and character of their prescribed and elective work and in their methods and means of instruction. At another large women's college the president informed a professor from outside, who had been engaged to deliver a course of lectures there, that he must expect success in his teaching in proportion as he avoided implying to his hearers that they were of a different sex from that of the audience he customarily addressed. Here, in short, we train girls, from their very entrance on college life, to depend on their own wits, to settle great and small matters by investigation and research, and to make themselves mentally independent. In France the whole spirit of women's education is different. She is to be a wife, a mother, a housekeeper, her husband's friend and assistant. She must be intelligent, judicious, and ready at conventional and practical knowledge. The whole training through which she is put, consequently, is essentially unlike that in vogue here. Just what is the real difference between the results obtained in the case of the rank and file of educated women, it would be interesting to hear from some one familiar with the intellectual life of both countries.

—In an address at the annual distribution of prizes at the Mason Science College, Birmingham, October 9, Prof. Jebb of Cambridge declared that classical studies were never more efficient, deeper, more comprehensive, or more in touch with the literary and artistic interests of the day than they are at present in England. He sketched rapidly the reaction against the Romanticism dominant in the early part of the century, saying that Grote's 'History of Greece' marked the commencement of a wider influence of the classics "by investing ancient Greece with a modern interest." The late Prof. Freeman's work in this direction he cordially recognized, and referred to Tennyson as that "powerful poetic mediator between the antique masters and the English speaking world." The numerous works which popularize without vulgarizing the classics, and the greater attractiveness with which the study has been invested, have also aided in enriching and enlarging the study of these standards of literature and models of art, this treasure-house of ideas "which have been fruitful in every field of human thought and life." Referring to the danger of a too great zeal for scientific precision arising from specializing the various departments of classical study, Prof. Jebb says that no study concerned with the creations of the human mind in language, in literature, or in art "can attain its highest aim unless the purely intellectual spirit of science is controlled by the literary and artistic sense, which is partly moral." Quoting

Bacon's opinion that the progress of knowledge had been retarded by a tendency to neglect the training of the mind in favor of professional studies, he summed up the claims of the classics, historical, literary, and linguistic, for forming, moulding, and instructing the mind. "Modern life, so complex, so restless, and so competitive, naturally tends to insist first upon instruction; but as no progress of science can enable men to think faster, a sound economy of educational time depends on the same principles as ever."

—Four volumes have now appeared of D. Marcelino Menéndez y Pelayo's 'Antología de Poetas Líricos Castellanos' (Madrid: Librería de la Viuda de Hernando y Ca., 1890-'93), and we are able to form some estimate of the value of the work. The first criticism that suggests itself is that the collection is far too *weitschweifig*, as the Germans say. As yet, only the last quarter of the fifteenth century has been reached, and one fears that before the poets of our own time have been disposed of, the Anthology will form a library in itself. The fact is, much has been admitted that is not properly lyric poetry at all (*e. g.*, most of the extracts from Gonzalo de Berceo, the 'Libro de Alexandre,' and the Canciller de Ayala in vol. i.; the 'Danza de la Muerte' in vol. ii.; the 'Regimiento de Príncipes' of Gómez Manrique in vol. iii.; two-thirds at least of the ninety pages given to Fray Ambrosio Montesino in vol. iv.). Then the editor's desire to include everything, however poor in itself, illustrative of the beginning or course of new literary movements makes him many times forget the inevitable sufferings of his readers. Besides the extracts, each volume has a *prólogo*, in which Señor Menéndez y Pelayo discusses the history of the poetry he is exemplifying. Here diffuseness has gone so far as to cause history and literature to part company at the end of the first volume. The prólogo of vol. iv. barely concludes the discussion of the period illustrated in vol. i. The reader wonders how the two parts of the work are to be brought again into conjunction. Perhaps by a volume by and by containing nothing but a prólogo. In spite of these defects, however, the Anthology is a useful book. The extracts give us in the main the best of a great mass of bad poetry, and the introductions outline competently, if not compactly, the history of that poetry. We are really very badly off for sound books upon Spanish literature. Ticknor is practically obsolete, at least for the mediæval period; and Amador de los Rios is inaccurate and untrustworthy. On the whole, no one in Spain knows better the results of the latest investigations on the subject, or is better able to give them to us in consecutive form, than Señor Menéndez y Pelayo. He is perhaps too fluent for our taste; but that is essentially a Spanish fault.

—We are impressed by this fact when we take up vol. iii. of the monumental edition of Lope de Vega, edited for the Spanish Academy by the same indefatigable scholar (Madrid: Sucesores de Rivadeneyra, 1893). Vol i. appeared in 1890, and contained a new biography of the poet by D. Cayetano Alberto de la Barrera. The *obras* proper began with vol. ii. (1892). The volumes are heavy but beautifully printed quartos, containing each over six hundred pages; and we are informed that forty-four or forty-five such will be required before all the pieces of the *monstruo de la naturaleza* are in type. This is appalling, yet will have its compensations for the student of the golden age of Spanish letters. Hitherto we have practically had to study Lope in the selections from his dramatic and non-dramatic works made respectively by Hartzenbusch and Rosell for Rivadeneyra's "Biblioteca de Autores Españoles." The materials there afforded (amounting in all to five large volumes) are undoubtedly extensive; but as one looks over the pieces already printed in the new edition, he is struck by the number of those not to be found in the volumes of the "Biblioteca," or, indeed, in many cases, anywhere else. The inedited works are thus far twenty-four, although it should be added that many of these are almost certainly not Lope's. It may be that this proportion of novelties will not appear in subsequent volumes, for the editor has given us as yet only the *autos* and *coloquios*, which, though peculiarly dear to their author's heart, had something essentially ephemeral about them and were less likely than the *comedias* proper to obtain the permanency of type. In no part of Lope's work, however, does what we may call the journalistic character of his genius better appear. In them we see him taking advantage of all kinds of occasions of religious festivity for the production of dramatic editorials in which the chief questions then interesting the public were poetically discussed. There was seldom much originality in his conclusions, but the free play of his fancy and occasionally a flash of pure imagination gave to what he said a certain appearance of splendid newness. This seems to us the only theory upon which we can account for the amazing rapidity with which his pieces followed each other. In conclusion, we may remark that the new edition seems carefully edited, and that a large amount of useful information is given in the *observaciones preliminares* which accompany each volume.

—'The Japanese Abroad' (*Sekai ni Okéru Nihon Jin*) is the title of a very interesting book published in Tokio, at the office of the *Keizai Zasshi* (the *Economist*). The author, Watanabé, gives a lively account of his countrymen who in earlier centuries travelled or won fame abroad. Making diligent use of Marco Polo and Hildreth's 'Japan as It Was and Is,' and supplementing his reading from Oriental sources, he has compiled a volume of striking interest. A Western student, in plodding through the history of a far Oriental nation, hails as an oasis any point of contact with the great stream of the world's life. So, too, the Japanese now desire to know where, when, and how any of their fellow-islanders have played their part in the world abroad. Watanabé tells of the voyages made around the Cape of Good Hope in the sixteenth century by the native Christian noblemen to Rome and Spain, and of their crossing the Pacific to Mexico. He gives biographical outlines of the most famous converts to Roman Christianity who lived in Europe. The voyages and adventures of his countrymen in the Philippines, China, Corea, Annam, and Siam are also related. The fortunes of the famous Yamada and his band, who for a time powerfully influenced Siamese history, are finely told. Reinforcing the text are several wood-cut illustrations of trade with the Europeans, receptions in Rome, maps, routes of voyages, and portraits. Probably the most suggestive pictures are those illustrating Japanese marine architecture in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. One, a high-sterned, castellated, and two-masted *funé*, vastly superior to a "junk," reminds one strongly of the caravels of Columbus. Another print, of a first-class war-ship with three masts, two decks, a broadside battery of sixteen cannon with two "bow-chasers," crow's-nests in the tops for match-lock sharp-shooters, with ample deck-room for fighting-men, and a notable spread of canvas, shows vividly the sea-power of the Japanese before Iyéyasu sealed up the country, leaving only an air-hole at Déshima. Thoroughly at home on the sea, and roving freely from India to Siberia, the Japanese were a terrible "neighbor-disturbing people," as the Chinese declared, as well as great traders. A study of their power on the sea—making all allowance for European aid and suggestion—explains largely the wonderful celerity and brilliancy of that Japanese conquest of Corea in 1592-93 which so thoroughly scared great China, and which China fears may be repeated. The book forms a worthy companion to Mr. Inagaki's work on 'Japan and The Pacific,' reviewed in these columns some months ago; the author of which, by the way, is now in mid-Asia studying "the Eastern question" from an inland point of view.

## THE NEW LEWIS AND CLARK.—II.

*History of the Expedition under the Command of Lewis and Clark*, etc., etc. Edited by Elliott Coues, late Captain, etc. In four volumes. New York: Francis P. Harper.

Our first transcontinental exploration was set on foot the very year that the great unknown it revealed had become United States territory. The interest thus roused was doubled by a widespread fear that the explorers, unheard of for more than a year, would never be heard of again. It was the real discovery of the Great West, and indeed of America to an extent beyond the accomplishment of any similar endeavor before or since. The enterprise was excellently executed and it was as excellently described. The captains had been ordered to keep journals, nor did they let any day pass without many a line, feeling that half a word fixed on the spot is worth a cartload of recollections. More than one of their subordinates did likewise. As soon as a note-book had been filled, it was soldered in a water-tight case. Thus twenty volumes or more of manuscript came back from the utmost corner of the West with not a line obscured. The first of them committed to the art preservative was the journal of Sergt. Patrick Gass, published at Pittsburgh in 1807, within a few months after Gass had reached his home in that neighborhood. This work was often reprinted here or abroad. It was used with other documents in getting up divers pretended official narratives which had a great run, but are justly stigmatized by Prof. Coues as apocryphas.

Regarding the note-books of the captains on which the text of Biddle was based, Dr. Coues appears to have fallen into a strange heresy. His creed is that they were not written at all during the progress of the exploration. He would trace these gospels back to a protevangelion that has perished. Such a doctrine covers with dim eclipse the halo which has so long gilded those venerable volumes, and might well call up the ghost of Jefferson. It is sufficiently refuted by Jefferson's own words, namely (Works vi., p. 595): "Capt. Lewis had journalized all occurrences day by day as he travelled, in morocco-bound pocket volumes, small octavos, opening at the end [the very volumes as to which Dr. Coues is sceptical]. Every one had been put into a separate tin case to prevent injury from wet." Jefferson adds that they were brought to him, etc. The narrative of

the captains detailing the daily progress of the expedition was to be prepared for the press by Capt. Lewis. The year after his death, which was in 1809, their field-notes were taken in hand by Nicholas Biddle, who early in 1811 had them ready for the publisher. But war was coming on, and business collapsed, so that it was 1814 before Mr. Biddle's volumes saw the light. They were reproduced in Dublin (1817) and London (1814), but, until the edition of Dr. Coues, have never been again given to the American public. The *editio princeps*, nominally 2,000 copies, had only about 1,400 that were not imperfect, and has been so long out of print that a copy cannot often be bought for fifty dollars. Its place has been taken by an abridgment in Harpers' Family Library which had long ago appeared in a score of editions.

Students in Western history—and more than others those dwelling beyond the Mississippi and on the Pacific Slope—have long been impatient for a reprint of the *editio princeps*, with an index, with maps connecting the expedition with the settlements that now border its route, with supplements to the text from the official manuscripts, as well as with notes elucidating matters historical, geographical, ethnological, zoölogical, and botanical. What they desiderated they now have, thanks to Dr. Coues, who, as the last editor of Lewis and Clark, is clearly the right man in the right place. Serving with the international commissions which marked our Northern boundary westward from the lakes to the ocean in 1873-'76, long a naturalist on far West United States surveys in subsequent years, with all his perplexities, historic and scientific, cleared up by fellow-specialists from governmental authorities in and out of Washington—above all with the eighteen codices, the autographs of the great captains, all the while in his hands—how could he have been better equipped at all points for his task? But his superlative fitness lies in this that his work has been throughout a labor of love. Whatever Jefferson foresaw, whatever his captains saw, he delights to honor them for, and views them as beyond others preparing for the course of empire to take its way westward. More than a thousand notes bespeak his tirelessness in making full proof of his opportunities. The long chapter on botany and zoölogy evinces how indispensable his labors were to reveal the manifold discoveries made in those departments, and do justice to the merits of the discoverers.

But critics, whatever the beams in their own eyes, will never cease to see spots on the sun. The volumes are well printed, and yet we meet with errors we should be glad to think typographical, though we cannot always. Wayne's victory of 1794 is set down as two years earlier (page c.). Had it been, how many an Ohio scalping would have been escaped! Land ceded *by* Indians is said to have been ceded to them (page xxxix.). We read: "The first newspaper in St. Louis, the *Missouri Gazette*, appeared July 12th, 1808," (page xl.); but an item is quoted from that paper early in 1807 (page 256). Again, this paper, on September 13, 1810, is said to have been conducted through twelve volumes (page xl.). The notes of Dr. Coues—above all, those derived from the manuscripts of the captains—are invaluable. His habit, however, of interlarding them with his own private opinions on irrelevant matters occasionally emphasizes the lack of information that would throw light on his main theme. Thus, Capt. Lewis's sources of knowledge when he entered his bateau are inadequately treated. We are told that he could not procure D'Anville's map, nor yet Vancouver's (page xxiv.), but what he did have we are not told. The correspondence of Lewis during his year of preparation must yield more light on his literary outfit than is vouchsafed us by his latest editor. The Arrowsmith which is referred to (page 357) we think was not, as Dr. Coues calls it, an "atlas," but the London "map of the northern regions of America." A trifle of further research would have made some things plain which puzzle Dr. Coues. The word *brace*, in the phrases "1 Brace Blue cloth" and "3 Brace of cloth," he says apparently does not mean a pair, but declares himself ignorant of its meaning, and asks what it can mean (page 241). Had he turned to Dr. Murray's thesaurus, he would have found at once what he desired—namely, "*Brace*, 2. A measure of length, orig. representing the length of the extended arms. The French *brasse* was about 64 inches," etc. We have to thank Dr. Coues for a winning likeness of Capt. Clark. Most readers will lament the lack of a letter-press description of his personal appearance. The following was sent to the writer in 1889 by Henry Shaw, founder of the St. Louis garden:

"Gen. Wm. Clark, in 1819, was a tall, military-looking man, as erect as the recently deceased Gen. Harney, of dignified and pleasing address, of light complexion, gray eyes, scant hair, and I think he wore a queue bound round with an eelskin, as was then the fashion with ancient men of St. Louis; on the whole, the same style of man as Washington—perhaps a trifle taller."

Mr. Biddle's narrative had been drawn up on a principle analogous to the British rule of military etiquette which forbids mentioning any private soldier by name. But in this regard Dr. Coues from the codices has largely reformed the text, and given a tenfold individuality to most members of the whole band. What is said, however, regarding the subsequent fortunes of the men who, in Dr. Coues's words, "accomplished an immortal purpose," forms a rather beggarly account. Aside from the memoirs of the captains and one sergeant, the notices of the interpreter and wife as alive till after 1832, and Shannon till 1836, of Gibson dying at St. Louis, of the slave York freed and telling stories in saloons there, of Drewyer again on the upper Missouri, and of Colter at La Charrette in 1811, are about all that Dr. Coues has gleaned from all sources. Admitting that Shannon had lost a leg, he adds, "but under circumstances unknown to me." Perhaps he had forgotten Clark's remark in 1805, "George Shannon cut his foot with the ads [*sic*]." Most doctors would say that that cut was "poison given to work a great time after." While stating that the party in addition to land were granted double pay (p. cxi.), Dr. Coues neglects to tell us what double pay means. This extra pay amounted to only $11,000, which sum, with the outfit estimated by Lewis at $2,500, and possibly something more from the secret service fund, was the entire cost of the expedition. The value of the land we shall show further on. When has so much been bought for so little?

Dr. Coues takes pains to tell us that Gibson was from Pennsylvania and that the two Fields were from Kentucky. We can add that McNeal was from the same State with Gibson, that Collins was from Maryland, Ordway from New Hampshire, Howard from Massachusetts, Werner and Whitehouse from Virginia. Frazer probably hailed from Vermont, Drewyer and Cruzatte called Missouri their residence. These facts add much to the evidence from names which prove English, Scotch, Irish, French, and African descent, to show what a gathering from the four winds combined to discover the future home of heterogeneous nationalities! Another interesting incident which escaped the research of Dr. Coues is that nine of the adventurers, whose names are all known, within a week after the return to St. Louis, sold their prospective land claims for $2,200, and that seven of these claims were bought by their fellow-soldiers. Frazer, while still in Vermont, had bought a hat, but had absconded without making any payment. While he was in the extreme West his hatter failed and ran away to St. Louis, and was recognized by Frazer among the crowd there who welcomed the returning adventurers. Frazer was so glad to see an old familiar face, even in the guise of a dun, that he paid the debt with interest—nor was this difficult, as he at once received $250 for his prospective land claim. Dr. Coues extols Drewyer, the Nimrod from whom more than from any other man the party received their daily food. Had he known that this crack shot was killed by Blackfoot Indians on the Upper Missouri in 1809, he would have shed more than one tear for his untimely fate. These annals are short and simple, but they forbid us to agree with our editor that, "excepting four, we know next to nothing more than the names" of the thirty-two adventurers. Another most important fact concerning the men, unnoticed by Dr. Coues, is that the captains had "encouraged the men to keep journals, and that seven of them did, to whom the officers gave every assistance in their power," as well as that some of these journals were sent down from the Mandans to St. Louis in the spring of 1805. This significant fact, that no less than seven men kept journals, to which we find no allusion in the four octavos of Dr. Coues, and others equally significant, can be learned only from the despatch to the President from Capt. Lewis when half-way up the Missouri—a document which even the London editor and the Dutch translator saw to be full of meaning, but which is unaccountably unprinted by Dr. Coues, though, as he shows, it had made the fortune of several apocryphas. It would illumine a volume more than a chapter of Biddle sometimes does.

Resorting to the Historical Society of Wisconsin would have been fruitful in side-lights to Dr. Coues. He would have been astonished to see in such a provincial establishment most of the works which figure in his Bibliography, and some which he confesses never to have seen. Besides the Dunbar apocrypha of 1806, several editions of Gass, one of them the best, the *princeps* of Philadelphia and that of Dublin, both with plates and maps in good condition, and the Dutch version of Van Kampen, he would there have handled the 1811 Philadelphia Gass in a perfect copy, though the only one known to him has lost half its title-page and the whole of the last leaf, so that he does not give its title with absolute correctness. The Wisconsin copy of Fisher's apocrypha would have shown him that he had no reason for doubt whether it had portraits (p. cxvi.), and that in stating Master Neddy to be there dropped, he was mistaken, unless, indeed, the Wisconsin edition is one unknown to him altogether. But what he would have espied there with most glad surprise is the largest collection, it is believed, in existence of manuscripts relating to the Clark family. The Mandan letter already referred to, and one from his father fourteen years earlier, are specimens of scores in the intervening period.

It is almost ungracious to suggest further research to such diligence as Dr. Coues has

manifested; nevertheless, he might have secured the letter of Clark on the eve of his second year's voyage up the Missouri to his brother in Louisville, which was the last heard of him till his return from the Pacific. This midway writing seems at least as worthy of facsimile as the specimen which Dr. Coues has so honored. Again, he might by possibility have got on the track of Sergeant Ordway's journal, which was laid up in the same repository with the codices, and which was declared by Biddle far superior to that of Gass (p. lxxxvi.), to which Dr. Coues everywhere is glad to confess his obligations. Moreover, as we have already stated on the authority of Capt. Lewis, a journal kept by a sergeant, perhaps by Pryor, was sent down from Ft. Mandan to St. Louis, and may lurk there still. More than this, others besides the captains and two sergeants kept journals. The preface to the work of Gass says: "That the information gained might be preserved more effectually, it was enjoined upon the several persons belonging to the corps who were considered capable *to keep journals*, and every necessary information and assistance given them for that purpose," etc. This is in keeping with the statement of Capt. Lewis a year after the voyage began, that seven of the men did keep journals. There is evidence that Robert Frazer was one of these journalists. The writer has now before him the following prospectus, which, soon after the return of the expedition, was sent from St. Louis to Rutland, Vt., where Frazer had in former years been a fencing-master. This paper has never before been published:

"Proposals for publishing by subscription Robert Frazer's Journal, from St. Louis in Louisiana to the Pacific Ocean, containing an accurate description of the Missouri and its several branches; of the mountains separating the eastern from the western waters; of the Columbia River and the bay it forms on the Pacific Ocean; of the face of the country in general; of the several tribes of Indians on the Missouri and Columbia Rivers; of the vegetable and animal productions discovered in those extensive regions; the latitudes and longitudes of some of the most remarkable places, together with a variety of curious and interesting occurrences during a voyage of two years four months and nine days, conducted by Captains Lewis and Clarke. Published by permission of Captain Meriwether Lewis. This work will be contained in about 400 pages octavo, and will be put to the press so soon as there shall be a sufficient subscription to defray the expenses. Price to subscribers $3."

The unexpected happens. Such a happening would be the find of the journal by Frazer. The discovery of the codices was, scarcely a year ago, a great surprise to Dr. Coues himself (p. 985). That discovery might well have constrained him to reform altogether the plan of his work. Those volumes (a score wanting two filled with the *ipsissima verba* of the exploring captains) should have been printed just as their authors wrote them, barring, perhaps, errors in spelling, etc. Such has been the feeling of the present writer ever since he began nine years ago to contrast their crisp and idiomatic utterances with Biddle, coldly correct and classically dull. Almost every note of Dr. Coues based on a codex has deepened this feeling—and he sometimes seems to betray it himself (p. 484, etc.). Sparks gave us the writings of Washington not as Washington had penned them, but as Sparks thought they should have been penned, and not without additions and subtractions. The public, however, soon saw that they were shown not the genuine Washington, but a Sparks make-believe. They refused to see him stretched on a couch of Procrustes. They demanded the identical words of Washington, and the demand has now brought a supply, while the work which Sparks flattered himself would be monumental for himself as well as his hero, is vanishing away. Again, when Congress employed M. Pierre Margry to print for them the narratives of the Frenchmen who, next to Lewis and Clark, were the greatest discoverers in our American world, they required him to fill his volumes with the very words of the original journalists —nothing omitted, nothing inserted. In England the voyages of Capt. Cook, the greatest of English discoverers, were long read, not as chronicled by his own hand, but largely as dressed up in words of learned length and thundering sound by Hawkesworth, Solander, and Banks. Yet such a second-hand story could not be tolerated for ever, and so the original journals of the navigator have this year been published in London. Bowdler, Collier, and others brought out Shakspere improved according to their own notions of taste, sound and sense. These bubbles, however, soon burst, and the trend of all modern Shaksperians to the unadulterated original, "minishing not a word," is unmistakable.

In perusing Dr. Coues's samples, appetite grows by what it feeds on. He says that "Biddle, in his text, nowhere followed the actual words of the explorers themselves. Had he done otherwise, the world would have been treated to an unexampled curiosity in literature." It ought to have been so treated long ago, and we trust it will be at no distant day. The limited edition which Dr. Coues has now issued will be soon exhausted. Let him meantime make ready the codices for the press with his old explanations, as well as such new ones as he will see to be called for, and he will do for the twentieth century much more than Biddle did for the nineteenth, producing a work not only more readable and instructive, but one which cannot be superseded. The world has long laughed at a Bowdlerized Shakspere; it will not always be content with a Biddleized Lewis and Clark.

## PIATT AND BOYNTON'S THOMAS.—I.

*Gen. George H. Thomas:* A Critical Biography. By Donn Piatt, with concluding chapters by Henry V. Boynton. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 8vo, pp. viii., 658.

THE title of this book is a misnomer. The name of Gen. Thomas is only a stalking-horse for coarse abuse of Gens. Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, and other prominent officers in our civil war. It is not confined to events or campaigns in which Thomas had a part. As much space is given to campaigns in Virginia or on the Mississippi as to those in Kentucky and Tennessee. The object seems to be simply to make occasion to pronounce everything done by Grant and Sherman, especially, to be stupid and wicked, and themselves destitute of character as soldiers or as men. The reverse of the medal is to declare Thomas perfect in all he did, all he did not do, and all he might have done had he been in the place of the others. The research of the book proper seems to be confined to Van Horne's 'Life of Thomas,' Reed's 'Siege of Vicksburg,' and Boynton's 'Historical Raid,' with occasional references to Badeau, or, as the author facetiously puts it, to "Grant through Badeau," for purposes of objurgation.

Of Grant, Piatt says that "had he possessed more sense, he would have been less successful. Of all the generals who achieved notoriety during the civil war, he is the one whose career as a soldier will bear the least scrutiny." He is "the tanner who developed through retreats the high capacity of a commander." He is a "heartless butcher of his own men," a "hero of disaster," "the most incapable of our commanders," kept at the head of an army by the influence of an "Illinois politician," the "hero of fevers, smallpox, and measles." He is a "brutal butcher who would fight without knowing how to fight." He has "more boiler than machinery." His will is a "tenacity of fool purpose." He made a "miserable fiasco at Belmont," and a "murderous assault" at Champion Hill. Other men make their lies hang together, but he "leaves his feeble inventions where they are forced to fight each other." The author finally, in summarizing the campaign of Vicksburg, finds himself "ashamed" that the country should accept it as a triumph, "and out of its incompetent leader construct a grotesque greatness that would be laughable were it not such a melancholy disgrace." Does it need any argument that such "grotesque" extravagance answers itself and insures contempt for the book in which it is found?

On another point personal to Grant it may be well to say a word. His intemperance before the war had been the ground of apprehension among his friends, and his resolute and progressively successful fight with that temptation had been a mark of strong character and a noble purpose. If in any conjuncture of public importance a lapse from his good habit had affected his public conduct, influenced events, or brought injury to others, there would be justification for plain but moderate reference to it. To use a charge of intemperance wantonly, without pretence of evidence as to the particular time referred to, and only as a cumulating sting to other libels, is a crime. This is done in the book before us, not once or twice, but again and again. What is offered as evidence of such lapses during the spring and early summer of 1863 is a private letter of Rawlins to his general, dated after midnight of June 6, which has been for some years in print. The letter is one of the proofs of a friendship of the most chivalric and sacred character. It is absolute and indisputable evidence for what it states, which is that on that evening Rawlins had seen evidence that Grant had participated in social drinking, so that, while he attended to business after it, the chief-of-staff noticed the effects. Although in the small hours of the night, the devoted friend penned a remonstrance before he slept. But that remonstrance, which is used to support reiterated charges of continuous and disqualifying intemperance, itself gives the lie to them by the explicit statement of a pledge given "early last March," and that the general had "kept that pledge during your [his] recent campaign." The faithful sentinel (to use his own figure) had given the alarm at the first symptom of weakness he had himself detected, and his association with his chief was that of continuous daily and hourly intimacy. This is used as "official evidence of General Grant's personal habits and condition in these dreadful days." It is, on the contrary, conclusive evidence of the unscrupulousness of the vilifier. The subject should not be dropped without adding that to receive such a letter and to grip the writer of it to his heart with hooks of steel till Rawlins was laid in his grave after the war was over, was to show a trait of character which in the eyes of a magnanimous critic would cover a multitude of sins.

The attacks upon Gen. Sherman are more commonly in the form of associating him with

Grant as a common target for epithets of the kind first quoted. The special chapters which Boynton devotes to him will be noticed later. Sheridan is saluted with a squib in the preface, in which it is said of the Winchester victory, "The commander was asleep in bed twenty miles away. He would have been called to account for thus absenting himself from the front at a time of great peril to his forces from the immediate presence of the enemy, and had to answer to a court of inquiry or a court-martial, but for a crazy poet and a patriotic actor." The recklessness as to facts in this statement will deceive nobody. Its fatuousness is only too evident when we reflect that it comes from one who can see nothing but perfect wisdom and generalship in Thomas's absence of twenty miles from the battle of Franklin, to which he did not ride either on a charger or a locomotive, though the railway was open to the field. Other officers are complimented by abuse, but the examples are enough for the purpose for which they are given, which is to show that extravagance answers itself and becomes its own *reductio ad absurdum*.

To pass from persons to things, it may be well to cull a brilliant example or two of historical method. The first is a small matter in itself, but is one in regard to which universal notoriety makes everybody a judge. The author romances on the capture of Fort Donelson, reaching the sapient conclusion that "instead of a blessing, it proved a grave calamity to our cause in the field." The reason given is that "from that out, all thought of Thomas's wise plan to hit the Confederacy where the Confederacy was vulnerable disappeared." Of this reason, more presently; but among a number of incidents of the battle of which Piatt has a monopoly in knowledge, is one relating to the authorship of the phrase "unconditional surrender." He tells us that a flag of truce was sent to Gen. C. F. Smith asking for terms of capitulation. "'Unconditional surrender,' was the prompt response, 'and unless immediately complied with, I will move upon your works.'" That Grant had nothing to do either with the fight or with the surrender, or even with the famous form of words, Piatt informs us, "is the true story of Fort Donelson." Whatever blind prejudice might assert with regard to Grant's own part in the battle, an intelligent person would have supposed that nothing short of insanity would question his authorship in "unconditional surrender." Not only do the war records contain the letter of Gen. Buckner asking for terms, which was addressed to Gen. Grant by name, but Grant's autograph answer which contained the phrase was, after the war, photographed by consent of Buckner, and the facsimile was everywhere spread abroad. The attribution to Smith is a pure invention, so bald as to raise a doubt whether the whole book was not consciously intended for a hoax to test the gullibility of a certain class of readers.

Let us turn for a moment to the reason for bewailing Grant's great victory as a public calamity. It is, ostensibly, that a plan of Gen. Thomas for an invasion of East Tennessee by way of Cumberland Gap was thenceforward ignored and disappeared. In other parts of the book the same assertion reappears, with the gloss upon it that the plan involved not merely the relief of the loyal men of the Holston valley, but the capture of Chattanooga, which itself would end the war. This is scarcely less a burlesque than the "unconditional surrender." The idea of a campaign for the relief of East Tennessee was discussed in Washington from the very beginning of the war. Andrew Johnson and Horace Maynard were instant in season and out of season in pressing it, and Lincoln heartily sympathized with their wish. McClellan included it in his written plan submitted to the President on August 2, more than three weeks before Thomas was made a brigadier and ordered to Kentucky. McClellan had also the intelligence to add to the political object found in the relief of the loyal Tennesseans the military one of "seizing the railroad leading from Memphis to the east." Later in the season, and, as he himself says, soon after he went to Kentucky, Thomas offered to march through the mountains upon Knoxville if twenty thousand men were given him for the purpose, properly equipped. Buell, who was his commander, showed in his correspondence with Washington that it was impracticable to supply an army in East Tennessee by wagon transportation over the Cumberland Mountains. He urged (and the event showed he was right) that the true line was to Chattanooga by the railway through Nashville, and that this was a case in which the longest way round was the shortest way home. The capture of Donelson secured Nashville as a base for this movement as well as for a secondary one upon Pittsburgh Landing. Unable to see this, Piatt says the surrender of 15,000 Confederates at Donelson was a calamity to the national Government because it made our armies in Tennessee move upon Chattanooga with a railroad to supply them, instead of marching through the Cumberland Mountains by roads over which mules could hardly haul their own provender except in the few weeks of midsummer.

Methods of composition are hardly less noticeable than methods in criticism. Van Horne, in his 'Life of Thomas,' mentions as a rumor that Mr. Lincoln, when pressed to give early promotion to Gen. Thomas, had said, "Let the Virginian wait." If the rumor had any foundation, though it probably had none, it was of course based on the doubts which existed for a time in regard to Thomas's purpose —whether he would resign, as Lee and Johnston had done. Such doubts were soon removed, and to say that Lincoln continued unfriendly to Thomas's advancement is not only baseless, but contrary to Lincoln's whole attitude towards men of the border States. He not only relied upon that other Virginian, Winfield Scott, but he made haste to give important commands to Anderson, Nelson, Crittenden, and Wood, Kentuckians, as well as to men of Missouri and Tennessee. Farragut is in the same list, whether he hailed from Louisiana or Virginia. But here was too good an opportunity "to point a moral and adorn a tale," and the rumor in Van Horne becomes a fact in Piatt, and is reiterated on every occasion, until it grows into "the President's one invariable answer was, 'Let the Virginian wait!'"

Van Horne had also said in his eulogy of Thomas that his transfer from the rearguard to the vanguard during active campaigning usually indicated a like transfer of emergencies. Piatt transfers the statement to his pages, without credit, but adds: "It made no difference what rank he held, he was ever in command so far as the commanding officer was concerned." The transfer and the addition are characteristic of the whole book, and characteristically far from the fact.

In the narrative of the campaign of Buell against Bragg, page after page is copied from Van Horne without credit, but with an occasional slip which makes nonsense of the criticism. Bragg crossed the Tennessee at Chattanooga and entered the little valley of the Sequatche. So much Buell knew; the question was whether Bragg would come out of the valley by crossing the Cumberland plateau lower down or farther up. The positions of both Thomas's troops and all the rest of Buell's command were on the west of the mountains, Thomas being at McMinnville; and no part of them either obstructed or commanded the Sequatche valley on the other side of the range. Van Horne's criticism is that by concentrating at Murfreesboro and withdrawing Thomas westward from his former post, Buell opened the way for Bragg to march *out* of the Sequatche valley and take the shortest route to Kentucky. No matter what may be the value of the criticism, it wholly loses its point in Piatt. The latter says: "If Bragg's purpose was to invade Kentucky, he would cross over *to* the Sequatche valley. If, *on the other hand*, he meant Nashville, it would be necessary to check the move at McMinnville. The two routes were too far apart to hold both," etc. He concludes that Thomas had to obey orders, and in so doing opened the way for Bragg *through* the Sequatche valley, "the shorter and better route to Kentucky." Buell's doubt was whether north Alabama or middle Tennessee was aimed at. The fact that Piatt has wholly missed the relation of the topography to the plans of either side does not prevent him from shouting pæans to Gen. Thomas, whose military judgment he finds unrivalled in the juncture.

It would be hard to imagine a more extreme type of what professed history and biography ought not to be. Boynton's appendix calls for some separate notice.

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*Dictionary of Quotations* from Ancient and Modern, English and Foreign Sources, etc., etc. Selected and compiled by the Rev. James Wood. Frederick Warne & Co. 1893.

*A Dictionary of Foreign Phrases and Classical Quotations.* Edited by R. D. Blackman. Eleventh edition. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893.

If we rightly interpret an abbreviation not put down in Mr. Wood's list, and discover him in the "*Ed.*" of the little sentiment on *Reality* on p. 369, we cannot reproach him with an abuse of his opportunity. Nor can we complain that he has slighted American authors, for we have noted as many as thirty-three, and he has drawn his aphorisms with marked liberality from the Concord Transcendentalists, the Brook-Farmers, and other literary lights of New England Unitarianism—from Emerson above all. The printers have unwarrantably distinguished Judge Halyburton (p. 549) from Haliburton (p. 25), and the Rev. T. T. Murger (p. 448) from Munger (pp. 265, 315). The ethical aim of this collection is proclaimed on the title-page, which we have abbreviated, and the Dictionary appeals first of all to those who resort to the sayings of wise men for "their bearing on life." After this class, perhaps, the motto-seekers have been most kept in mind, and these must be on their guard against various forms of inaccuracy. If, for instance, one had rather say in Italian than in English, "Follow thou thy own star," he must beware of taking Mr. Wood's professed equivalent from Dante—"*Se* tu segui tua stella," a conditional sentence of which the inspiring conclusion well deserved to be quoted. Grammatical and typographical slips, too, are likely to betray unscholarly adoption from Mr. Wood,

as "Dannosa è il dono" (p. 53), "Muss scheden" (from Feuchtersleben's "Es ist bestimmt," p. 85), etc. Such mistakes are not very numerous, but they must be reckoned with. Liberty is taken with Voltaire's "Écrasez l'infâme": on p. 76 the first person is employed, "Écrasons." So a change from plural to singular marks a famous passage from the 'Annals' of Tacitus, which is otherwise distorted, clearly at second hand (p. 84): "Eo magis præfulgebat quod non videbatur," for which read: "Præfulgebant Cassius atque Brutus, eo ipso quod effigies eorum non visebantur." We do not know whether the present stage of reformed spelling in Germany sanctions "Dämmerung ist Menschenlos" (for -loos) on p. 52. Certainly "Siéyès" on p. 360 is a misprint (for Sieyès). Finally, there is a third class which will use this Dictionary for definitions, like "Jour gras—Flesh day," "Fille de chambre—A chambermaid," "Sub Jove—In the open air," "Sicut lilium —As a lily," etc.; or for such colloquialisms as "Das glaub' ich—That is exactly my opinion."

The arrangement is alphabetic, whatever the language, with *a*, *the*, and even *and* leading off. An index partly helps the inquirer to the significant word, but is confessedly incomplete; thus, we are directed to "*whistled* for want of thought," but not to Franklin's "He has paid dear for his whistle," on p. 142. The foreign phrase is regularly translated, but not always correctly, as we have seen. The reference is to writers, not to chapter and verse of their works, and now and again the writer is unnamed even when notorious, as in the case of "Solitudinem faciunt." The translator is perhaps invariably unnamed. No rule has been observed as to quoting an author in his own language or in English. On the same page we find Bossuet in French and Victor Hugo in English.

On the whole, Mr. Wood's work is as meritorious and as useful as most of its kind; dreary to read consecutively, with plenty of commonplace, but also with gems enough, typographically rather better than the average, and not to be trusted without scrutiny.

For aught that we can see, everything in Mr. Blackman's slender 'Dictionary' might properly have found a place in Mr. Wood's, though its "phrases" very frequently consist of a single word. As it is, the contents of the two sometimes overlap, yet without necessarily agreeing or showing exactness wholly on one side. For instance, Wood gives: "Natura il fece, e poi roppe la stampa," and Blackman: "Natura lo fece, e poi ruppe lo stampo." The seeker after truth can take his choice, as also between "Tros Tyriusve" (Wood) and "Tros Tyriusque" (Blackman). Mr. Blackman is not content with a single alphabet. His Latin section fills nearly half the book; Greek, French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and German follow, the last three being very meagre.

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Dahn, Felix. Julian der Abtrünnige: Geschichtlicher Roman. 2d ed. 3 vols. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
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Greely, Gen. A. W. Explorers and Travellers. [Men of Achievement.] Scribners. $2.
Greene, G. A. Italian Lyrists of To-day. London: Elkin Mathews & John Lane; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
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Miller, Margaret. My Saturday Bird Class. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Norton, C. P. Hand-Book of the Law of Bills and Notes. St. Paul: West Publishing Co. $3.50.
Norton, Prof. C. E. Letters of James Russell Lowell. 2 vols. Harpers. $8.
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Richards, Mrs. Laura E. Melody: The Story of a Child. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Scott, Sir W. Ivanhoe. 2 vols. The Monastery. 2 vols. [International Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.
Scott, Sir W. The Abbot. [Dryburgh Edition.] Macmillan. $1.25.
Scott, Sir Walter. The Pirate. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Speeches and Addresses of William McKinley. Appletons. $2.
Sullivan, Sir Edward. Dante's Comedy in English Prose. Part I. London: Elliot Stock.
Sullivan, T. R. Tom Sylvester: A Novel. Scribners. $1.50.
The American Digest for 1893. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Thompson, Maurice. The Ethics of Literary Art. Hartford, Conn.: Hartford Seminary Press. $1.
Thoreau, H. D The Maine Woods. Cape Cod. [Riverside Edition.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Each $1.50.
Thwing, Rev. C. F. Within College Walls. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 9, 1893.*

## The Week.

WITH the action of the House in putting an end to the silver misery, the country may well look back with astonished gratification at the rapid march of events. Three years ago everybody was dickering for the votes of the silver States, and the only uncertainty was how soon the demand for free coinage would sweep everything before it. Eighteen months ago the coolest observers thought the chances favored free coinage, and we certainly escaped from it only by the narrowest squeak. Now that peril is past for ever, and, despite the hollow boasts of the angry Populists and Populist-Democrats, it is clear that the question of the standard of value is definitively settled in this country, and that all attempts to reopen it will be futile in the face of the sure diversion of popular interest to the tariff and administrative economy and reform. The great change has come with a swiftness and completeness unexampled. Like the immense popular revulsion on the tariff question, it is in part, no doubt, a result of the condition of arrested development in which all fiscal and financial matters were so long held by political forces growing out of the war. When it was at last possible to vote on the tariff and the currency without having the question thrust in your face whether you wanted to reward treason and reënslave the negroes, the dammed-up waters came out with a rush.

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President Andrews chooses this auspicious occasion to inform his anxious friends that, in his opinion, the free coinage of silver at a ratio of 20 to 1 "would be safe." The processes of reasoning by which he arrives at this conclusion it would be interesting to examine, if the conclusion itself were any longer of conceivable human interest. The proper rôle for President Andrews, at present, would appear to be that of one who has left off making predictions, and is calmly waiting for the fulfilment of those he has already made. It was not long ago that he told us that the repeal of the Sherman act would "bring England to her knees" in frantic appeal to the United States to join her in doing something for silver. Only a fortnight ago Mr. Moreton Frewen said in this city that "if you stop purchases we shall have a panic in London." He and President Andrews should spare us further prophecies and hypotheses until their advertised kneeling and panic come off.

The effect of repeal upon political conditions in the South remains to be seen, but there are already signs that it will infuse spirit into the more intelligent class of Democrats, and weaken rather than strengthen the Populists. In South Carolina, Wade Hampton announces his readiness to organize national Democratic clubs throughout the State, and draw the line between those who stand on the Ocala (Populist) platform and those who stand on that of the national Democracy. It was a sad day for the State when that wave of demagogism swept over it which deposed Hampton from the Senate and put Irby in his place, and it would be still more unfortunate if Butler should succeed in his apparent purpose to save himself by virtually turning Populist while still claiming to be a Democrat. Such success as the third party has achieved in the South has been due largely to the cowardice of public men who knew its dangers, and should have fought and could have crushed it. They should take courage from the example of Wade Hampton.

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While Senator Sherman was being introduced to the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce on Friday afternoon as "the one man who, more than all others, had been instrumental in repealing the purchase clause of the silver act," Senator Voorhees at Washington was stating the exact truth when he said in an interview:

> "The darkest hour for the bill was after Senator Sherman's famous interview, a month ago, in which he encouraged its enemies and discouraged its friends by declaring, in the strongest terms, that unconditional repeal could never pass the Senate. I felt that blow more than any other in the long contest, and in my judgment it prolonged the fight at least two weeks."

No one can doubt this who had anyacquaintance with the inside of the Senate fight. All the talking against time and all the filibustering were only a grand kicking up of the dust, under cover of which the bargaining for a compromise was busily going on. To help the scheming along, Senator Sherman gave out that nothing but a compromise could possibly pass. If he had stood up squarely for unconditional repeal, and lent no countenance to the sappers and miners, they would have surrendered weeks before they did. The Ohio Senator comes out of the long contest with no part of his reputation heightened except his inveterate tendency to compromise away his convictions. That element of his fame was already securely established.

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The Senator who brings most credit out of the struggle is a comparatively new member from the young State of Wyoming, Joseph M. Carey, who comes from a mining section and yet voted against the mining interest because he thought it his duty so to do. He made this admirable statement of his position before casting his vote:

> "I believe that a man who comes to this body should come prepared to vote as his conscience dictates. I shall never cast a vote here where I shall have to apologize to my own conscience. If this vote shall result in my political overthrow, I would rather be a free man and do what I think is right, than a United States Senator who yields to popular clamor."

Mr. Carey is a native of Delaware and a graduate of Union College in New York, but has lived in Wyoming for twenty-five years, having held the offices of district attorney, justice of the Supreme Court, and delegate in Congress before his election as one of the first Senators upon the admission of the Territory as a State in 1890, his term expiring in 1895. He may not get another term, but, if he does not, he can retire with a clear conscience and a sense of self-respect.

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We have not observed that any reporter has thought it worth while to get the opinion of ex-President Harrison on the repeal of the Sherman law. In this city last summer he expressed amiable doubts about Mr. Cleveland's ability to drive "his wild team," which was certainly a very appropriate phrase in the mouth of a man who had never had any difficulty in driving *his* team, for the simple reason that he always gave them their heads even when making straight for a precipice. The party managers who hitched up the silver wild horses of 1890 did not have to take the driver into account at all, or, as Senator Sherman has more elegantly expressed it, they did not think that Harrison ought to have the "responsibility" of vetoing a bad bill laid upon him. If he had been in the White House two weeks ago, when the grand Gorman-Sherman compromise was at last put on view, the contrivers of it would not have troubled themselves to ask whether the President would sign it or smash it.

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It is denied from Washington that any order has been given for "coining the seigniorage" of the silver bullion now in the Treasury. The question is still under advisement, especially in its legal aspects. The law is very much complicated by the recent repeal of the purchasing clause of the Sherman act, and the points in controversy might baffle the keenest legal intellects in the country. A telegram to the Philadelphia *Ledger* states these controverted points in the following manner:

> "(1.) Must a sum equal to the amount of Treasury notes issued be coined before the seigniorage can be utilized? (2.) Can Treasury notes be issued against the seigniorage? (3.) Has the Secretary authority to cancel Trea-

sury notes when redeemed under the provisions of the third section of the Sherman act?"

Whatever opinions the legal profession might hold on these questions, we think that all persons who were conversant with the legislation of 1890, *i. e.*, the Sherman act, will agree that the intention of Congress was to keep all the silver bought after July 1, 1891, in the form of bullion until it should become necessary to coin it in order to redeem *in silver dollars* the Treasury notes issued against it. "*As much* as may be necessary to provide for the redemption of the Treasury notes herein provided for" cannot mean *more* than may be necessary for the purpose. The clause in the same law which declares it to be the policy of the United States to keep the two metals on a parity with each other has been officially and properly construed to require the redemption of the Treasury notes in gold if the holders desire gold. If we can imagine any holder of such notes presenting them in order to get silver dollars in exchange for them, then the Secretary is directed to coin as much of the bullion as may be necessary for this purpose, but no more. Any construction of the law which goes beyond this, will exceed the intentions of the Congress that enacted it.

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One chapter of this year's panic history closed November 1st in the cancellation of the last clearing-house loan certificates. The first of these certificates were issued in New York during the third week of June. Within a few weeks New York's example had been followed by the clearing-houses of Philadelphia, Boston, Baltimore, and Pittsburgh. Chicago alone of the great banking centres failed to resort to this emergency measure, and though in the stress of local panic a resolution authorizing such issue was passed by the Chicago clearing-house, none of the banks made use of its provisions. From the middle of June to the closing week of August, the issue of loan certificates was continuous, the maximum issue, reached at the latter date, being $38,280,000 in New York and $11,040,000 in Boston. How great was the need of such banding together of the city banks' resources may be judged from the fact that, within these two months, bank deposits in New York decreased no less than $32,526,300. It was impossible to contract the loans in equal measure without causing general wreck, and the certificates were used solely to maintain and extend the loans of hard-pressed borrowers. Towards the close of August, the hoarding of money and the needs of debtors had increased to such an extent that the loans and discounts of the New York clearing-house banks exceeded the total deposits by $39,592,200, almost exactly the measure of the loan certificates outstanding. The ending of the panic and the return of public confidence have now restored a monetary equilibrium. Loans made on the basis of the clearing-house certificates have either been paid off or renewed from the actual deposit funds of the individual banks. Since September's opening, the loan account of the New York city banks has in the aggregate been only slightly contracted, but the deposits have increased by $59,251,600. The working of the loan-certificate issues this year has been a particularly noteworthy experiment in bank finance. This safe and easy expansion and contraction of the available money supply, according as the needs of the day dictated, furnishes, moreover, some useful principles for future consideration in the bank-currency discussion.

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It is obvious to everybody that, whatever the cause of Tuesday's overthrow in this State, whether hard times or machine politics, the Administration would have come in for some of the credit and avoided all the discredit of it by a closer adherence to the policy which Mr. Cleveland traced out in many speeches and letters before his inauguration. There are a great many people who say that adherence to civil-service reform does nothing for a party; but does adherence to the spoils system? This question has often been answered at the polls in the negative, but never more impressively than on Tuesday. We can understand Mr. Cleveland's unwillingness to quarrel openly with the Hill ring, but what was the use of giving the principal post-office in the country to a politician who was ostentatious in announcing that in filling places he gave a preference to Tammany men? Where would have been the harm of keeping the anti-snapper element in the Democratic party in his confidence and taking its advice, instead of somewhat conspicuously keeping it at a distance? The indifference, to use a mild word, to the anti-snapper element on the part of the Administration seems to have been based on the idea that there are no such things as Democratic Mugwumps, and that good Democrats can be counted on to vote the ticket with unfaltering regularity. Well, 30,000 Democrats in this city alone failed to vote it on Tuesday, which shows that there are limits to their endurance, and that their moral sense needs to be more or less pandered to. We do not suppose many, if any, votes turned solely on the Van Alen or Roosevelt appointments, or on the general "revel in spoils" which has gone on all over the country. But they have undoubtedly deepened the impression of Democratic incompetency and hypocrisy and dishonesty which the general situation has created. The spectacle of Mr. Cleveland struggling with the spoils system would have helped to build up a respect for the Democratic party among the decent and intelligent classes—the absence of which is now its greatest difficulty in keeping in power; but no such spectacle has been forthcoming.

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The result of the elections outside of New York, where special and peculiar conditions existed growing out of the nomination of Maynard, must be ascribed mainly to the financial panic of last summer and the consequent hard times. Large numbers of workmen were thrown out of employment, and great suffering fell upon them. Few of them could understand the silver question. All were ready to give ear to the statement that apprehended changes of the tariff had brought about the disastrous condition. If this condition were really all owing to that cause, it ought to have arisen as soon as the result of the Presidential election was made known. The tariff was the great issue of that campaign. Mr. Cleveland was elected upon that issue distinctly. If it contained the elements of a panic, they ought to have manifested themselves at once. They did not. Business continued to be good until the Treasury's gold balance fell below the $100,000,000, and the people began to fear that the silver basis so long threatened was actually in sight. Shortly after this happened silver was demonetized in India, and this added to the prevailing distrust. The panic came. The Democratic party was in power, and it had to take the consequences. The repeal of the Sherman act came too late to have much effect on the fall trade, and it showed the majority party to be equally divided, one half for repeal and one half against it. In this particular they have been properly punished. In the other they are the victims of accident. It was an accident that the silver panic came at a time and in a way so that it could be laid at the door of a change in the tariff which the country had voted for, but which had not yet been enacted or formulated.

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Vote-buying in Indiana is made an expensive luxury by a law which was passed in 1889 and has been sustained by a recent decision of the Supreme Court of the State. Under its provisions any elector who has been bribed to vote or refrain from voting can bring suit against his briber or bribers and recover $300 and "reasonable attorney's fees for collecting the same." A man who sold his vote for $10 in the election of 1890 brought suit under this law, and the lower court held it invalid, on the ground that he did not come into court with clean hands, and should not be allowed to benefit by his wrong-doing. The case was therefore carried to the Supreme Court, which reversed the decision of the lower court, sustained the law, and awarded the plaintiff his $300 and attorney's fees. In rendering

its decision the court held that a man who has been bribed has suffered a grievous wrong; that he has been induced to barter away his honor, manhood, and political freedom and sovereignty, and is thereby entitled to some redress; that the Legislature has a right to give this redress, and thus incidentally aid in the enforcement of the laws against election bribery. If this case becomes a precedent, as it is very likely to do, since men who sell their votes are actuated by mercenary motives and will get all they can out of the business, the practice of vote-buying will have to be continued in Indiana under most trying conditions.

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M. Turrettini, one of the French civil engineers who went to Chicago during the Fair, has communicated to a Swiss paper—the *Journal de Genève*—a memorandum he made of Mayor Carter Harrison's address to them when he received them. In it the mayor is made to say that though the French engineers had done great things, the Americans would soon beat them; that he himself was not an engineer, but directed their labors; that he was, however, head of the firemen and put out fires, and head of the police, and could put any of them he pleased into jail, and let them out when he thought proper ; that he had every sort of power; that some people thought he was head of the clergy, but this was a mistake; that they might think him a very great man, which was true; that he was the greatest man in Chicago, and Chicago was the first city of Illinois, and Illinois the first State of the Union, and the Union the greatest country in the world; he was, therefore, the greatest man in the world; that he had made the tour of the globe, visiting Paris, the Champs Élysées, Rome, the Vatican, the Seven Hills, the Acropolis, and Moscow, and had seen nothing like the White City. The *Journal de Genève*, commenting on this stuff, which it reproduces in all its "fatuité naïve," says that "it is far more instructive about things in America than any number of essays." We do not believe Mayor Harrison said these things as here reported, but he probably said things very like them. He was fond of humorous exaggeration, and he doubtless thought this mode of introducing himself to the Frenchmen a capital joke. To them, on the contrary, it was like the address of an African chief to European travellers, which, as the *Journal de Genève* truly remarks, there is no use in their trying to understand.

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The Princeton faculty have taken very proper action regarding the football game with Yale in this city on Thanksgiving day. They cordially approve the action of the football management in requesting the municipal authorities of New York to arrest any students who may be found guilty of disorderly conduct; they appeal to the college alumni to "exert their influence in every way possible to redeem the game from these objectionable features"; and they serve warning that, should these efforts prove ineffectual in reforming the evils, "they must at once take into consideration the question of forbidding the game in New York on that day." They announce, further, that the Thanksgiving recess will end at midnight of Thursday, November 30, and that all students must be back in Princeton by that hour, unless a prolongation of the absence to the following noon has been previously secured upon the written request of the parent or guardian. It is unfortunate and discreditable that the faculty of a university should be compelled to take such steps as these in order to preserve decorum among its students on a holiday, but it would be infinitely more discreditable if the authorities of the institution had longer condoned the offences which have grown so notorious.

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Redmond, the leader of the minority of the Irish party, has given notice to Mr. Gladstone that he must not count on the votes of his wing—about a dozen in all—unless he brings in the home-rule bill again in the spring. There is a certain importance in this, because, though there would still remain a ministerial majority, it would hardly be large enough for the conduct of business without extraordinary efforts on the part of the Liberal whips to keep members in attendance. But there is no good reason for believing that, should Mr. Gladstone continue in active service, the bill will not be introduced. Of all the Liberal measures this is the one which he has most at heart, and there can hardly be a doubt that should he be in office next February the bill will be sent to the Lords again next year. That the Lords will again reject it is, of course, certain, and it is generally believed in London that, when it is rejected, there will be a dissolution and a general election next autumn. The Liberals are generally prepared for this course of things, and are, therefore, most anxious to pass at least the parish-councils bill and the employers'-liability bill before dissolving, so that the session shall not seem utterly barren to English electors.

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Whether they ought to venture before the electors with the clause in the home-rule bill which keeps more than eighty Irish members in the British Parliament, is a point on which there is considerable variety of opinion. In the first bill of 1886 the Irish members were wholly excluded. The critics of the bill then said that this meant total separation, and even Mr. Chamberlain offered to vote for it if the Irish members were retained. Mr. Gladstone gave way to the clamor, and put the Irish members back again, and now the clamor is greater than ever, for, say his enemies, he is going to let Irishmen meddle in English and Scotch affairs, and will not let English and Scotchmen meddle in theirs. There is no doubt that the retention of the Irish is hard to defend, and will be used against the Liberals in the coming canvass much more effectively than their exclusion could have been, and it is quite within the bounds of probability that this feature of the bill will be abandoned when it is next introduced. There is, of course, no way of making the bill acceptable to the Conservatives —though it ought to be as non-contentious as the parish-councils bill; but it is almost as certain as anything can be in politics, that they will eventually bring in a home-rule bill of their own. They did this about the corn laws and about the extension of the suffrage, and they will do it now with greater reason —seeing that, with 85 recalcitrant Irish in the House of Commons, the game of politics, under English rules, cannot be carried on.

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The ignominious downfall of Count Taaffe terminates the shuffling, characterless policy which for fourteen years he has been able to pursue by relying on combinations of Clericals and Feudalists, Liberal Germans and Poles. All of these parties deserted him when he finally sprang upon the Reichsrath his bill for the extension of the suffrage —an extraordinary measure, socialistic in its effect even if not in its motive, the evil of which is sure to live after him. It seems that the Emperor, who was loath to part with his favorite, was forced to yield to the representations of Count Kálnoky, who became alarmed at the danger to the Triple Alliance resulting from the remodelling of the House of Deputies in conformity with Taaffe's bill. The extension of the suffrage would have been certain to strengthen the Slavic and clerical elements to such a degree as to give them a majority, inimical to the alliance with Germany and Italy. Although Taaffe was willing to drop his bill at the last moment, his utter isolation rendered his retirement inevitable. He is succeeded by Prince Windischgrätz, who, although a Feudalist, has shown himself a man of character, and, though a large landed proprietor in Bohemia, has held out firmly against the patriotic ravings of the Young Czechs, to which so many members of the Bohemian aristocracy succumbed. From the coalition ministry which he has formed the Czechs derive no encouragement whatever, while the Poles, the German Liberals, and the Feudalists capture each two seats.

*THE TARIFF AND THE CONSULS.*

We believe that every advocate of tariff reform looks for, and has all along looked for, an increase of our exports as a result of the new policy. In fact, it is one of the elementary truths of the low-tariff gospel that you cannot have large imports without large exports. Exports pay for imports. The state of things in which foreigners dump their goods on our wharves for nothing, or in which Americans refuse to export goods unless they are paid in gold or silver, is now one of the well-recognized chimeras of financial science. No one is any longer taken in by it. Whether it be owing to original sin or not we cannot say, but the fact is that the minute you lower the tariff in any country in the world, the trade between the natives and the foreigners becomes more active. So it has always been, and so it will be with us. Consequently, our tariff-reform agitation has meant from the beginning a larger intercourse with both the European and South American States, in which, unless we are greatly mistaken, Americans are likely to get the best of the bargain.

This being true, our manner of selecting our consuls in foreign centres of trade and industry becomes more and more important. We venture on the assertion that there have never been, among the advocates of tariff reform, many who did not look forward to consular reform as a necessary adjunct or accompaniment of tariff reform. One of a consul's most important duties is the making of reports on the markets and productions of the countries to which he is accredited. He ought to be the greatest aid to the American buyer or seller in foreign countries. We say nothing here of his duties in protecting the United States custom-house from fraud, or in enforcing our immigration and quarantine regulations. We are considering him simply as the agent and helpmate of the United States producers and dealers. As such it is difficult to overestimate his importance. He ought to stand as high, as regards education and character, and as regards the dignity and security of his office, as the consuls of any of our competitors—England, France, or Germany, for instance. He should know the language of the country to which he is accredited. He should be familiar with its manners and customs, with its legislation relating to tariff and emigration. His tenure of office should be such as to relieve him from anxiety about the ups and downs of home politics, and to make his growing experience the property and profit of his own people. Though last not least, he should, in cases of marked superiority, ascertained by actual service, be promoted to better posts under the same tests of fitness.

In this view of the consular service, in connection with tariff reform, we have, we are glad to say, the hearty concurrence of the Boston Merchants' Association. At their meeting held on Wednesday of last week a report on the consular service, and Mr. Quincy's dealings with it, was read by the chairman, Mr. Jonathan A. Lane. After going over Mr. Quincy's action and the excuses for it, the report remarked:

"Moreover, if they [the consuls] are, as they should be, earnest promoters of increased commercial intercourse between the countries, they naturally fall into the belief that a moderate tariff is best, as it certainly does tend to increase the business and enlarge the returns of their consulates. There is no need of this constant displacement of tried and proved competent men because at one time they belonged to a party which, in the turn of events, is out and not in power."

The report also recommended some action in coöperation with the Chambers of Commerce of Boston and New York, to urge on the State Department the creation of "a perfect digest of every consulate, to the end that it may be fortified against unfit applicants," and on Congress "the adoption of some plan for the legal recognition of merit in the consular service." How necessary this is may be inferred from the fact that the great bulk of Quincy's appointments were made without any knowledge whatever of the applicants, except what was furnished by the "influence," *i. e.*, the member of Congress who recommended them. There is no information except this on file at the State Department. The course of proceeding seems to have been simply to let every congressman of the party get what he could out of the heap for the man who had worked hardest for him in Mississippi or Arkansas. In other words, each place was filled on the recommendation of the person most interested in deceiving the department about the qualifications of the candidate.

That the Chambers of Commerce would have the hearty support of the President in bringing about the proposed change, there is, Quincy notwithstanding, every reason to believe. He cannot, we say confidently, have approved of this young gentleman's activity. He is committed to the principle of civil-service reform in every way that can bind an honorable man. He spoke in its favor in 1882, when accepting the nomination for governor; in 1884, in his letter accepting the nomination for President; in 1888, in his letter accepting renomination; in 1885, in his inaugural address; in 1882, in his letter to the New York Civil-Service Association; in 1884, in his second message to the New York Legislature; in 1884, in a letter as Presidential candidate to the New York Civil-Service Reform Association; in the same year, in a letter to the Civil-Service Reform League; in 1885, in his letter accepting the resignation of Dorman B. Eaton; in 1885, in his first annual message to Congress; in 1886, in his second annual message; in 1893, in his inaugural address. On all these occasions and a great many others the President gave in his unqualified adhesion to the doctrine that the business of the government should be conducted on business principles, and that fitness, and *nothing else*, should be the qualification for the public service. The Chambers of Commerce, therefore, should they take the matter up, may see with what confidence they could approach him on this subject.

*THE FUTURE OF SILVER-MINING.*

The Senators and Representatives opposed to the repeal bill were of two general classes, those desiring "cheap money" and those whose constituents were interested in the mining of silver. It has been the belief of these latter that the profitableness of silver-mining and its very existence depended upon finding a market in the United States Treasury for the greater part of their product at artificial prices. They thought that the purchases by the federal Government under the Bland-Allison law and then under the Sherman act would carry the price of silver up to $1.29 per ounce, or to parity with gold at our ratio. In this they were greatly disappointed.

What now will be the effect of the passage of the repeal bill upon mining and the price of silver? Following out their old reasoning, the honest advocates of that metal are predicting general distress as well as ruin to the business of silver-mining, and consequently to the silver-producing States. Perhaps not all of them, while repeal was pending, believed that the prospect was as dark as they painted it. Perhaps they felt under the necessity of taking the blackest possible view in order to prevent some more dismal prophet, like Gov. Waite, from outbidding them for the votes of ignorant people. Senator Teller, for example, is not a baby, yet his final speech on the repeal bill was a most childish lamentation. One might think, after reading it, that the Senator and all of his constituents were about to enter Dante's Inferno and for ever leave hope behind. Neither Mr. Teller nor any silver advocate addressed himself to the actual condition of things, or attempted to show what would be the consequence of simply adhering to it. The actual condition was demonetization by India, and uncertainty as to the future action of the United States—these two main factors having resulted in a price for silver of about 73 cents per ounce. Neither Mr. Teller nor any of his colleagues ever said that they considered that condition a happy one. Nor did they ever say how or at what time they ever expected to reach a happier one. The only thing they could tell us was that repeal would make their condition in a general way much worse than it was before.

Neither their earlier nor their later prediction has been verified. Their earlier one, that the price of silver under the Sherman act would rise to $1.29 per

ounce, was based upon the idea that an enlarged and artificial demand would not lead to increased production. Their later one, that the withdrawal of the artificial demand would lead to a great decline of price, has been equally falsified. The non-paying mines, it is true, are closed. There is no harm in that. The paying ones have hitherto been operated at too high a cost. In many of the mines whose cost of production is really low, a number of hangers-on or superfluous officers have been employed, usually friends of the management, whose principal duty was to prevent the stockholders from getting excessive dividends. The miners' union, too, has been one of the strongest of trade associations, whose object was to share in the bounty accorded by the federal Government to silver by demanding for the men and receiving twice the wages ruling in other employments. One result of the stoppage of Government purchases will be to reduce the pay-rolls of the mining companies to the general level. Moreover, the business pressure which other manufactories feel, but from which silver-mining has been exempt, will stimulate invention, not only in the mechanical handling of ore, but in all directions. Of course, we must expect a period of adjustment, during which prices may fluctuate and losses, perhaps, be incurred; but we are justified in looking forward to a fairly profitable trade in silver—as profitable certainly as the mining of iron or of gold.

To begin with, there is the fact that quotations for silver have not sensibly declined since the passage of the repeal bill. After the closing of the India mints silver fell to 62 cents per ounce. Thereupon arose the heavy demand from Asia which, London being bare of stocks, sent the price up to 78 cents. It then fell slowly, and the average price during the late summer in New York was 73. On November 1 the quotation was 68½ cents, while now it stands at about 70, having actually advanced a few points on the announcement of repeal. This would indicate that the whole theory of the silver-mine owners in their fight for federal protection was founded on a misconception, and that the Government purchases were really a hindrance to the industry, giving it a false bottom and "rigging the market" in the face and eyes of the world. Certainly no legislative action of ours could alter the fact that nations which include a large portion of the human race will continue to use and to buy silver.

The repeal of the Sherman act has affected but a small part of the world's demand for silver. The fall in price last summer stimulated this demand, while the speculative quotations now ruling for silver bullion seem to reflect the opinion of London and New York brokers that the production of the American mines will find a market at a certain price not far from the present quotations. Whichever view of the future price we may take, the broad fact remains that there exists and always will exist a demand for silver bullion, which the American mines can easily and profitably supply. Colorado will not lose her mining industry, nor the people dependent upon it their business. The collapse of credit has hurt that State far more than any temporary or forced stoppage of silver-mining; for the latter when on a commercial footing will have a better basis than before. All the evidence we have leads to the conclusion that the repeal of the purchasing clause of the Sherman act will work no real harm to silver-mining; rather will in the end benefit it. There is therefore good ground for the belief that the silver advocates who have been contending as they thought for the very life of silver-mining, have in reality been fighting a mere shadow, a foe which existed only in their own imaginations.

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### *A NAVY WITH INTERROGATION POINTS.*

THE chagrin of the Navy Department and of the warrior press over the blunders just brought to light in the construction of the new war-ships is but natural. After the succession of patriotic thrills with which we have been called upon to witness the launching of our "commerce-destroyers" and formidable fighting machines, it is somewhat disheartening to find that five out of the seven commissioned within the twelvemonth are topheavy and unsafe, and must be radically made over. Only the other day Secretary Herbert was represented as breathing a sigh of relief at the safe arrival of the *Detroit* at Rio de Janeiro. She was despatched thither to strike terror to the hearts of foreign intermeddlers, but was so notoriously unseaworthy that it was considered about an even chance whether she would not founder on the way. The chiefs of the various naval bureaus are actively laying the blame for the bungling upon each other, but the practical question of interest to the country is, Why go ahead spending millions on ships which are certain to be obsolete in ten years, even if they are devoid of blunders in construction which make it doubtful if they will float at all?

An answer to this question is given in the last number of the *Engineering Magazine*, in which Lieut. W. H. Jaques, U. S. N., writes of "The United States Navy of 1893." In his article we find a most naïve revelation of the spirit pervading the Navy Department. He admits that all the principal problems of naval construction "are yet surrounded by interrogation points." He acknowledges that "already some of our types seem obsolete." But, he observes:

"This is not unnatural, and should not for a moment stop the good work. On the contrary, it should be an encouragement for further development in the sciences of naval architecture and ordnance, for the granting of more opportunities to the minds who have already accomplished so much, and larger appropriations for the employment of native labor and for the spread of the technical education that is so valuable to the nation and its people."

We may very likely be in for such disasters as overtook the *Victoria*, on account of her "instability and improper distribution of weights"; but never mind that. Our naval constructors must learn by experience, and every such calamity makes it less likely that the next one will come in exactly the same way.

In other words, the view of Lieut. Jaques, and presumably that of the department which he represents, is that the building of war-ships is principally in order to furnish material for repeated experiments. He takes the detached and impartial attitude of a scientist, and reminds one of the physicians who will grow enthusiastic over a "beautiful case" of hydrocephalus, and speak positively of "a most successful operation," irrespective of the fact that the patient died. What does it matter that the *Detroit* had to lie to for two days on her way from Hampton Roads to Barbados, all on account of her faulty construction? We ought to be thankful that the department will not now build any more ships of *that* kind, and that the science of naval architecture is by so much advanced.

In one candid and delightful paragraph, Lieut. Jaques commits himself completely to the doctrine that men-of-war are built principally to furnish occupation to the builders and designers. Speaking of conflicting views among naval experts and of frequent changes of model, he argues:

"These rapid changes are frequently used as arguments for inaction, but they are much less frequent than the returns of hunger that we do not hesitate to satisfy; separated by much greater periods than the seasons for which we provide constantly changing forms and qualities of clothing. But our attention to them is no less important, and the benefits to our industries and people not less useful; as an education, an occupation, a provision for adding to the usefulness and happiness and general benefit of our people; a safeguard and protection against the evils of the wars for which they are designed. Let us hope that these splendid engines may not be needed for other than purposes of occupation, education, discipline."

This is nothing less than the doctrine of final causes which Henry Crabb Robinson reports a Jena professor to have held, namely, that doctors did not exist because of disease, but that there were diseases precisely in order that there might be doctors, and quarrelling litigants in order that there might be lawyers, and miserable sinners in order that there might be clergymen. The lieutenant pushes the thing one step further, and says that war vessels are to be built in order that there may be occupation and education for those who build them.

What is involved for the taxpayers of the country in this amusement of the

constructors is pretty clearly intimated by Lieut. Jaques when he refers to the ridiculously small number of new ships now provided for by law. He says that "these will go but an infinitesimal way towards utilizing the facilities of our many shipbuilding plants." That is to say, if we *can* build ships we *must* build ships. Have not the shipbuilding plants been established in reliance upon the Government to keep them supplied with orders? Have they not a "vested interest" in new cruisers and torpedo-boats and harbor-defenders, and will it not be a breach of faith to make them turn for a living to the building of vulgar merchantmen? We do not see how any true believer in protection can oppose this logical extension of it, and we think the shipbuilders would be justified in getting up a Chilian war-scare every year in order to force a reluctant Congress to vote new ships, as some of them were heard to assert that they had done last year.

Meanwhile, it is likely that a well-informed Washington correspondent is right in predicting that the President's annual message will contain cold comfort for those who want a lot more of naval playthings. With the severest economy absolutely necessary, it is probable that we shall see a great revival of that "prairie idea of a navy" which is so heartrending to all fighting editors. It will doubtless give them acute inward pain, but we fear they will have to accustom themselves to a navy merely sufficient to do our official business, and not one filled with costly failures, or large enough to whip England with one hand tied behind our back.

## AN IDEAL CAMPING-PLACE.

TROUT LAKE, WASHINGTON, August, 1893.

THERE are many excellent trouting and tenting-places in the vicinity of the Oregon and Washington snow peaks, some near the glacial streams at their bases, others part way up their slopes—diverse Trout Lakes and Lost Lakes. Perhaps none of these combines so many advantages as Trout Lake near the foot of Mount Adams. It is reached from Portland by taking the Columbia River boat (ten hours) as far as White Salmon station, where a farmer can be easily induced to hitch up his team and take you to the lake in seven more hours. The Columbia River locks, unluckily, are not yet completed, and passengers are still subjected at the Cascades to the vexatious delay incident to unloading the freight from the lower to the upper steamer. Some changes have been made in the details within the last few years. The Union Pacific boats have been taken off the upper Columbia, so that those who wish to see that part of the river, as far as the Dalles, are obliged to take the boat of the Dalles, Portland and Astoria Navigation Company. The Union Pacific boats used to land on the Washington side of the river and transfer passengers and freight to the upper steamer by means of a primitive railway of about six miles. The new line takes its lower boat five miles further up the river, plunging boldly into the foaming cascades and landing on the Oregon side, where the locks begin, and whence it is less than a mile by rail to the placid safe water above the Cascades. The delay is about the same in both cases, but the trip up the rapids into the lower half of the Cascades—and down again on the return trip—is almost as exciting as shooting the rapids of the St. Lawrence River near Montreal. The disadvantage is that the long-continued rocking of the lower boat while it is being loaded, on the down trip, makes some very sensitive women and, it is said, even a few men, seasick—just at lunch-time, too.

At certain places and in some states of the weather this river does not need the aid of these rapids to make passengers seasick. I have often seen white caps on the upper Columbia, and surging billows as on our great lakes during a storm, with the spray dashing over the bow of the steamer. It is easy to account for this tempestuous wind, which in midsummer is almost of daily occurrence and always blows up the river. Eastern Oregon and Washington are largely a vast desert, where the summer thermometer ranges above a hundred. The hot air rising upward sucks in the cooler ocean and mountain air of western Oregon and Washington through the gap which the Columbia has found in the Cascade Mountains on its way to the Pacific. On the banks of the river this wind sometimes blows so violently that farmers are unable to load their hay, the wind unloading it as fast as it is pitched on the wagon. Squalls are as sudden as on mountain lakes, and residents on the upper Columbia dread crossing in small boats.

Along this "upper" part of the Columbia the scenery is as wild as the wind and waves; it is even more attractive than that between the Cascades and Portland; yet there is danger that in a year or two there may be no boat from which tourists can see and admire it. The Union Pacific Railroad is warring on the new steamboat line which was established by Dalles merchants to reduce extravagant freight rates to Portland. The railroad has now cut rates to an unprofitable point, in order to "freeze out" the boat, and many farmers are shortsighted enough to desert their friend for a momentary advantage. If the railroad company succeeds and returns to its old rates, no one will pity the foolish farmers, but it would be a shame not to have a single passenger steamer on the most romantic and bracing section of our grandest river, were it only until the locks are completed.

White Salmon Landing is simply a sandy curve of the bank encircled by a few trees. Here is some of the most fertile bottom-land, with several farmers to cultivate it. Grapevines flourish on the hot hillsides, and the young orchards are laden with fruit, entirely free from the worm which has done so much harm to the old Oregon apple orchards. The road to Trout Lake is a good one, and although the lake is 1,740 feet above the river, the ascent, except at the beginning, is so gradual as to be almost imperceptible. Settlers are few and very far between. After leaving the stores of White Salmon village, campers will have no more opportunity to lay in supplies except such as farmers can spare them. Along the whole road of twenty-eight miles there are but half-a-dozen visible farms and log-cabin "claims." Nor will you meet more than two or three teams, or perhaps a squaw with her pappoose behind her on horseback, smiling pleasantly as you nod to her, and probably on her way to buy provisions at the Dalles for her party engaged in fishing the white salmon—a small and inferior variety of that royal fish, which white folks do not usually deign to eat. The White Salmon, in which they flourish, is a turbid stream issuing from a glacier fed by Mount Adams. It is too deep and rapid for fording, and is crossed about half way up on a bridge near some low falls. Interest on the road centres in the magnificent forest, now dense with underbrush like an Indian jungle, and again, for miles, like a park—isolated, majestic firs, and yellow pines, without underbrush—strikingly resembling the Arizona forest near Flagstaff. Bears are occasionally seen to cross this forest road, on their way to the river for a drink or in quest of berries or ants. Here and there the trunk of a tree is seen stripped of its bark by bears in their eager hunt for their favorite titbit, the intelligent ant. Strange that so huge a brute should feed on such tiny insects and equally tiny berries, becoming carnivorous or dangerous only when driven by famine or attack. A few timber-wolves still exist hereabouts, and an occasional cougar. The farmers have a habit of turning loose their horses in the forest for months at a time. Occasionally a colt is eaten by a cougar, but they say that a bell around the colt's neck frightens off the beast of prey. That in such a region there are deer and grouse and other game for sportsmen needs no saying. On the flanks of Mt. Adams a kind of grouse occurs almost as large as a turkey, and the tracks of wild sheep or goats have been seen in the snow.

At frequent intervals along the Trout Lake road we come upon rough mounds of porous rock and sections of lava flow, evidence of the former volcanic activity of Mt. Adams. But among all the sights the pleasantest surprise was the mariposa lily or butterfly tulip, growing here in great abundance. It is equal in beauty to all but one or two of the California varieties, from which it differs in color and in having long narrow streamers between the petals. I have often wondered why some enterprising florist does not endeavor to popularize this loveliest of American flowers in New York. It would surely flourish there, for its climatic range is considerable. I have seen it near Mexico, on temperate Catalina Island, on the floor of the Yosemite Valley, as well as near the snows of Cloud's Rest, and now again as far north as eastern Washington, where it adorns the neighborhood of Trout Lake, a region where snow lies many feet deep all winter. Usually this snow disappears early in spring, but last winter the fall was so heavy that it did not all melt till May, and the grand neighboring mountain still had its upper mantle almost without black summer patches as late as mid-August.

On arriving at the lake we obtained Mr. Hoag's permission to pitch our tent in the shade of a group of cottonwood trees flourishing on the moist bank of the creek which flows from the lake. It is an ideal site for a tent—Mt. Adams from top to base in full view on one side and on the other some lower crests and forest-clad flanks of the Cascade Range. Hay for beds and wood for fuel can be obtained at a moment's notice, and water, cold as artesian, dipped from the creek whenever needed, nor is it the muddy outflow of a glacier, but pure spring water. There is no butcher's meat to be had, but plenty of spring chickens, eggs, butter, and vegetables at country prices, all of which, combined with an unlimited supply of trout, quite suffices to avert a Russian famine, even though your "stove" consists of a hole in the ground, a few rocks, and a square piece of sheet-iron. For dessert you can buy berries of the farmers (currants are here almost as large, individually and in clusters, as Delaware grapes), or pick thimble-berries or service-ber-

ries. The latter are not relished raw by some persons, but stewed they are delicious and curiously like stewed cherries in taste; in appearance they resemble blueberries. There are also huckleberries, Oregon grapes, wild gooseberries, raspberries, and blackberries. A zest is given to the outing appetite by the mountain air, which, although the place is but about 2,000 feet above sea-level, has the exhilarating quality that is usually found only at an elevation of 5,000. It is air which compares with that of the western part of the State as sparkling water does with lake water.

Trouting is less of a "sport" here than it was five years ago; that is, an unprincipled, selfish fellow cannot come here and murder three or four hundred trout in a day for the mere pleasure of catching them and throwing them away. But an expert still can "whip the rough surface for trout" and bag over a hundred a day, provided the surface *is* rough. Fortunately this is a windy region, calm days being the exception, for almost daily the stiff breeze from the Columbia River gap ruffles the surface of Trout Lake and Creek. Yet even in a calm day any fisherman of some slight skill can make sure of enough for his three daily meals. When fishing in the creek, it is well to have two hooks on the line; often a grasshopper, periwinkle, or bit of river-clam tempts when the artificial fly fails. For a larger catch the lake is the best place. A boat can be rented for fifty cents a day, and is necessary, as the water near shore is too shoal; indeed, the whole lake is grass-bottomed and rather shallow, so no danger need be apprehended from sudden gusts of wind. The largest fish known to have been caught here in recent years measured twenty-six inches in length; at present half-pounders are the average size. There are at least two varieties, one with white meat, the other pink, somewhat more juicy and richly flavored than the white.

With such fare, fun, and mountain air the ravages of city life are rapidly repaired. There are no troublesome flies, and although on some nights the sanguinary mosquito comes to claim his tithe, an arch of blue netting over the bed enables you to smile at his frantic musical efforts to gore you in the morning twilight. Hornets come as unbidden guests to the table, but they are harmless if unmolested. Equally harmless are the garter snakes that come boldly in quest of fish-heads and other camp refuse. One day I threw the axe at a big one and cut it in two. Before I could reach the head-piece it escaped into the creek. The next day this half-snake was found calmly basking in the sun, thirty feet from the tent. Rattlesnakes flourish at Hood River and White Salmon, but none has ever been seen within fourteen miles of Trout Lake, which is lucky, as they are said to have a neighborly way of nestling for warmth in the blankets of campers on cold nights. They would appreciate blankets in this region, where the summer nights are always cool and sometimes cold, a midsummer frost not being a curiosity. Yet it is rarely cold enough in the evening to make a camp-fire desirable, except for social and ornamental purposes. Nor is there any danger here of being compelled by rain to spend several days in the tent in shivering discomfort, or to make a board floor to prevent the hay-beds from being inundated. They do have summer rains at Astoria, sometimes at Portland too, but never by any chance in eastern Oregon and Washington, shut off as they are from the moist coast air by the Cascade Mountains. Here, as in southern California, the air is so dry and germ-free that meat escapes taint and milk refuses to turn sour. We tried it with a pint placed, with honorable gastronomic intentions, in the sun for four days, but it remained hopelessly sweet, and the corn-cakes had to be left to the imagination.

The greatest attraction of this ideal camping-place is its lion, Mount Adams, whose isolated summit pierces the clouds at a height of some 10,000 feet above the ocean level. It looks that height, every inch, in the daytime, but in the evening, when it turns gray and black, it seems a mere Eastern peak, so much difference does snow make in the grandeur of a mountain's aspect. The direction of the sun also affects its appearance remarkably; in the evening it is only half snow and half bare rock, while in the morning it appears all snow, and the rocks merely faint shadows on it. There are three peaks, the middle being the highest. The ascent can be made from Trout Lake in one very long day, with the aid of a sagacious Indian cayuse (pony), to find the faint return trail at night. There are no dangerous places, and the summit view includes all the peaks and ranges of Washington and Oregon. Clouds have to be taken into consideration in making the ascent; not infrequently they hide the sides, or sail along in splendid Alpine procession. One evening a large cloud, like a white turban, enveloped the head; another evening the clouds hovered massively over the summit, shooting skyward like the steam and smoke over active Vesuvius. There are sunset effects resembling the Swiss *Alpglühen*, and occasionally one can fancy a pink lava stream flowing down the snowfields, carrying back the imagination to the time when Adams was an active volcano, of which period the Indians still preserve the tradition in their legend of the fight between Hood and Adams, when they threw huge stones at each other, and blocked up the Columbia at the cascades by breaking up the natural bridge which, according to their tradition, once spanned it here. These Indian legends cannot be many centuries old, and they suggest the query whether these volcanic warriors will ever again belch forth their jealous wrath in stones and lava streams. Why should they not? Trout Lake is only eleven miles from the base of Adams, and there are numerous antique lava streams in its neighborhood, with other strange phenomena.

It is, indeed, an uncanny sort of place. In walking you will occasionally notice a hollow sound underneath; should you dig down you would probably come upon a cave. There are dozens of caves within a few miles of the lake —sudden holes in the ground into which you can descend and explore to your heart's content. The strangest thing about them is that some are lined with perennial ice. Every one, on hearing of the ice-caves near Mt. Adams, naturally fancies that they must have some connection with the glaciers of that mountain; but they have no more connection with the Adams glaciers than with the Muir glacier in Alaska. Adams has his ice-rivers which are distinctly visible from the lake as large brown spots, from their sandy surface; but this ice melts and forms the White Salmon River, without leaving the mountain side. In one of the ice caves a shrewd farmer stores his spring butter for autumn prices. The largest one known is about five miles from the lake, and can be reached by wagon. The road for the most part goes through a thin pine forest, the ground of which is densely covered with a luxuriant growth of wild hay. One farmer last year cut fourteen loads of this hay, and the region would make an ideal cattle ranch. Yet, although the flanks of Adams are said to have fed 40,000 sheep last year, no animals are seen in this region, which is still unclaimed Government land, not even yet surveyed.

Suddenly, in a perfectly level place, the wagon stops, and on the right there is a hole in the ground. It is only about twelve feet across, and on approaching the edge you will notice a pile of midsummer snow only ten feet below, barely out of reach of a broiling sun. A short ladder leads into the cave, and you are at once in an arctic abode where the sides are lined with thick ice which drips and forms huge icicles. The largest of these icicles, unfortunately, are carried away by farmers and fishermen to market their trout in; some day a guardian will be appointed. Guided by a torch of pitch-pine, one can explore the cave quite a distance on either side of the opening, coming out on the left side at a different hole. As we were studying the cave, an Indian came down the ladder with a tin bucket. He scooped up some ice-water from the floor and carried it to his squaws and children above. Contrary to Indian etiquette, he helped the women before he drank. On one of the ponies sat a girl of about four, who took care of two horses besides her own. Trout Lake is an excellent place to observe the gypsy-like family life of the reservation Indians. They are perfectly harmless, and can usually be relied on not to steal. One day one of them came to our tent with his two boys to beg fish-hooks, explaining that his boys were "no good," as they had lost his hooks. He walked off happy with a few flies, but did not thank me for them; they have learned to say "good morning" and "hallo," but not "thank you." When night comes they roll themselves in blankets, without other covering. In a camp a short distance down the creek we found a squalid old squaw, who tried to explain to us in Chinook and English that the day before had been very windy, consequently many white salmon were caught. Her small boy was munching a dried fish with as much relish as if it had been a stick of candy, and her grown daughter we had seen washing for a farmer. The main feature of the camp was a bower, ready to be covered with blankets and heated with hot stones, for the "old man" to take his air bath in. These Indians assemble hereabouts in considerable numbers during August for the salmon and for the huckleberries. There is one immense patch of these berries, about twenty miles from the lake, where as many as five thousand "braves" collect during berrying time. They have regular horse races, and there is much gambling, in which an Indian often stakes a hundred ponies at once, and, for a last resource, may throw his squaw into the balance. The squaws make mats of rushes, on which the berries are dried; they are then put into a sort of box or basket made of bark, and loaded on the cayuses to be taken to market, or to their store-rooms for home consumption.

About five miles from the lake there is a smaller huckleberry patch which should be visited, both to get a taste of the delicious berries and to see what one of the vast slopes of the Cascade range looks like when you get on it. There is no road, only a rough trail made by and for the Indians, crooked, like all their trails, and sometimes forcing itself among such dense bushes that the overhanging branches almost sweep one off the horse. These bushes are graceful willows, glossy-leaved, aromatic sweet-laurels (often seven feet high), and hazel. The laurel perfumes the air like an Oriental garden, and you can fill your pockets with hazel nuts without stopping the horse. There are

also millions of the dry but well-flavored thimble-berries, peeping from among the broad velvety leaves like pretty scarlet flowers. At an elevation of about 5,000 feet above sea-level we came upon the huckleberry bushes, which covered the whole mountain side. There are several varieties, some as large as small cherries; from three to four gallons have been taken from a single bush, and there was such a profusion that we did not wonder that the Indians we met did not resent our use of their trail and poaching on their preserves. The view from this mountain side includes Adams, Tacoma, and Hood. They were partly veiled by the usual summer smoke, which in a few days became so dense that we pulled up stakes and returned to Portland. From the elevated points we had reached, the superb forests of Oregon and Washington seemed illimitable and indestructible; but what with the annual forest fires and the new method of substituting gun-cotton for the woodman's slower axe, it is doubtful if they will survive another century. *Après nous le déluge.* HENRY T. FINCK.

## THE SOCIAL UNREST IN SICILY.

ITALY, October 15, 1893.

ONCE again the Sicilian question is occupying the attention of the public, the Government, the press; and again the Minister of the Interior has sent Senator Sensalis to institute a fresh "inquiry" into the condition of the agricultural and working classes. This is simply a loss of time, for inquiries have been made during the last twenty years, always yielding the same results—the proofs that misery, ignorance, and superstition are rife throughout the island, and that nothing has been done or even attempted to ameliorate the wretched condition of the people, either in the large towns or in the few rural districts where the agricultural populations are agglomerated. When we say that nothing has been done or attempted, it must not be forgotten that the Government, with Crispi at the helm, did succeed in passing certain beneficial laws on the understanding that they were to be put into execution immediately. The charitable institutions were to be reformed; all the *opere pie* that no longer responded to the wants of modern civilization were to be transformed. Such legacies as provided for the assistance of the poor, the sick, for education or instruction, or for certain families, were to be preserved, but to be reformed and administered by the congregations of charity to be chosen by the members of the municipal councils. The lands, funds, and buildings belonging to the charitable institutions abolished or transformed were to be devoted to hospitals, to orphanages, to the new foundations for waifs and strays, etc., etc. Another excellent law was that relating to strikes. Hitherto the Government, the local authorities, the police had combined against strikers *as such;* as trike being unlawful. Now only intimidation and violence were to be prevented and punished.

Again, the new law on coöperative societies for undertaking public works by the Government, the province, or the commune was excellent. Societies of bona-fide workingmen were to be allowed to assume the works not exceeding a certain sum; they were to be paid every fortnight, a tenth part of the sum to be retained until the works completed should be pronounced "in order." A certain reform of the police was decreed. Then the Crispi Government was overthrown, and the cabinet that succeeded, on the pretext of economy, or simply out of indifference, failed to apply the new laws. Hence the last state of the poor populations is worse than the first. A splendid sanitary code was sanctioned by both the House and the Senate. It provided among other things for the decent housing of the poor—the building of sanitary houses was rendered obligatory. The code remains a dead letter. When the cholera devastated the southern provinces in 1884 in Naples, and in 1886 in Palermo, for Naples the nation voted a free gift of a hundred millions for the *disembowelling* of the awful slums of Porto, Pendino, etc., for the building of large tenements with every apparatus of modern sanitation. This sum has been squandered, pillaged by speculators. Many of the slums were destroyed and the people evicted before any new tenements were prepared for their reception. The slums left standing were sublet by the company to usurers who crowded in double the number of the evicted, making each pay a higher rent. Now the works are almost suspended. The chief culprit withdrew from the society and was made a Senator.

In Palermo the cholera in 1886 carried off in two months 2,500 victims of the very poorest denizens of the *catodi* (one-roomed huts with no windows on the ground floor). If things there have not been carried on with such a total disregard to honesty and decency as in Naples, the habitations of the poor have been but slightly ameliorated, and only in those portions of the city which surrounded the great exhibition. But there, to the shame of the authorities, the huge, unsightly *Teatro Massimo*, which from first to last will cost the city ten millions, is being completed. In that city where, owing to the different system wisely pursued by the authorities, the works are divided into small lots, the coöperative societies of bona-fide workingmen applied for lots. Not one was accorded. In Palermo the charitable institutions are in a sorry plight. Huge foundations for the old, the sick, for orphans, merely serve to feed a horde of administrators. Inquiries have been instituted, and these gross thefts have been proved, but the robbery goes on and the poor are defrauded of their rights. The hospital of that populous city is insufficient for even the few utterly destitute who have no home, no relations to tend them. The foundling hospitals are abominations all over Sicily; the children retained in the buildings die off quickly, those farmed out fare little better, and we might fill pages with the abuses, the cruel sufferings inflicted on the poor by the rich without exhausting the subject. Yet still the climax of horrors is not reached till we come to the agricultural classes, who are literally starving in that fertile soil under that sunny sky.

People call Sicily the Ireland of Italy. It is a telling phrase, but conveys a false idea. The land question in Ireland is simply a question between landlords and tenants. In Sicily it is the question of two-thirds of the population—of the real, actual, sole tillers of the soil—that is at stake. The abolition of feudal estates in 1812 by the barons themselves wrought little or no change in the condition of the peasants, or rather it aggravated the hardships. The barons no longer owned feudal estates, but the estates remained theirs just the same, and, despite the abolition of the laws of primogeniture and of the transmission of land to the male descendants only, very little change has ensued, as the nobility have small families, and the portion (by law one-half of the whole substance must be divided equally among all the children) is generally given in money; the eldest son still continues to inherit the land. The one law which ought to have wrought wonders for the peasants, providing for the abolition of the common right of cutting wood, pasturing flocks, and the substitution of an equivalent portion of the land itself, to be divided among the poor of the commune who used to pasture their flocks and cut wood, has never been executed save in a few communes. The lands handed over to the communes have been usurped by the proprietors, just as were the English commons and open spaces which belonged to the people. Again, all the ecclesiastical property sequestrated by the Government, and sold or let on long leases, which was to create a peasant ownership, was indeed put up in small lots, but the *camorra* at the outset bought up the greater portion, and, where some real peasants acquired small lots, within a few years either the want of capital for cultivation and the enormous land tax compelled them to sell the deteriorated land for a nominal price, or the *fisco* seized it and evicted the proprietor for arrears. Had the land thus concentrated in the hands of a few wealthy individuals been properly cultivated, the peasants would have had at least work and pay; but the old proprietors, the barons, retired from the country altogether—many have never seen their estates. These were let to speculators who knew and cared nothing for the cultivation of the soil. Many of these *gabellotti* live at Palermo, even as do the barons, and their land is underlet in various manners always most oppressive to the tiller of the soil.

They talk of the métayer system, but that, as it is known in Tuscany, does not exist in Sicily. The peasant who has a horse or mule or a donkey, has to plough the soil and to sow it with seed lent by the master, who retakes it, in superior quantity and quality, at the harvest; he then has to weed, hoe, reap, thresh, sift, carry to the threshing-floor; and when all these operations are performed, under the scorching summer heat or freezing winter, the peasant is entitled to one-fourth after paying no end of dues, his portion of the taxes, the soup for the overseer, the priest who comes to bless the grain. Sometimes he gets one-third *on paper*, but generally, as he has had to get subsidies in grain mixed with earth during the winter, he goes home with *il tridente intorno al collo*, with no wheat for winter bread or maccaroni paste, but condemned to live on beans—not haricot, but horse-beans, which form the staple food of the peasantry in Italy. Often his portion of the crops is insufficient to repay the winter debt; then the overseer seizes his horse, or mule, or donkey, and the *mezzadro* is reduced to the ranks of the common laborer. As there are no country habitations, the peasant has to walk miles and miles to and from his work, and, in the summer, camp out for weeks; of water fit to drink, there is none, so he wears out his weary life till fever, malaria, or simple exhaustion from fatigue and want of food ends all with "the happy release."

Travellers who visit the large cities of Sicily, and make excursions in their neighborhood to visit the ancient monuments, the relics of days when Sicily was cultivated as perhaps no land before or since in Italy, when it was the granary of the Roman empire, when whole tracts of soil were known as the hundred-seed plain, may object to these statements as exaggerated, and say, "Why, in the Golden Shell round Palermo, in the nursery kitchen-gardens round Caltanissetta, in the almond plantations below Girgenti, I have seen well-to-do

peasants, working on thriving farms full of pigs, poultry, and milch cows, splendid mules, and strong, if lean, oxen." This is true, for round all the cities of the seven provinces the land is highly cultivated and irrigated. If it formerly belonged to the feudal lords, it is retained still by their descendants. If, instead, it happened to be sold to some private individual at the time of the dispersion of ecclesiastical property, you may be sure that he has kept hold of it, farms it well, and pays his laborers at least decently. In the first place, public security close to large cities is generally safeguarded so that the proprietor can visit, even live on his farm; then, he finds ready market for his produce, be it wine, oranges, lemons, live stock, or cereals. But these small tracts are exceptions to the rule in comparison with the immense *latifondi*, where you find neither trees nor water nor habitations. These perfections only show the general defection; the state of the peasant who works on them proves what a fine, robust race it is which is now being gradually deteriorated. These things were repeated *ad nauseam* in the grand agricultural inquiry set on foot by Bertani, and which for Sicily alone occupies five folio volumes of six hundred pages each, in the works of Sonnino and Franchetti, in numerous other works, and the result is that the peasant population is far worse off now than under the worst days of the Bourbon. For in the bad old days the rich and not the poor were taxed; now it is the tax on consumption, on grain, wine, meat, eggs, poultry, vegetables — even the sticks that the poor go out to pick up—that takes their last mite; this, and the rent for the pigsties in which they herd together.

What wonder, therefore, that, after waiting painfully for thirty years for the signori to do something for them, these very peasants and the miners, whose lot is still harder, have decided to do or to attempt to do something for themselves; that they lend a willing ear to the only leaders who have cast in their lot with them, and resolved to stand or fall together? I allude to the formation of the Fasci dei Lavoratori, whose societies are increasing in every town and village in the island, whose numbers, amounting to over 300,000, have fallen like a thunderbolt from a cloudless sky on the very signori who have been fattening and thriving on the charitable institutions, on the land that belongs to the people. When I was in Sicily two years since, I had opportunities of conversing freely with every class of Sicilian, and, with the aid of the *medici condotti* and doctors in general, arrived at a pretty clear understanding of what were the feelings of the lower towards the higher orders of creation, and I was quite prepared for any amount of combination and resistance on the part of the workingmen, and especially of the miners. But no aftermath of knowledge can make me believe that I then thought the peasants would be the first and foremost to combine, to contribute their money towards a scheme which only promises to better their lot in the future. They seemed too patient, too hopeless, too resigned, in Mohammedan fashion, to the inevitable. The younger men, indeed, especially those who had served their time as soldiers, muttered curses low and deep when an overseer was unusually insolent or they were defrauded of more than the usual share; but between this and the gigantic union now formed there seemed an abyss. The leaders of the Fasci have merely given a voice to the ever less and less inarticulate groanings, moanings, and curses. The leaders call themselves collectivists, socialists, not anarchists; these they disclaim, and forbid to membership, maintaining that as order is the law of the universe, as disobedience to the laws of nature has produced all the evils from which humanity now suffers, from anarchy and confusion nothing but confusion and anarchy can result. Neither are they republicans or puritans. No, they take things as they find them, and for the first time in their history are really teaching the people the power that lies in numbers, who shall vote all, vote all together, vote for the candidate whom the majority of the members shall decide on. It is extraordinary that, in so short a time for propaganda, they should have gained so much influence as to be absolutely obeyed. During the last administrative elections many of the candidates of the Fasci were duly elected, and now sit on the city councils. One of these, Signor Petrina, whom I last saw in prison at Milazzo, where he was undergoing a long sentence as a socialist, is now bringing home to the municipality of Messina certain deeds of evil—peculation on a large scale—in a fashion that is little to the liking of the signori who are his colleagues.

The attitude of the upper and middle classes in the island itself is abject; they seem terrified, paralyzed. The members of Parliament, with two exceptions, simply urge the Government to send large bodies of troops, on the pretext of restoring public security, but in reality to arrest the leaders of the Fasci and disperse the members of the societies. Two Sicilian members have spoken freely, and have laid the case of Sicily before the House with precision and no exaggeration; these are the member for Catania, Gioffredo de Felice, whose conduct since his election has won for him golden opinions from adversaries and honest men who in the early part of his career deplored his methods; and the famous Colaiani, a man of high integrity and strong intellect, who is a socialist and a collectivist, but who deprecates any propaganda which shall stir up the people to revolt before the time when they can effect a triumphant revolution. But the Government seems to take no heed of the warnings given. While the state of public insecurity is such in the province of Palermo, Cattaneo, and Syracuse that neither proprietors nor peasants are safe on the high road; when syndics are sequestrated and liberated only on the secret payment of large sums to the malefactors; when poor fishermen are robbed and murdered, carters beaten and left for dead (which facts show that the miscreants are vulgar thieves without even the courage of the old brigand of romance); when the Government and the local authorities are unable to cope with this state of things—when the murderers of Notarbartolo are undiscovered, and the pillagers of the provincial treasury of Caltanissetta unpunished—the concentration of the efforts of the police on the arrest of the leaders of the Fasci and on the dispersion of the members is pitiful, contemptible, dangerous.

What are the objects of these associations—the union of the workingmen, of the miners, of the peasants? The workmen seek to obtain better wages from employers, or to form cooperative societies, in which the workmen shall enjoy all the profits of their labor; the miners to insure a minimum price—a sliding scale in certain parts—so that a fall of prices in sulphur shall not affect the miners' wages only. Many insist that the mining law which denies private ownership in mines in other portions of Italy be applied to Sicily. The peasants demand an entire revision of present agricultural contracts by which the peasant, if he cannot hope to receive a fair half, shall at least not be mulcted of his fair third. The peasants have defined their intentions with extraordinary precision, though one is often puzzled to translate their demands into Italian, still less into a foreign language. There is nothing revolutionary in them, but the owners and tenants have refused to grant them. In some districts the peasants struck, and as they had induced the *pastori* and herdsmen to join them, many had to give in and the peasants went to work as usual. The strikes are perfectly legal, unaccompanied by violence, yet the Government has ordered the arrest of many of the chiefs. After a few weeks or months of imprisonment, all have been set at liberty because no cause has been found to send them before a court of assizes. The one text of these chiefs to their followers is: "No violence; keep within legal limits!"

It has been said in some of the Italian papers that the Sicilians are meditating separation from the continent. This is untrue. What they have claimed from the first is a certain autonomy which Mazzini, the most absolute and rigid unitarian, admitted to be necessary in a certain degree for the islands. Sicily cannot be governed from Rome any more to-day than in the olden times when the great slave wars kept Rome at bay. The men who represent Sicily in Parliament are not the chosen of her people, with very few exceptions, but Government candidates, who succeed by Government corruption, by the interference of the police, who ought to be looking after thieves, blackmailers, vagabonds, and evildoers in general. And Italy does ill thus to neglect and ill-treat the patriotic population of the island which has ever sided with Europe against Africa, with civilization against barbarism, and which now, with France in possession of ancient Carthage, with ports and military stations everywhere on the opposite coast, will still be Italy's bulwark in the struggle that seems inevitable and may soon commence. The Sicilians are Italians to the backbone; the present movement of the masses is not directed against Italy, but against the classes who oppress them. The most extraordinary feature of the movement is the entrance on the scene of Sicilian women. Hitherto women in Sicily have kept aloof from all political or social questions; now they are foremost in the fray. They have formed their own *Fasci*, the female sections being separate from those of the males, and are the most enthusiastic attendants at the conferences. They support their husbands during their strikes, scoff at the spies or agents who go to learn something of the men's movements, and, on being asked why they neglect the Sunday mass, answer that "they learn more useful things at the Fasci." The very name seems to fascinate them; Garibaldi always used it to promote union. "Form your Fasci," he would say, and tell the story of the bundle of faggots, and then dilate on the importance of that symbol of union among the Romans.

Hitherto the poor peasants, isolated, suspicious one of the other, have been dominated and despoiled; now that they are united, it will be difficult to crush them. Senator Sensalis is a Sicilian, has been prefect in various provinces, was successful in discovering a real association of malefactors in Girgenti, called the Fratellanza, or brotherhood. The chiefs of the Fasci present themselves to him, and as yet he seems more impressed by the general misery of the populations than by the danger of the associations. The cholera in Palermo continues, but the victims are few, owing to the amelioration of the sanitary re-

gulations; nevertheless its presence is detrimental to commerce and industry. The agrarian crisis, the low price of sulphur, the phylloxera and other maladies affecting the vines, all tend to aggravate the situation, while the rigorous application of the income tax—its increase in some parts—falls heavily on the small traders and families with limited incomes.

The outlook is gloomy indeed, and not only for Sicily but for the whole of Italy. On the continent, however, the crops and the vintage have been on the whole excellent; while in the island the extreme drought has spoiled the corn, barley, and fava bean crops. To-day the prime minister, Giolitti, is to expound his financial and political programme at Dronero. Never was there more needed in Italy a great statesman, versed in finance and in administration, who should be able, by his integrity and ability, to command a working majority in the House, representing the various classes and interests in the country. At present, no signs of such a man appear on the horizon, and the enemies of the new kingdom at home and abroad seem preparing to take advantage of the situation. J. W. M.

## ISOCHROMATIC PHOTOGRAPHY AND VENETIAN PICTURES.

VENICE, October 14, 1893.

AT last we are to have good photographs of the great pictures at Venice. Those who care for Venetian art will rejoice to hear that two of the best photographers in Italy, Alinari Brothers of Florence and Domenico Anderson of Rome, have been hard at work all the summer and autumn photographing the most interesting pictures in Venice and neighboring towns. The difficulties in the way are immense, and they are not usually understood by any but the initiated. In the first place, many of the finest pictures left upon the altars for which they were painted are practically invisible. Even at the hours at which Baedeker advises or the local guide takes you to see them, they are often mere dim outlines, hidden in the gloom of overhanging arches or deep cornices. Or else the restorer's brush has converted them into sparkling mirrors of dusty varnish which are far more tantalizing than enjoyable. Every one will remember the impossibility of getting a good look at the great Bellini in San Zaccaria, and the Titian in the Gesuiti, the miseries of dazzling lights and obscuring shadows that make a visit to the Scuola di San Rocco a mingled cup of delight and discomfort, and the disappointments that attend the attempt to peer through the darkness that hides such pictures as the Bellini at San Francesco della Vigna, or the Sebastianos in San Bartolommeo in Rialto. The splendid series of Tiepolos in San Polo is absolutely invisible except by candle-light. The Bellini of the Frari, Tintoretto's "Marriage in Cana" in the Salute, and a hundred others that it would be tedious to enumerate, are placed directly in front of windows, so that the glare of light practically blinds the eye to the details of the picture.

Even in the Academy things are little, if any, better. On a rainy day there is no light at all, and, when the sun shines, the curtains are quickly drawn over the skylights of the large rooms, reducing the Carpaccios and Gentile Bellinis, the Tintorettos and Bonifazios, to dim ghosts of themselves, in order, forsooth, that a ray of sunlight may not fall on the upper corner of a tenth-rate skied Mansueti! The great "Pietà," Titian's last masterpiece, begun in his ninety-sixth year, is so placed between the reflecting lights of two windows and a door that an impatient critic like Mr. Kenyon Cox may almost be excused for comparing it contemptuously to old cheese.

But if this state of things is hard upon the ordinary sightseer, it is harder still upon the photographer and upon the connoisseur. For the two go to a great extent hand in hand. Printing itself scarcely could have had a greater effect on the study of the classics than photography is beginning to have on the study of the Old Masters. If most people are still incredulous about the possibility of giving a rational, systematic basis to the criticism of art, it is largely due to the fact that until very recently any accurate comparison of pictures was out of the question. The basis of connoisseurship is the assumption that an artist in his work develops steadily and gradually, and does not change his hand more capriciously or rapidly in painting than in writing. Unsigned works, therefore, are ascribed to this or that master, as are fragments of the classics when they come to light, by fancied or actual resemblances to signed or otherwise perfectly authenticated works. But the hitch in connoisseurship has always been in comparison. In the days of slow travel, when there were no photographs of old pictures to be had, the connoisseur was obliged to depend largely upon prints. But a moment's comparison of even the best print with its original will show how utterly untrustworthy and even misleading such an aid to memory must be. No engraver, however well intentioned, can help putting a great deal of himself into his reproduction. His print has no other value than that of a copy. The connoisseurs and art historians, therefore, who had to depend on prints, no matter how good a general notion of a painter's various compositions they might have drawn from this source, could have next to no acquaintance with those subtlest elements in his style which distinguish him from the mere copyist or clever imitator.

Is it surprising, then, that really accurate connoisseurship is so new a science that it has as yet scarcely found its way into general recognition? Few people are aware how completely it has changed since the days before railways and photographs, when it was more or less of a quack science, in which every practitioner, often in spite of himself, was more or less of a quack. Quackery in the criticism of art is unfortunately not less common now than it was then, but the difference is that the quack no longer has the least excuse for himself. Of the writer on art to-day we all expect not only that intimate acquaintance with his subject which modern means of conveyance have made possible, but also that patient comparison of a given work with all the other works by the same master which photography has rendered easy. It is not at all difficult to see at any rate nine tenths of a great master's works (Titian's or Tintoretto's, for instance) in such rapid succession that the memory of them will be fresh enough to enable the critic to determine the place and value of any one picture. And when this continuous study of originals is supplemented by isochromatic photographs, such comparison attains almost the accuracy of the physical sciences.

To realize what a difference has been made in art study by railways and photographs, one need only compare three writers on Raphael, each of them epoch-making in art history. Passavant's researches were undertaken before the present development of railways and before photography had been applied to the Old Masters. His work, therefore, is so unsound that to-day it no longer has any value. Even his æsthetic criticism, based as it was on a perfectly inadequate acquaintance with the subject, generally rings false. Cavalcaselle also had the misfortune of having taken his notes and formed his method before photography could aid him. His consequent satisfaction with the *à peu près* robs his work of all those delicate distinctions which make the difference between criticism and indiscriminate praise or blame. Morelli was the first critic who made systematic use of photographs, and the overwhelming superiority of his work from the point of view of connoisseurship is so great that even his bitterest opponents have been obliged to adopt most of his conclusions.

Morelli, however, as a student, gave somewhat disproportionate attention to the study of drawings and of the Tuscan painters, interesting himself much less in the Venetian school. It could scarcely have been otherwise until three or four years ago. The old system of photography was, even in the hands of the best operators, incapable of rendering the values of the colors—only fit, at the best, to give an accurate notion of the outline. Drawings consequently were photographed pretty satisfactorily by the old system, while paintings as a rule came out wretchedly. This was less true of the Tuscans, because in their works the line is of much greater importance than the color. But for the Venetians, who depend more upon color than upon line, this system was totally inadequate. Isochromatic photography alone is capable of keeping the relative values of the different colors. Ordinary photography, by changing blue to white, and red and yellow to black, distorted and confused a portrait to such an extent that it was no longer recognizable. To obviate this difficulty, the photograph was freely retouched by ordinary operators destitute of special artistic talent, and so departed farther and farther from the original. Even an engraving gave a better idea of Titian or Tintoret than photographs of this kind, such as Naya's, for instance, for the engraving was executed by a person with at least some pretence to art culture. Even until recently it seemed so impossible to get a good reproduction without retouching, that it occurred to an eminent engraver, Mr. Cole, to devote his talents to this work—for his engravings from the Italian masters are nothing but photographs retouched on the engravers' block by an artist, instead of on the negative by a mere operator.

Those, however, who wished for accurate impersonal renderings of the Old Masters continued sighing for photographs of pictures at Venice such as have been made of the Louvre, the National Gallery and Dresden by Braun, of Berlin by Hanfstängel, of Vienna by Löwy, and of Milan by Marcozzi. It is true that perhaps more Venetian masterpieces are to be seen abroad than in Venice. Yet the pictures at Venice happen to be peculiarly useful to the student because of the undoubted authenticity of many of them, and peculiarly desirable for the ordinary tourist, whose acquaintance with Venetian painting usually begins and often ends in Venice itself. It is therefore most welcome news to hear that two such splendid photographers are already in the field.

The Alinaris are too well known a firm to need description. Suffice it to say that they have set to themselves the noble task of photographing isochromatically every good picture in Italy. They have already done most of Tuscany and Naples, and have just finished

Padua, Vicenza, Treviso, and even Castelfranco, so that at last everybody can have a perfect reproduction of Giorgione's one absolutely authenticated work. Anderson, although more of an artist, is less known. He devotes himself entirely to photographing pictures, and his reproductions are in consequence more satisfactory than those of any other photographer. They render the values to perfection, keep the tone, and are scrupulously faithful to the line. Leaving out the color, they are the pictures themselves on a smaller scale. Part of his extraordinary success comes from the fact that he always develops and prints them himself, and, having a good artistic memory, he is able to bring out in them, by careful exposure, just the tone that best recalls the original. Printed darker, that effect would be lost; printed too light, they would not recall the reality.

But the difficulties do not begin and end with the printing. What patience it takes to discover exactly the right moment for reflecting the light from a church window or door upon some hidden treasure, what skill it requires to balance the mirror so that the reflected light never dwells too long upon one spot; and, above all, what science is necessary to focus so that every part of the picture comes out with equal clearness! To photograph a picture is far from being the mechanical pursuit the Italian Government evidently considers it, putting all sorts of annoyances in the photographer's way, laying ridiculous taxes on his work, as if it were an unskilled trade, and giving him no proper guarantees for his copyright. In the light of all these difficulties, and considering the importance of photography in art study, such photographers as Alinari and Anderson are regarded by students with something of that gratitude entertained for Aldus and his sons by the scholars of the sixteenth century. B. Berenson.

# Correspondence.

## THE AMERICAN PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have as yet seen no reference in the *Nation* to the very remarkable movement in progress in some of our States. The memorial presented in the House of Representatives, in Washington, from Mr. Youmans, former member of the House from the Eighth Michigan District, who claims to have been defeated by the efforts of a secret, oath-bound, anti-Catholic, political society, known as the American Protective Association, has called the attention of the whole country to the matter. The movement has been in progress here for some time, and a brief report of it may be of some interest to your readers.

When it began cannot be told with exactness. It has certainly been in operation over a year. The methods employed have been as follows: Documents, purporting to be authoritative utterances of the Roman Catholic hierarchy, were passed from hand to hand. No one could tell where these had been printed or who was responsible for them. One was entitled "Instructions to True Catholics"; another purported to be an encyclical letter from the Pope, calling upon the faithful to rise on a certain date (September 13) to massacre all Protestant heretics. Certain newspapers, filled with similar literature, with the most alarming reports of Roman Catholics drilling and arming in preparation for an outbreak, and making the most shocking charges against priests and nuns, were sent to prominent persons and distributed from hand to hand. Accompanying these were the most exaggerated reports of the number of Roman Catholics holding public office. It was said that they practically controlled our municipal, county, State, and national governments, and that this was part of a deep scheme to capture the entire country. Protestants were urged to organize to resist the nefarious design. Councils of the American Protective Association were organized. To-day they claim ten thousand members in this city of one hundred thousand inhabitants. One public-spirited clergyman, the Rev. Washington Gladden, denounced it from his pulpit. No doubt this courageous action did something to check its progress, but it had already attained great headway. Several ministers identified themselves with the association, and sympathetic addresses were publicly made. An exposé of the inner workings and obligations of the order was published, the material having been secured, it was understood, by the representatives of a detective agency. There can be no doubt that each member takes an oath to boycott all Roman Catholics, politically and industrially. The exact words of the oath are—"that I will not employ a Roman Catholic in any capacity, if I can procure the services of a Protestant," and "that I will not countenance the nomination, in any caucus or convention, of a Roman Catholic for any office in the gift of the American people, and that I will not vote for, nor counsel others to vote for, any Roman Catholic, but will vote only for a Protestant."

The organization has already had influence in local politics, and not a little excitement has been stirred up. There can be little doubt that it has captured the local Republican organization. This, at least, is certainly true, that the Republican politicians are using it. The principal newspapers have said nothing either in condemnation or approval. They are evidently waiting to see which way the wind will blow. Stranger still, many of the ministers, chiefly of the Methodist and Baptist persuasions, get the credit of being members. How they reconcile the oath with the teachings of Christ, of which they profess to be expounders, doth not yet appear.

Advices from other places show that the movement has been pushed by precisely the same methods as here—forged documents, lying misrepresentations, and newspapers that should be a hissing and an amazement wherever there are public schools. Some communities have been almost panic-stricken in anticipation of an uprising of the Roman Catholics to murder Protestants. The movement has been rampant in the cities of Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Indiana. It has appeared in St. Paul and in Kansas City. It has been working eastward, and is now in Buffalo, N. Y. Altogether it has been a most singular and astonishing revelation of the ignorance of many people in our enlightened communities, and a new evidence of the strength and tenacity of religious bigotry. Let us hope that we may have an investigation from Congress that will reveal it to the whole country. Such a movement grows in darkness and perishes in the light.—Respectfully yours,

Alexander Milne.

Columbus, O., October 31, 1893.

## MEDICAL EXAMINERS FOR PENSIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To a person who, like this correspondent, has had occasion as a private medical adviser to see great numbers of pensioners, the justice and good sense of "B.'s" article in No. 1478 are apparent. It is easily seen how the members of the pension boards may be influenced by the fact that the examiners are dependent, as private practitioners of medicine, upon the claimants and their friends. It is a fact that there is no guarantee of even a moderately fair medical education in the possession of a diploma or the license of a State board of examiners. The only class of medical practitioners of whom the public can know that the members are thoroughly qualified, is that of the medical corps of the army and navy, and these men are independent of the pension-seekers.

The reform is highly needed in the interest of the Treasury, but yet more in the interest of public morality.—Respectfully, H.

Minneapolis, October 28, 1893.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The complimentary suggestion (*Nation*, No. 1478) that the medical officers of the army and the navy would be suitable examiners of applicants for pensions, leads to the comment that the majority of the army medical officers are west of the Mississippi, where the civil population is sparse. Those who are at more eastern stations are too few and far between to avail. There are very large areas with masses of population and, presumably, multitudes of applicants where no medical officers at all would be accessible. Where they are stationed within reach, as at Fort Sheridan, Ill., Columbus, O., West Point, N. Y., and the artillery garrisons near the cities on the coast, their time is fully occupied with their current work. To undertake in addition that proposed would interfere with their efficiency in both. Frequent or irregular absence from their stations would be detrimental to the public service. It will not do to assume that their time is not pretty well occupied already.

As to the medical officers of the navy, the conditions appear to be similar. Those at sea would, of course, be unavailable. Those on shore duty are scattered along the seaboard. Those awaiting orders or on leave might be supposed available; but they are not numerous, and such assignments would change their official status and might derange their regular tours.

In fact, both bodies combined do not make a large number.

A Medical Officer of the Army.

October 28, 1893.

## PEOPLE'S BANKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The reviewer of "People's Banks," by Wolff, in *Nation* No. 1478, says: "We are unable to give implicit credence to his statements. Some of his information, however, is evidently trustworthy," and closes with the wish that the author might be encouraged to continue his studies and later publish more facts and less "hearsay and imagination"; as though statistical information of a thoroughly reliable nature were still not only desirable but inaccessible. Please allow a subscriber to call public attention to certain articles bearing on the subject of Mr. Wolff's book which may be found in many private and in most public collections of economic literature, and which are therefore reasonably accessible. It is true, I have not had opportunity to verify the articles, but they are published under circumstances that strongly commend them to stu-

dents of economic literature. I refer to articles in the *Handwoerterbuch der Staatswissenschaften*, edited by Profs. Conrad, Lexis, and others (noticed *passim* in the *Nation*, volume 52), viz., articles on Raiffeisen, volume v., p. 340; Schulze-Delitzsch, volume v., p. 600; "Darlehnskassenvereine," volume ii., p. 906; "Kreditgenossenschaften," volume iv., p. 880; "Konsumvereine," volume iv., p. 838; "Erwerbs- und Wirtschaftsgenossenschaften," vol. iii., p. 308.

Readers who have to depend on works in English would appreciate an estimate of Wolff based on a comparison with the authorities cited.—Respectfully,

FREDERICK W. MOORE,
Adj. Prof. of History and Economy.

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY,
NASHVILLE, TENN, October 31, 1893.

## THE TRIBE OF ATHLETES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the course of my reading I have met with the following lines from the "Autolycus" of Euripides, which I transcribe as translated in Symonds's 'Greek Poets.' Euripides, it is said, was educated to be an athlete; his words, therefore, have especial force, and perhaps are worthy of the attention of our college presidents and trustees, and of that small body of students who, in the present-day revival of athletics, are hoping and working for a revival of learning.—Yours truly,

HENRY RUTGERS MARSHALL.

October 31, 1893.

"Of all the thousand ills that prey on Hellas
Not one is greater than the tribe of athletes;
. . . . . .
How to be poor and row in fortune's boat
They know no better; for they have not learned
Manners that make men proof against ill luck.
Lustrous in youth, they lounge like living statues
Decking the streets; but when sad old age comes,
They fall and perish like a threadbare coat
I've often blamed the customs of us Hellenes,
Who for the sake of such men meet together
To honor idle sport and feed our fill;
For who, I pray you, by his skill in wrestling,
Swiftness of foot, good boxing, strength at quoits,
Has served his city by the crown he gains?
Will they meet men in fight with quoits in hand,
Or in the press of shields drive forth the foeman
By force of fisticuffs from hearth and home?
Such follies are forgotten face to face
With steel. We therefore ought to crown with wreaths
Men wise and good, and him who guides the State,
A man well tempered, just, and sound in counsel,
Or one who by his words averts ill deeds,
Warding off strife and warfare; for such things
Bring honor on the city and all Hellenes."

## COLUMBIAN EXPECTORATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The feeling and appropriate letter of your correspondent on the subject of "Columbian Expectoration" recalls a deliciously unconscious bit of description of manners which unfortunately cannot be called local, that was to be seen (and still is, for all I know to the contrary) at the Natural Bridge in Virginia. The narrow country road runs close below the wide pleasant veranda in front of the second-story bar-room—so close as to prevent the Jedge or the Colonel or the casual Northern visitor, with his feet on the railing, from seeing what is passing below. A modest sign reads: "Gentlemen will please look over before you spit." E.

BOSTON, November 4, 1893.

# Notes.

THE 'Life and Letters' of the late Mrs. Lucy Stone will be compiled by her daughter, Alice Stone Blackwell, who requests the loan, for copying, of any characteristic letters of her mother. Miss Blackwell's address is Dorchester, Mass.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce a book of 'Pastoral Offices,' for marriages, baptisms, funerals, etc., by the Rev. Dr. William H. Furness.

Stone & Kimball, Cambridge and Chicago, make their début as publishers of somewhat elegant books with 'First Editions of American Authors,' by Herbert Stuart Stone; 'The Holy Cross, and Other Tales,' by Eugene Field; 'The Building of the City Beautiful,' by Joaquin Miller; and a new edition of 'His Broken Sword,' by Winnie Louise Taylor.

Ginn & Co. will have ready this month 'A First Book in Old English,' by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale.

Geo. Gottsberger Peck will shortly publish 'On the Cross,' a romance of the Passion Play at Oberammergau, by Wilhelmine von Hillern, translated by Mary J. Safford.

The autumn announcements of William Heinemann, London, include translations of Tolstoi's 'The Kingdom of God' (by Constance Garnett), Waliszewski's 'Romance of an Empress' (Catherine II. of Russia), Paul Gaulot's 'Marie Antoinette and Count Fersen,' under the title 'A Friend of the Queen,' and Émile Michel's 'Rembrandt' (by Florence Simmonds); a 'Life of Heinrich Heine,' by Richard Garnett; 'Letters of S. T. Coleridge,' edited by Ernest Hartley Coleridge; 'Stray Memories,' by Ellen Terry; 'Rousseau, and Education according to Nature,' by Paul H. Hanus; 'Horace Mann, and Public Education in the United States,' by Prof. Nicholas Murray Butler; and 'My Paris Note-book,' by the little-scrupulous author of 'An Englishman in Paris.' The same publisher undertakes 'Songs on Stone,' a series of lithographic drawings in color, by J. McNeill Whistler.

F. W. Christern sends us prospectuses of a 'Recueil de Cartes, Plans et Vues relatifs aux États-Unis et au Canada: New York, Boston, Montréal, Québec, Louisbourg, 1651-1731,' reproduced from inedited sources in the Bibliothèque Nationale as a contribution to the Columbian centenary, and published by E. Dufossé, Paris; and of Adolf Furtwängler's 'Meisterwerke der Griechischen Plastik,' illustrated in a superb manner, often from examples of recent discovery or in private collections.

Since the sale of the Soleinne library just fifty years ago, no such collection of books about the stage—more particularly about the stage in France—has come on the market as that of the late Baron Taylor, which is to be sold the last week of this month in Paris. The catalogue has been prepared by the successors of M. Techener. Among the rarities is a play on "Judas Maccabeus" in the autograph of Calderon. The list abounds in curiosities, among which may be noted "Il Cromvele," a tragedy published in Bologna in 1671, and three French translations of Addison's "Cato."

Each year, for some years past, the Christmas number of *Harper's Magazine* has contained an elaborately illustrated article by Henry Van Dyke on some phase of Christian art connected with the infancy of Christ, from the Annunciation to the Dispute with the Doctors. These articles are now united in a volume which its subject and its pictures make an especially appropriate gift-book. Doubtless, also, the text will be pleasing to many. The author should not be confounded with John C. Van Dyke, the art critic and author of 'Art for Art's Sake,' whom he quotes in his preface.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have made a dainty little holiday volume (in the prevalent white covers) of Longfellow's 'Hanging of the Crane, and Other Poems of the Home.' It is beautifully printed by the Riverside Press and illustrated by eight little plates, by one of the photogravure processes, after various artists. The artists' names are not mentioned, and one must make out the signatures to be sure with whose work one is dealing. One of the cleverest is the illustration of the title poem by C. Carleton, who is not yet as well known as he is likely to be.

Two more volumes have appeared of the new Riverside Edition of Thoreau's Writings, namely, 'Cape Cod' and 'The Maine Woods,' and with the latter theme, at least, the dark green covers of this comely series are quite in harmony. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have also put out a new two-volume edition of the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table' illustrated by Howard Pyle, and it is much to say for this artist that he has not marred the classic text by his restrained decorations and his clever full-page designs in photogravure. He sticks very closely to the Autocrat's personality, introducing the well-known face whenever called for, and has succeeded in adding with a free and sympathetic hand two acceptable portraits to the list of frontispieces to Dr. Holmes's works, after sun-pictures at different ages. For the rest, Mr. Pyle's imaginings are chiefly antiquarian, as become his own chosen style and his present author and book. Altogether we think no better presentation of the 'Autocrat' has yet been made.

Other holiday editions of well-known books are Thomas Nelson Page's 'Meh Lady,' with drawings by Mr. Reinhart (Scribner), and Sheridan's 'Rivals,' with many rather feeble drawings and five "aquarelles," all by Frank M. Gregory (Dodd, Mead & Co.).

Dodd, Mead & Co. have also brought out a very handsome edition of Maxime de la Rocheterie's 'Vie de Marie-Antoinette,' a book in which an honest effort is made to present a true picture of that unfortunate queen, so bitterly maligned by some, so fulsomely praised by others. A perennial interest attaches to the revolutionary period in France; and the scenes of that fearful time, together with the part the queen played in them, are related with a moderation and an earnest striving after impartiality which are highly satisfactory. The work is well translated by Mrs. Cora Hamilton Bell, and admirably manufactured. The illustrations are good and well chosen, the paper and the type of excellent quality; but why allow a blemish on the very first line of the title-page?

Daudet's 'Lettres de mon Moulin' is also made accessible in English and in equally handsome garb by the same firm. Apart from some absurd misapprehensions of the French original, the translation in no slight degree conserves the charm of the peculiarly captivating style of Daudet in these ever delightful pages. It is the work of Mr. F. Hunter Potter. The full-page colored illustrations, by Madeleine Lemaire, are showy, but mostly weak and inapt. Some of the headpieces by G. W. Edwards are good—not all, or nearly all. An excellent portrait of Daudet is prefixed to the volume.

'To Gypsy Land,' by Elizabeth Robbins Pennell (The Century Co.), gives us an account of the adventures and impressions of the author in her visits to gypsies, first in the United States and then in Hungary. The conclusion she reaches is that we can find the more interesting and romantic types of the race in this country; and she protests indignantly against the measures of the Hungarian Government to domesticate a people who have been vagrants

for centuries. The book does not amount to much, but, thanks to a charmingly bright style, it makes a couple of hours' pleasant reading. The profuse illustrations are by Joseph Pennell.

We have already praised Mr. E. F. Knight's 'Where Three Empires Meet: A Narrative of Recent Travel in Kashmir, Western Tibet, Gilgit, and the Adjoining Countries' (Longmans), and we are glad to see that it is now reissued in a third and less expensive edition, still retaining the map and the fifty-four illustrations.

'Clear Round,' by E. A. Gordon (London: Sampson Low), is not very much worse or better than the average volume in the annual crop of books produced by tourists round the world. Canada, the Pacific, Japan, China, India, Egypt were visited, and are described with no originality of view or note of things not usually seen. The author is very English, and rakes up a good deal of exploded nonsense about the Dutch in old Japan, besides adding new inaccuracies. Appendices of notes, an index, a map of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and a few illustrations do not redeem the book from commonplace. One pleasant feature is the happy application of thoughts and fine phrases from the English poets to things seen and heard in Asia, while the general style is bright and pleasing.

The International Limited edition of the Waverley Novels issued in this country by Estes & Lauriat has reached the nineteenth volume with 'Ivanhoe' and 'The Monastery' in two volumes each. For the former, M. Ad. Lalauze has furnished the etched illustrations; for the latter, Mr. Gordon Browne the designs —the one weak in his figures so far as they are meant to be expressive and characteristic; the other vague as possible in backgrounds and accessories, in which the decorative French artist excels.

The pallid history of 'Woman in France during the Eighteenth Century,' by Julia Kavanagh, and the pallid historical romance of 'Old Court Life in France,' by Frances Elliot, have been launched anew by G. P. Putnam's Sons, in good print, and with portrait illustrations sufficiently harmonious in quality. Each fills two volumes, and so does Mrs. Gatty's fantastic 'Parables from Nature,' from the same house, with some embellishments (rather than illustrations) from a French source.

It is gratifying to receive the third extended 'Index to *Harper's Monthly Magazine*.' The last, published in 1886, covered the first seventy volumes, and was printed in odd pages, to allow for additions on the blank even pages. The latter have now been used to accommodate the contents of vols. 71–85, and with room to spare except in the case of the "Historical Record," whose fulness makes an apparent confusion, as the later volumes are sandwiched in with the earlier; but this is quickly understood. No attempt has been made to add to the class "Essays," and we doubt if anything is lost by it, since it is difficult to draw the line. The addition to the "Portraits" is notable. The "Easy Chair" is filled out to its abandonment last year on the death of the lamented Curtis.

We must also welcome an 'Index to the *Popular Science Monthly* from 1872 to 1892' (vols. i.-xl. and the twenty-one numbers of the Supplement), compiled by Frederick A. Fernald (D. Appleton & Co.). This, too, is printed in odd pages, and is an author and class index under one alphabet. The execution appears to be excellent, but while each portrait is noted under the individual name, we are surprised that there is no grouping of the whole series under one heading; all the more because this service has been rendered for the years 1872-1889 by Dr. H. Carrington Bolton, in the *Library Journal* for November, 1889.

The 'Manual of Telephony,' by William Henry Preece and Arthur J. Stubbs (London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan), is intended to replace a volume on the telephone by W. H. Preece and Julius Maier, published in November, 1888, and reviewed in these columns. Very great progress has been made in the art since that time, and for this and other reasons the original work is now superseded. The present is probably the most elaborate and complete treatise which we possess. Great pains have been taken to make it a good book for reference. The first six chapters treat of transmitters and receivers, history, theory, and practice. These, and a chapter on comparative efficiency, make up part i. Part ii. treats of complementary apparatus, such as bells, relays, etc., typical forms of complete instruments, and the best methods of dealing with intermediate stations. Part iii. is devoted mainly to ordinary simple exchanges. Part iv. deals with the subject of multiple switches and large exchanges. Part v. takes up telephonic translators or transformers, call-offices, multiplex telephony, simultaneous telephony and telegraphy, military telephones, domestic switchboards, and selective or individual signals. Part vi. embraces construction wires and cables, and has an interesting chapter on the limiting distance of speech. An appendix contains valuable tables. We suggest that if the work should come to a second edition, a valuable chapter might be added on the actual performance of the telephone at the present time, on the long-distance telephony of this country, and on the special points in which further improvement is desirable. But as it is, the work deserves hearty praise.

'A Text-Book of the Theory and Practice of Medicine by American Teachers,' edited by Prof. William Pepper, M D., LL.D. (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders), in two volumes, of which the first has just appeared, succeeds 'A System of Medicine by American Authors,' published under the same editorship in five volumes in 1885. The new book is more convenient in size and more condensed in matter, and the monographs which make it up are excellent examples of the better medical literature. The literary control of both works being the same, the continuous progress of the science of medicine is well marked. Two or three of the cleverest papers are by authors whose personal contact with their subjects cannot have been extensive; and, as so much of the value of medical papers depends upon the personal experience of the writers, it is a pity that these subjects could not have been treated by clinical and not merely scholastic authority. Nevertheless, the 'Text-Book' defines present high-water mark, and the more active the practitioner, the more perfectly he will appreciate its value.

'Public Health Problems,' by John F. J. Sykes, B.Sc., M.B. (Charles Scribner's Sons), is crammed full of well-expressed information on sanitary science, and is an admirable compendium for health officers, for physicians, and for all interested in sanitation. It is written from an English point of view, but it is well written, and fortunately public health is not insular. The only slip, and that merely a technical one, that we have noticed is in implying (p. 112) that the pneumococcus of Friedländer, rather than Sternberg's micrococcus Pasteuri, renamed M. pneumoniæ crouposæ, is the cause of pneumonia. The injunction (p. 236) that "epizoa, as mosquitoes, bugs, fleas, etc., should be kept from the body," without prescribing the method, at first looks like a weak attempt at humor. It is redeemed by the explanation that they may transfer disease, but, regardless of that, some practical mode of exemption, from mosquitoes at least, would be acceptable to American readers.

'An Introduction to the Study of the Dependent, Defective, and Delinquent Classes,' by C. R. Henderson, D.D. (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), is what it professes to be. There is nothing in it positively new to the tolerably well-informed student of such subjects; but as these branches or, to group them as the author does, this branch of sociology is not generally studied, it may serve as a real introduction for many well-disposed but as yet unenlightened persons. It is particularly commended to clergymen, who, as the clerical author remarks, "need what few educational institutions have until recently attempted to supply, a thorough training in the methods of social science," and to other benevolent persons whose emotions require direction if not restraint. A very acceptable feature in the make-up of this book is the introduction of authorities for study and illustration directly at the point of discussion. A copious bibliography is thus distributed exactly where it applies.

S. Rocheblave's 'Les Cochin' (Paris: Librairie de *l'Art;* New York: Macmillan) is one of the very best in the official series of "Les Artistes Célèbres." It deals fully with the three greatest engravers bearing the name, of whom the first, Nicolas Cochin le Vieux of Troyes (1628–1677), was not certainly related to Charles Nicolas Cochin (1688–1754) and his son and namesake (1715–1790) of Paris. A very interesting section is also given to the Dutch family of Horthemels, and the three sisters, engravers and painters, of whom the elder C. N. Cochin married one. This was a Jansenist connection, and the product of their burins forms an enduring part of the history of Port Royal. As the engravings of Nicolas of Troyes record the campaigns of Louis XIII. and the first of Louis XIV., with Condé for a leading figure, so C. N. Cochin, the father, illustrated the age of Louis XV.; and the son, a court favorite and protégé of Mme. de Pompadour, continued the pictorial annals of the same reign with extraordinary fecundity of design, but heralded the coming of the Revolution by furnishing the allegorical frontispiece of the 'Encyclopédie,' and by illustrating (absurdly, says M. Rocheblave) the works of Rousseau. The younger Cochin had already been studied by the Goncourts in their 'L'Art au 18e Siècle,' but here, as in the case of the elder Cochins, M. Rocheblave has added much by his intelligent researches. Of special interest are the chapters devoted to Cochin as an art critic (in his 'Voyage en Italie' and in other writings); he appears to have been greatly in advance of his time—witness his judgments of Raphael, of Veronese and the other Venetians. The work is profusely adorned with facsimiles of engravings by or after the artists we have mentioned, and is provided with lists of plates and with bibliographies.

The editor of the Tauchnitz collection of British authors, now nearing its three thousandth volume, continues to select his wares for purely mercantile reasons; and admission to the collection is no proof whatever of the literary merit of the book thus presented for circulation on the continent of Europe, although it is evidence as to the probable popularity of the book among the British at home

and abroad. The American novelist most frequently represented in the last hundred volumes—of which he supplies seven—is Col. R. H. Savage, author of 'My Official Wife.' Only ten other volumes of the hundred are by American writers, chiefly Mark Twain, Bret Harte, and Marion Crawford.

With the November number the *Sewanee Review* enters on its second year, and now Prof. W. P. Trent's name appears as editor. The number contains a very sensible discussion of the evils of "Sectionalism in Finance," and a singularly open-minded article on "Uncle Tom's Cabin Forty Years After," by the Rev. Prof. Shoup, in which attention is drawn to the accuracy and impartiality of the book. That such a criticism should appear in a Southern review is of good augury for the future of the South.

The New York Shakspere Society will begin at New Year's the publication of a magazine, the *Bankside Quarterly*, devoted to Shaksperiana and the contemporary drama. It will be edited by members of the society, and published by the newly incorporated Shakspere Press.

—Beckford's heart would have leaped to embrace the delicious 'Vathek' of which Macmillan & Co. publish 150 numbered copies in America, with its dress of green silk reminding us of the annuals of his time, and its Arabian design stamped in gilt upon its side, such as Beckford's England could only dream of. Its etchings, by Herbert Nye, are steeped in the spirit of the story. The type, imitated, with supposed improvements, from a quarto Elzevir (a type not compressed like that of the pocket Elzevirs), is too modern in its business-like roundness and with its typewritery short tails to the *b*s and *d*s, *p*s and *q*s. It is printed moist upon a hand-made laid and creamy paper. A book-lover might wish it were in duodecimo instead of a nine-inch octavo. For the "library editions" of books of entertainment—say, a stately Alfred de Musset printed in a way fit for a *recueil* of treaties—are not for those that read their books. This volume, however, is by no means a flagrant offender. The old duodecimo was calculated, when bound, to weigh half a pound; a post octavo, a pound. A pretty tome that weighs no more than a pound and a half, instead of two, like most of its octavo brethren, may still pass for light reading. This can be said for 'Vathek': though written for young people just beginning to disregard the advice of their elders as to what they had best read (*virginibus puerisque*, said Beckford), and though it *was* read by most of us at that susceptible epoch, yet, no matter how old we have grown, so long as memory holds her seat, we never can cease to remember the termination of this tale. The present editor, Dr. Garnett, says, indeed, that everybody must like 'Vathek' who likes its *genre*. That depends upon what its genus is taken to be. If it is to be defined as a romance which seeks to make amends for the sensuality of its earlier parts by a heart-rending and terrible ending—if, in short, 'Vathek' is to be tossed upon the heap where rot 'Les liaisons dangereuses' and such—then the remark is, beyond doubt, true. But if by its *genre* is meant that of the 'Arabian Nights,' we must protest that the greatest charm of those stories, their child-like irreflectiveness, is signally lacking in 'Vathek.'

—Nevertheless, it is an immortal book, and it was written in one sitting—one sitting, of three days and two nights! So said Beckford himself, fifty years later; and why doubt it? Dr. Garnett thinks he disproves this by showing that the author was engaged upon the composition for at least a year altogether. But that proves nothing. Of course, Beckford had been turning it over in his head for months; and, of course, he made corrections and even alterations, later. Moreover, when he had written it, he did not perceive that he had written it. He thought he had only made an amazing good beginning. "My Arabian tales go on prodigiously," says he, April 25, 1781, and a few days later, "The tale of the Caliph Vathec goes on surprisingly." But all the labor of the many months following, down to the end of 1784, went to the production of additions, which his own incomparable good taste rejected *in toto* at last. Recipe for making an immortal book: Write it at one sitting in 3 days and 2 nights; devote 3½ years to improving it, and then publish it as near as possible as it originally was. It was written, by the way, in French, and our English text is nothing but Henley's translation, which was published in advance of the original, in spite of Beckford's prohibition. The French reads far the better.

—About a year ago we called attention to the new 'Dante-Handbuch' of the indefatigable bilingual Swiss scholar, Dr. G. A. Scartazzini, who preferred making a new book in German to translating and revising his Italian 'Prolegomeni' of the year before, or to expanding his earlier 'Manuale Dantesco.' The 'Dante-Handbuch' Mr. A. J. Butler, the English editor and translator of Dante, has now put into English under the title of 'A Companion to Dante' (Macmillan). The version is satisfactory, and will no doubt be of value to students in England and America. We wish, however, that Mr. Butler had allowed himself more liberty in the treatment of his original. The 'Handbuch' is diffuse in style and overweighted with irrelevant material; it could with profit be greatly abbreviated. The translator might, too, have added much that would be of value. He has omitted Scartazzini's frequent bibliographical lists on the ground that the books he mentions are in foreign tongues, or inaccessible to the English reader; but he should surely have inserted compensating references to English and American publications, such, for example, as the various translations of Dante's minor works. After all, it is not so much a translation that the 'Handbuch' needs for our purposes as a comple e remodelling. Scartazzini is learned and industrious, but he is also narrow, pedantic, and whimsical. We still lack a companion to the study of Dante that shall give us all the necessary facts, a candid statement of the main theories in regard to disputed points, a discriminating bibliography, and material (such as has never been published in English) which will enable the student to see Dante, not through the mists of polemics and text-criticism, but in his proper relation to the decay of mediæval and the birth of Renaissance thought.

—The last report (for the year ending June 20, 1893) of the "Women's University Settlement for work among the poorer districts of London" is of special and timely interest from the fact that it gives full details of the latest feature of the Association—professional philanthropic training. This English society is the first to institute courses, lectures, and two scholarships tenable at the Settlement, for the training of workers. This step, we are told, has been taken in the "hope of raising the standard of social work among the poor, . . . of meeting an increased demand for trained workers, . . . and to attract those who wish to prepare themselves either for paid or honorary posts . . . in Southwark, in other parts of London, or in the country." The training (begun in January, 1893) is formulated as follows: "The ordinary course," which extends over one year, divided into three terms of thirteen weeks each, is intended to give an outline of general principles and sound methods, and consists of weekly lectures, the preparation of papers, and reading, and of practical work under other workers. For the first six months three days a week are spent with charity organization committees, the other three in some special Settlement work in connection with already existing local agencies; the wise policy of the Settlement being to supplement rather than originate philanthropic centres of energy. During the second six months, "practice" is divided between visits to societies and institutions in London for the purpose of observing and comparing their methods and results, in the keeping of accounts, and in some special branch of outdoor work selected with a view to the student's preparation for her future employment. The fees (inclusive of board, lodging, and teaching) are £50 a year for resident students, and £10 for non-residents; these latter must attend lectures, and give not less than four days a week to the active work. Moreover, students are offered at their option a second year, "so as to gain a more thorough knowledge of some special branch of the work." Curiously enough, in this first year the two scholarships are held by non-collegiate women. Outsiders may attend the lectures by payment of from 5s. to 10s. per term, or of 2s. for a single lecture.

—As the character and efficiency of work among "the submerged tenth" depends largely upon women, it is a matter of public interest whenever any body of women philanthropists thus publicly recognize how closely the every-day difficulties of social work are connected with economics, with local government, with poor-law administration—in a word, with those fundamental business principles which underlie the decent and successful ordering of a modern municipality. Among the lecturers during the two terms which ended in July, we find Miss Octavia Hill instructing in the "Principles and Methods of Keeping Accounts," Mr. Bernard Bosanquet on the "Duties of a Citizen," and Mr. J. Lowles on "How London is Governed," while the lectures for the term beginning in October were to be on "The Poor Law" and the "Relation of Economics to some Social Questions." The risks and difficulties of definitely attaching to a primarily philanthropic movement the diverse responsibilities and claims of an educational "experiment" were frankly confessed in the prospectus of the scheme, but Mrs. Henry Sidgwick (principal of Newnham College), at the recent annual meeting of the Settlement Association, asserted that any objections that might be made to training of that sort on the ground of its sometimes checking spontaneity, were quite outweighed by its advantages, "as it was a method of obtaining in a short time what unaided experience would take years to teach." This new departure of our English cousins in formally recognizing a need which has hitherto been rather disjointedly met by University Settlements in both England and America, marks an important step in the evolution of Settlement life. The report discloses a percentage of permanency at the Southwark Settlement higher than has been obtained among our-

selves: of the 18 residents for the current year, 12 have been in residence from four years to ten months, the average being twenty months; of the 6 new workers added to the force in 1893, 5 represent an equally permanent element. These English women, out of their own experience, have found that all the finer qualities are wanting in the service which is casual, transitory, or much broken. "Some things may be done by the passing helper, but not the best things." Finally, their eventual aim is nobly stated in these words: "We hope . . . that each year shall find us less of settlers and more of citizens of Southwark, . . . helping not less in the charities, but yet more in the duties of the place we have made our home—duties which city and village, East End and West End, alike call upon its inhabitants to perform in the spirit of true citizenship, or, in other words, of true brotherhood."

—The nineteenth annual report of the Japanese Department for Education, with the accompanying 'Outlines of Modern Education in Japan,' calls for less critical notice than usual, because of a wholesome fact. Under the energetic administration of the new Minister of State for Education, Mr. Kōno Tokama, who assumed his office August 8, 1892, there has been made a searching criticism of existing standards of attainment. In the 'Outlines,' a valuable historical retrospect of over two hundred pages, this critical spirit is especially manifest, and wholesomely takes the place of mere laudation or colorless statement. The determination of the Government to hold the people up to a thorough national reinvigoration through culture is manifest in various ways. Sometimes this takes the form of hostile jealousy towards private or non-governmental schools, in which, it is believed, most of the "half-baked" *soshi* are mis-educated. These young fire-eaters, who dictate policies to cabinet ministers and attack members of the Diet with deadly weapons, are mostly ill educated boys who have imbibed just enough of foreign ideas to make them dangerous. The insistence upon thorough courses in the schools under Government control is believed to be an effective preventive measure against too large a crop of *soshi*. The other methods of educational elevation of the people are shown in the steadily rising standard of admission to the middle and higher schools, and in the liberal rewarding of well-trained native teachers with responsible positions. This necessarily results in the employment of fewer foreign instructors, so that there are now (1891) but 252 American and other instructors in the Japanese schools, whereas in 1890 there were 287. In addition to the schools of almost every sort known in Europe or America, the development of public libraries is noteworthy. Fifteen of the large cities have libraries in operation, one at Fukushima having 18,225 volumes, and another at Miyagi, 3,719. The Imperial University library contains 187,551, of which 81,986 are in European languages, that of Tokyo having 31,629, of which 2,332 are foreign works. While not progressing as rapidly as it ought, the public library system shows a healthy growth in Japan. We note that while the Academy has not the fame of its French prototype, it has twenty-seven members, and is in full activity of nearly monthly meetings open to the public. Ten of the members have passed the sixty-year line which insures them pensions for life. In a word, the work of education in Japan, at present, is one of firm establishment and steady improvement, rather than enlargement or extraordinary change.

## PIATT AND BOYNTON'S THOMAS.—II.

*General George H. Thomas:* A Critical Biography. By Donn Piatt. With concluding chapters by Henry V. Boynton. 8vo, pp. viii, 658. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.

THE appendix to Piatt's book is added upon the hypothesis that his death interfered with a purpose to continue the work. There are indications that the author did not view it so. He had a curious theory that the possession of Chattanooga was in itself all that was necessary, and the conclusion of his sixteenth chapter had declared that Rosecrans's campaign ended "in the capture of Chattanooga and virtually the end of the war." The siege of that place followed. Chapter xix. is a running summary; the author himself then wrote the introduction and preface, and had apparently done all he intended. The added chapters are in two very distinct parts. There is an interesting and uncontroversial account of Wilson's cavalry campaign of Selma in the spring of 1865, which is so different in tone and literary style from the rest as to indicate its preparation by a third writer. The remainder is from Boynton's pen, and is, in substance, a repetition from his 'Historical Raid,' published in 1875, of the chapters criticising events after May, 1864, in which General Thomas had a part. A final chapter is devoted to supposed grievances of Thomas in his assignments to duty after the war, and especially to an alleged "suppression" of a part of his telegraphic correspondence with Washington during the Nashville campaign. It is now charged that Grant was responsible for this, and, in the Piattesque language which becomes the appendix to such a volume, it is declared to be an "assassination." On reading the "suppressed" telegrams, no murderous motive for suppression is visible, for they contain nothing startling, or which materially changes the discussion of the reasonableness of Grant's demand for earlier activity. Common sense would conclude that nothing worse than carelessness was probably chargeable. It is a wanton offence against good taste and an injury to the memory of Gen. Thomas to connect it with his death. The "suppression" is described as being a failure completely to fulfil a promise made by Grant, then President, to furnish Boynton as a newspaper correspondent with copies of the telegraphic correspondence mentioned, to be used for newspaper publication, or, as collation of dates would seem to indicate, in the preparation of his 'Historical Raid.'

The attacks upon Sherman differ from those published so long ago chiefly in ornamentation by epithets. In the original there was a little affectation of personal respect for the general and a little recognition of his standing in the world as a great soldier. Nearly twenty years have gone by, and the dead lion is now, as in the fable, the target for kicks. His great campaigns are a story of "uniform and unbroken failure," a "bungling business," a "mortifying story." His march to the sea is "abandoning his objective," "marching away from the theatre of war," from a "desire to reach Gen. Grant and have an equal share with him and the army of the Potomac in ending the war"! Every dishonorable motive is personally attributed to him, and the indications of passionate hatred are everywhere apparent. The result will inevitably be the same as with the body of the book; its extravagance defeats itself, and it will pass into literature as railing and not criticism.

As we cannot examine in detail every part of such a tirade, let us confine our attention to the march to the sea and the provision made by Sherman for accomplishing at once the ruin of Hood and of the Confederate cause. We are told that Sherman left Thomas to "confront an enemy which had sorely tried the metal of General Sherman's three armies for half a year." This is a travesty of the fact. Hood's army was the same in nominal organization as that of Johnston, but *quantum mutatus ab illo!* By his rash assaults on Sherman's lines around Atlanta he had reduced his divisions to a fraction of their former strength, so that the military men of the Confederacy have agreed with all others that it was a fearful waste of a splendid army. The reduction of numbers gave a certain added mobility, approximating that which Jefferson Davis thought would enable him to prolong the war indefinitely when small and scattered bodies might elude the heavier columns of their pursuers and weary them out in the chase. When Hood began his movement in October upon the rear of our army, Davis had incautiously announced the plan to manœuvre Sherman back into Tennessee and thus to regain the territory lost in two campaigns. The report of the speech came to Sherman and he was forewarned. Hood made desperate efforts to avoid fighting while leading our army a long chase to the rear. Sherman pursued him a hundred miles northward, nearly to Chattanooga. Hood doubled on his tracks like a hare, and raced southward behind the mountains of Taylor's Ridge to Gaylesville and Gadsden, Alabama. Sherman followed hotly to Gaylesville, while Hood doubled again and made for the Tennessee River. It was here that Sherman halted and reported to Grant that his thorough effort had proved vain, and that Hood's comparatively small force could continue this game indefinitely, for not only could he live on the country, but he exhausted it so that the chasing columns had to carry their supply trains with them and be delayed by them. Then it was that he determined that if Hood passed west of Decatur he would divide his army, leave Thomas, whose headquarters were already at Nashville, to meet Hood, and make the crushing final movement to Savannah and thence through the Carolinas. At Tuscumbia near the Mississippi line, Beauregard and Hood stood in dismay at the result of their manœuvring, and the Confederate Government at Richmond was trembling at the vision of speedy and final ruin. This is the situation when we hear a voice screaming, "Sherman has abandoned the object of his campaign and has run away from Hood to get under Grant's wing."

In making the march to the sea, cutting loose from his communications, Sherman had necessarily to reckon upon two things: first, that he could get no reinforcements, supplies, or ammunition till he opened new communications with his friends; second, that the forces left to confront Hood could be supplied and reinforced to any extent that might be necessary. The country from the Tennessee River to the Ohio was in two departments, one under Thomas, the other under Schofield. Sherman had confidence in both as competent to conduct a campaign, and, by leaving both behind him, he provided for contingencies. Thomas was made chief, and could call on all the troops in Schofield's department as well as his own, and have a second in command on whom he could thoroughly rely. The garrisons at posts in these departments were, of course, to be concentrated to the utmost. If Hood were beaten, the posts would be safe. If he were not, the garrisons would have to surrender. To say that Sherman's direction to "break up all

minor posts and get about Columbia as big an army as you can, and go at him," was "equivalent to abandoning the country it had taken two years to secure," not only is puerile, but condemns Thomas, whom it professes to praise, for he did this identical thing before he finally fought the battle of Nashville. The concentration was to be in front of Hood and to keep him busy, at the same time covering the country behind.

Again, we are told that Thomas's command was made up of "odds and ends" and of "trash" sent back by Sherman. The record proves this untrue. The troops under Rousseau, Steedman, and Granger in garrisons in Tennessee and north Alabama were old organizations of the Army of the Cumberland, and all showed their quality in this very campaign. They fought in defence of Decatur and Murfreesboro, or took part in the battle of Nashville. Sherman's sick and "footsore" did *not* appear in Thomas's list of present for duty. They were in hospital or on sick-furlough. His convalescents were organized into a division under Gen. Cruft and fought with the best.

Finally, the assertion is made that Gen. Sherman had, in the opening of his spring campaign, a force "more than double that of the enemy," while Gen. Thomas, until after the battle of Franklin, "was outnumbered two to one." These statements are made with an affectation of knowledge of the official records, which contradict them both. As to the armies of Sherman and Johnston, the statistical paper by Maj. E. C. Dawes in the 'Century War Book' (vol. iv, p. 281) is an accurate synopsis of official reports of numbers. It shows the proportion between the two armies to have been as ten to seven. As to Thomas's strength relative to Hood's, it would seem that reckless disregard of the official records could hardly go further. The misstatements are so glaring that one wonders if the writer ever saw the returns of force made from Thomas's own headquarters. Making constant assertion that he is speaking from the record, and constantly assuming that he is an expert in investigating the official returns, he regularly gives figures having no resemblance whatever to those which Gen. Thomas himself sent to Washington every ten days in accordance with army regulations. These astonishing reprints of old falsifications of the records are made now when the forty-fifth volume of the War Records containing the official figures after November 12 is being put in type, and when those of preceding dates are already published and placed in every considerable library of the country.

Let us first fix the force under Hood's command, which we are told was twice as large as Thomas's. In volume xxxix, part 3, we find it tabulated on page 893, giving 35,662 officers and men present for duty; of this number 2,857 is cavalry. But this includes only one of the divisions of cavalry, the others being absent with Forrest, and the whole when present amounting to nearly or quite 10,000 horsemen. The smaller total which the Confederates give under the title of "effectives" will be omitted, for reasons that have been given in these columns in our review of Allan's 'Army of Northern Virginia.' A larger total, under title of "aggregate present," is also omitted in speaking both of the national and the Confederate forces. It included the sick in camp and the detached and extra-duty men. Thomas's connection with Sherman was broken on November 12. The troops which had been assigned to him had been before that under his orders, but their returns were not all made through his headquarters till that time. His reports, made every ten days, include on November 20 for the first time the Twenty-third Corps and other additions made by Sherman to his force. The official records prepared for publication in the xlvth volume show that, on the date just mentioned, Thomas reported his troops "present for duty" to be 71,463. This did not include the employees of the Quartermaster's and Commissary's Departments, which were organized into a division under Gen. Donaldson, and were used to supply the place of enlisted soldiers in garrisons, as General Thomas himself states. It did include, however, the whole of Wilson's cavalry corps, numbering 17,323, of which the same report shows that 11,578 were "equipped." The dismounted cavalry were available to relieve garrisons, and, both in the Atlanta campaign and in this, sometimes fought as infantry. On the date of this report Hood began his advance from the Tennessee River, and the preceding eight days had been available for the concentration of the national forces either at Decatur, Ala.; or at Pulaski, near the southern border of Tennessee, where the Fourth and Twenty-third Corps already were. Sherman's directions to abandon minor posts and concentrate were not followed; yet the official figures show that the ratio "two to one" was very nearly applicable in exactly the opposite sense from that in which Boynton uses it.

On November 30, the date of the battle of Franklin, Thomas made another official return to the Adjutant-General's office, showing 85,450 "present for duty," still omitting the division of employees. His cavalry was now returned at 20,929, of which 12,570 were "equipped." Still there was no concentration at the front, and although Hood's force was reduced by 8,000 in that sanguinary battle and the affairs which preceded it, Schofield was ordered to fall back to Nashville, where the concentration was finally made. This was the period when Grant said he had expected, at least, that the stunning blow Hood had suffered should have been followed by an offensive return, and when Lincoln, Stanton, and Grant were all alarmed at the enemy's continued progress northward.

Eight days of good weather followed, during which Hood not only advanced to besiege in Nashville his vastly stronger opponent, but from his diminished force detached one whole division and part of another to attack Murfreesboro and to burn the railroad bridges between that place and the very picket line at Nashville. Forrest took part in this with his cavalry, and raided the country far to the northeast beyond Lebanon, sending a detachment into Kentucky to operate on the railroad behind Thomas. During that whole week nothing was done on the national side, the desire to "wait until Wilson can equip all his cavalry" being the reason which Gen. Thomas gave. Then it was that remonstrances at Washington changed to commands to "wait no longer for a remount of your cavalry."

On the 10th of December Thomas reported that he had present for duty 87,710, still omitting the division of employees. His cavalry was now returned at 22,829, of which 13,214 were "equipped." On the 9th the memorable storm of rain and sleet gave good reason for not then beginning aggressive operations, and the delay in beginning the fight from that day to the 15th is not open to criticism. Before that time, however, during the whole of Schofield's retreat with the two corps the eighty miles from Pulaski to Nashville, there was not a single day when it was not entirely feasible for Thomas to concentrate in front of Hood a larger force than the whole with which that general crossed the Tennessee. The movements of troops actually made by rail during that period afford a measure of time and transportation that demonstrates it.

The figures quoted above have been accessible in the War Records Office to every serious investigator. The writers of the book before us were both residents of Washington, and one of them has professed to be familiar with the records. Yet, in the face of them, for twenty years the welkin has been made to ring with the assertion that Thomas was forced to meet Hood with shockingly inadequate means—so inadequate as to make it proof of a wish to destroy him. The false witness as to the records has been made the basis of insulting diatribes against the great soldiers whose fame is a national treasure, and who were far older, more intimate, and truer friends of Thomas than any of these would-be champions. They had spurred him to a vigor which finally made his glory safe, and put him, too, among those the country delighted to honor. Then they congratulated him in words which are as gold to dross when compared with the adulation of flatterers. The victory at Nashville proved that Grant spoke the truth in his despatch of December 9, when his words were: "I have as much confidence in your conducting the battle rightly as I have in any other officer." The figures and dates in the official records prove that he was quite as correct in saying, "but it has seemed to me you have been slow, and I have had no explanation of affairs to convince me otherwise." To Sherman, Thomas's success was as essential as his own, and his injunction to "get about Columbia as big an army as you can and go at him," was the essence of military wisdom as well as enterprise. To say that out of 71,463 present for duty in Tennessee a commander could not concentrate enough to stop the advance of 45,000, is to stultify one's self. What posts, garrisons, and reserves does any such person suppose Hood had left behind him in Alabama and Mississippi? The enemy can concentrate, but we cannot!

Candid persons have generally been content to let the satisfaction at a glorious result cover the preceding steps; and they would gladly refrain from criticism and forget the universal alarm the country felt when Hood crossed the Tennessee and steadily marched forward to Nashville. But these superserviceable friends of Gen. Thomas will not have it so. By the indecency of their assaults upon others, and the effrontery of their appeal to the official records, they make their exposure a duty. They are the only real enemies to the military reputation of Gen. Thomas.

## RECENT POETRY.

In *Fliegende Blätter*, a man points out to his wife a wild-looking personage and says, "That man, my dear, has rendered eminent services to German poetry." "Why—because he writes so well?" "No; because he has stopped writing." On this general principle, the compiler of a collection of poems has often the advantage over those whose works he uses, since he knows when to stop, and they perhaps do not. Thus we have never seen the recent Canadian poetry appear to such advantage as in 'Later Canadian Poems' (Toronto: Copp Clark Co.), forming a supplement to the earlier collection of Sladen in his 'Younger American Poets.' Mr. Wetherell has also far more taste and discretion than his predecessor; and

as he includes no poem published before 1880, the work has a certain freshness. He has verses by writers now well known in the United States—Roberts, Lampman, Cameron, Carman, and others—and it is interesting to see the pictures of these authors, because they look so very youthful. Mr. Cameron was born in 1854 and died in 1885, but no other poet represented was born earlier than 1860. It is certain that the Canadian poets have already developed much power in describing the peculiar landscape features of their land, and that they have in a few cases struck deep human notes; but there is about them an effect of vague longing which might almost seem to be satirized in Mr. Wetherell's motto on his title-page:

"But thou, my Country, dream not thou!
Wake and behold how night is done."

How can the most gifted Canadian poet apostrophize his country until he knows whether his country is Canada or England?

'Songs of the Common Day, and Ave! an Ode for the Shelley Centenary,' by Charles G. D. Roberts (Longmans), really puts its author at the head of these young Canadian poets. It would be hard to find any one this side the St. Lawrence who could surpass the fine imaginative touch of this which follows (p. 56):

EPITAPH FOR A SAILOR BURIED ASHORE.

He who but yesterday would roam
Careless as clouds and currents range,
In homeless wandering most at home,
Inhabiter of change;

Who wooed the West to win the East,
And named the stars from North and South,
And felt the zest of freedom's feast
Familiar in his mouth;

Who found a faith in stranger-speech
And fellowship in foreign hands,
And had within his eager reach
The relish of all lands—

How circumscribed a plot of earth
Keeps now his restless footsteps still,
Whose wish was wide as ocean's girth,
Whose will the waters' will.

Another pleasing volume of Canadian poems, seemingly by an author too young to be included among Mr. Wetherell's bards, is 'Canadian Melodies and Poems,' by George E. Merkley (Toronto: Hart & Riddell). This author, too, has his hopeful utterances in regard to colonial poetry: he says that "the dearth of national literature in Canada is to be deplored"; and, as if in answer to the reasonable inquiry as to how there can be a national literature without a nation, he asks in turn, "Did not the Greek colonies produce a literature worthy to be compared with that of Athens in her glory?" (p. vi).

Mr. William Wilfrid Campbell, still another of the young Canadians, has published a volume inadequately entitled 'The Dread Voyage' (Toronto: Briggs), which, while marked by prevailing shadow, has this delicately cut gem (p. 150):

"Love came at dawn when all the world was fair,
When crimson glories, bloom and song were rife;
Love came at dawn when hope's wings fanned the air,
And murmured, 'I am life.'

"Love came at even, when the day was done,
When heart and brain were tired, and slumber pressed;
Love came at eve, shut out the sinking sun,
And whispered, 'I am rest.'"

Goldwin Smith's 'Bay Leaves' (Macmillan), by an author who is at least a Canadian *pro tem.*, is an agreeable *mélange* of Latin fragments, aiming to do for Roman poetry what Edwin Arnold and Dean Milman did many years ago for that of Greece. His style of translation suits the dignity of Lucretius better than the easy grace of Catullus; his touch being a trifle too heavy for this last poet. The preface is admirable and singularly condensed; he points out that there is no such barrier between ourselves and the Roman poets as that which separates us from Homer and Æschylus, and thinks that Gibbon was quite right in holding that no age would have suited him better than that of the Antonines. On the whole, Mr. Smith succeeds best with Horace, an artist a shade less delicate than Catullus, and it would be hard to find a better modernizing of the ancient spirit than this version of the familiar "Tu ne quæsieris, scire nefas" (p. 45):

"Draw not that curtain, lady mine;
Seek no diviner's art,
To read my destiny or thine—
It is not wisdom's part.

"Whether our years be many more,
Or our last winter this
Which breaks the waves on yonder shore—
Our ignorance is bliss.

"Then fill the wine-cup while you can,
And let us banish sorrow;
Cut short thy hopes to suit thy span,
And never trust to-morrow."

We miss the graceful turn of the "envious time" (*invida Aetas*), and there is a jangle between the "you" and "thy" in this last verse; but it is an uncommonly good paraphrase, nevertheless.

To turn to recent English volumes, 'The Poems of Arthur Henry Hallam, together with his essay on the lyrical poems of Tennyson' (Macmillan) are edited by another poet, Richard Le Gallienne, who introduces them with an interesting and, on the whole, satisfactory memoir. The poems themselves are less satisfying; we nowhere find in them that "master bowman" of whom Tennyson wrote, and their technique is curiously negligent for the friend of an artist so exquisite. Thus Hallam rhymes (p. 73) "breathest" and "sweetest," and his sonnets are a chaos as to the sequence of the rhymes. Nor will his essay on Tennyson, published in August, 1831, in the *Englishman's Magazine*, make much impression on the American reader, since Tennyson found a welcome so much more promptly here than in England. But the book certainly deserves a valued place among Tennysoniana.

Mr. H. D. Rawnsley's 'Valete: Tennyson, and Other Memorial Poems' (Glasgow: MacLehose), if exhibiting no marks of genius, has also a place among Tennysoniana. The late laureate was married, it seems, at Shiplake-on-Thames, the residence of Mr. Rawnsley's father, and the memorial poem has many details, both in the text and in the notes, of the boyish life of Tennyson and his brothers. There is also a sonnet to Charles Tennyson Turner, the best known of these brothers, but it is wanting in that peculiar charm which marks this poet's own early sonnets.

A book to be assigned to the class of Wordsworthiana is 'Poems, Old and New,' by Charles D. Bell, D.D., Honorary Canon of Carlisle (London: Arnold), a thick volume which, with a good deal that is mediocre, yet conveys to us from the English Lake District a pleasing prolongation of Wordsworth's spirit. There is also a sonnet on Niagara; and various complimentary letters from Longfellow, Whittier, and Holmes are cited, after the English fashion, at the end. 'Musa Consolatrix,' by Charles Sayle (London: Nutt), is one of those volumes of thoughtful and measured verse which come to us sometimes from the English universities (in this case Cambridge), bringing along with their Greek mottoes a simpler and more genuine character than London commonly yields. It is not the author's first literary venture; without having any salient quality, its tone is pure and manly. 'Teresa, and Other Poems,' by James Rhoades (Longmans), is a volume of serious and thoughtful poetry by an author already well known as a successful translator of Virgil. It contains some strong sonnets, and a poem, called "The Lay of the Oubliette" (p. 105), which ought to take its place in collections, as a tale of woman's heroism, finer and less hackneyed than the inexhaustible "Curfew must not ring to-night."

'Secular Poems,' by Henry Vaughan and his twin-brother Thomas, selected and annotated by J. R. Tutin (Hull, England: Tutin), will doubtless disappoint those who know the former only by those religious poems which take rank with George Herbert's. Yet there are here a few love-poems to "Etesia" which have something of the same refined flavor.

'Through Starlight to Dawn,' by A. Ernest Hinshelwood (London: Gay & Bird), consists largely of "A Tribute of Sonnets," mainly love-sonnets; a series singularly thoughtful and tender, and also highly finished. They have, however, the defects that accompany those qualities, and their absolute uniformity is monotonous. In the whole forty-three there is not only no variation from the Italian model, but there is no acceptance of that variety in the sequence of rhymes which Petrarch and Rossetti fearlessly practised, and which gives such relief. Indeed, the tendency of poets now is to distribute their sonnets among their other poems for the further avoidance of monotony—as is done, for instance, in Lowell's 'Heart's-ease and Rue.' A strong and complete sonnet is really too fine and unique a thing to be simply stood up in a row with fifty others, each ticketed with its number, like a convict or an American Chinaman.

The Celtic flavor is apparent in Sir John Croker Barrow's 'The Seven Cities of the Dead, and Other Poems, Lyrics and Sonnets' (Longmans). The author is vehemently conservative as to "Woman's Rights" (p. 126):

"For she will find, if Holy Writ she search,
Man head of Woman is, as Christ of Church."

But in regard to Ireland he writes (p. 128)

A LAST APPEAL.

Great-hearted Englishmen! yourselves so free,
So chivalrous in aid of all oppressed;
So just, so generous, to all distressed,
Whoever, or wherever they may be!
Look once again across Saint George's Sea
To that fair island waiting your behest;
And whilst new hopes are kindling in her breast,

In pity listen to her final plea;
Heed not the threats of those who more or less
Would reënact the persecuting past:
Heed not the sneers of party pen or Press.
Great-hearted Englishmen! the die is cast!
Establish peace, a peace that will endure;
Make Ireland free, and England thus secure!

'Skeleton Leaves' (Longmans) is the rather unsatisfying title of a volume containing a long poem by Mr. F. Leyton, whose previous volume, 'The Shadows of the Lake,' was favorably reviewed in these columns. The present book is inscribed "To the Chairman and Members of the Howard Association who have done so much to rescue the Orphan Children of this Country from a Contamination which is often worse than death." It is a sombre and powerful poem, and withal dignified and without sensationalism; it is written in blank verse, and shows a directness and earnestness which are rather out of fashion among the younger English poets. 'Woman Free,' by Ellis Ethelmer (London: Women's Emancipation Union), is a tract rather than a poem, having about thirty pages of rhyme and nearly two hundred of notes. It is written in a good cause which it hurts by over-vehemence; and the notes are a curious hodge-podge of valuable and valueless authorities. It will be enough for American readers to know that it cites as competent authority that utterly worthless book 'Esoteric Anthropology,' by T. L. Nichols, M.D., and quotes profusely and enthusiastically from Mrs. Farnham's 'Woman and her Era,' which would not now be placed nearly so high by re-

formers on this side of the water. Mr. Elmer cites also "the American physiologist, Helen H. Gardener." The whole tone of the book throws away as useless all that air of caution and fairness which is so peculiarly important when a layman handles scientific themes.

A book called 'Selections from the Verse of Augusta Webster' (Macmillan) gives an uncommonly well-chosen selection from the many volumes of one of the best of England's women poets—one who, if she never rises above a certain point, rarely falls below it. Compared with Emily Dickinson and Helen Jackson—to name no other Americans—the Englishwomen who now write poetry do not seem daring or passionate or profound; they yield few haunting strains, but they are thoughtful, finished, cultivated, well-bred. It would be impossible, for illustration, to find any one more un-English than Miss Guiney, who is, indeed, of Celtic blood, and who shows in her thin volume, 'A Roadside Harp' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), enough of varied thought and impulse and motive to set up a dozen Mrs. Websters. Yet she is always disappointing—the reader always expects that the next time, or the next, her yeast will appear as bread, but that period is still postponed, though it is clearly coming nearer.

Future bibliographers will be somewhat puzzled, no doubt, over the numerous volumes by Mr. and Mrs. Piatt, so often have their contents been recombined and rearranged. We have in times past called attention to the beauty and pathos of Mrs. Piatt's Irish poems, and she now reprints them in a separate volume, 'An Enchanted Castle, and Other Poems: Pictures, Portraits, and People in Ireland' (Longmans). Mr. J. J. Piatt, like his wife, selects for the English public a book of local poems, his being 'Lyrics and Poems of the Ohio Valley' (Longmans). It is a curious fact that, with all his love of his native region and all his gift of local coloring, his best poem should be "The Morning Street," whose strength lies wholly in its city flavor. Written thirty-five years ago, it still remains his permanent contribution to the anthologies.

'Such as They Are,' a volume of poems by Thomas Wentworth Higginson and Mary Thacher Higginson (Boston: Roberts), is, so far as we remember, the first joint book of American verses, by a husband and wife, except in the case of Mr. and Mrs. Piatt. Lowell and others have included poems by their wives, but anonymously. This small volume has been most gracefully illustrated by Garrett, through head and tail-pieces. A portion of the poems have already appeared in the magazines; but others are wholly new, as, for instance, this brief opening lyric:

THE TRUMPETER.

I blew, I blew, the trumpet loudly sounding;
I blew, I blew, my heart within me bounding.
The world was fresh and fair, yet dark with wrong,
And men stood forth to conquer at the song
I blew, I blew, I blew.

The field is won; the minstrels loud are crying,
And all the world is peace; and I am dying.
Yet this forgotten life was not in vain;
Enough if I alone recall the strain
I blew, I blew, I blew.

Mrs. Higginson's poems, which have only recently made themselves known among magazine-readers, sometimes deal with external nature and occasionally have a little sermon in song, like the following:

REPRIEVE.

Tempests and clouds made dark the day
For fitful Madge and me;
At length repentance had its way,
And brought her to my knee.

The softened eyes revealed a tear;
But hope is brave at ten.
"Will you forgive me, Mother dear?
Can I begin again?"

"O child," I said, with weary sigh,
"Too often you begin";
"Yes, Mother," and the calm reply
Showed victory within.

In this remorseful heart sank deep
My lambkin's pleading glance;
What if the Shepherd of the sheep
Denied me one more chance?

Mr. Garrett has also illustrated as well as edited a charming volume of 'Elizabethan Songs' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), which is, however, weakened, not adorned, by one of Andrew Lang's jauntiest and shallowest prefaces.

Mr. R. W. Gilder, who likes to issue his poems in small volumes as dainty and delicate as themselves, publishes 'The Great Remembrance, and Other Poems' (Century Co.) in this refined style, his wife furnishing the illustrations. The title-poem is a memorial of the war, and does not, except in single lines, rise greatly above the accustomed level of such contributions; but there are in the book, small as it is, many of those delicate cameos in which no one of our poets, not even Aldrich, exceeds this author. Take, for instance, this song (p. 71):

"Fades the rose; the year grows old;
The tale is told;
Youth doth depart—
Only stays the heart.

"—Ah no! if stays the heart,
Youth can ne'er depart
Nor the sweet tale be told—
Never the rose fade, nor the year grow old."

Mr. James Whitcomb Riley, like the other poets, combines and rearranges his poems, and gives us, in the beautiful typography of the De Vinne Press, his 'Poems Here at Home' (Century Co.). No one can read them without feeling anew that he is at the head of all the living dialect poets; nor did Lowell himself ever achieve anything in dialect so profoundly human and pathetic as Riley's "The Old Man and Jim." Perhaps no other poem, in dialect or not, strikes so completely at the heart of the average experience of the civil war, North or South—its genuineness, its simplicity, its homeliness, its unspoken tragedies. It is a hard ordeal for a poet to intermingle this subdued pathos with the simpler homelinesses of daily life—"The Raggedy Man," "The Boy Lives on Our Farm," "The Literary," and the like (and why omit "Let's go a Visitin' down to Grigsby's Station," the best of all this class?)—and then to include serious and simple poems with no dialect at all. Yet how well Mr. Riley does it may be seen in this, which will reach many hearts (p. 183):

BEREAVED.

Let me come in where you sit weeping—aye,
Let me, who have not any child to die,
Weep with you for the little one whose love
I have known nothing of.

The little arms that slowly, slowly loosed
Their pressure round your neck; the hands you used
To kiss.—Such arms, such hands I never knew,
May I not weep with you?

Fain would I be of service—say some thing
Between the tears that would be comforting—
But, ah! so sadder than yourselves am I,
Who have no child to die.

We have called attention more than once to the slight but steady improvement in Mr. Madison Cawein's self-criticism, and now note with pleasure that he concedes in his latest preface "the frequent obscurity, superfluity, and exaggerated expression of the earlier works" in his volumes, and has therefore rewritten several poems. This would be very hopeful but for the fact that his new volume, 'Poems of Nature and Love,' is dedicated to Joaquin Miller—an even worse model, surely, than his earlier masters, Poe and Swinburne. The book is full of his usual cheap affluence, perhaps a very little retrenched. He still gives us, to take a verse at random (p. 6):

"There the hazy serpolet,
Dewy cistus, blooming wet,
Blushed on bank and boulder;
There the cyclamen, as wan
As faint footprints of the Dawn,
Carpeted the spotted lawn:
There the nude nymph, dripping drawn,
Basked a peachy shoulder."

Perhaps there was nothing inappropriate, after all, in dedicating this volume to Mr. Miller.

'Bits of Blue,' by Wesley Bissonnette, should be useful reading to Mr. Cawein, for we can sometimes see our own faults best when carried a little further in the person of another. Mr. Bissonnette has the same lush affluence with which Mr. Cawein began, and is as yet no further toned down than to write thus preposterously of "The May-Maid":

"She is a slim-sheathed being, blossom-born,
With gray gold gauzes stirring into sight,
Like misty dresses o'er the shadowy grass,
Swathing her limbs in skeins of slumbery light,
Until the white hot sodder of the morn,
Swelling o'er all the silvery sluices bright,
Seals the chill world in frosty wreaths of glass."

Or this of "The Day-Dream":

"She is a maid of moistest modesty,
Who doth her fairness fragrantly enfold
From the plush palmy pleasures of the sun."

Or this:

"Melts the mute marble! O the musical
The mad maturities!—
Pure pallid poem of a maiden muse
Of mysteries!"

No reference can be given to the pages on which these strange passages (and there are many more of them) occur, because it is one of the eccentricities of the book to be unpaged. But is it not strange that Poe, who of all critics would have handled such exhibitions most savagely, should really be the source of influence to which they are mainly due? And yet there are single poems, like "The Wayside Mill," to show that the author has a genuine imaginative power. Perhaps what he really lacks is a sense of humor that would enable him to see the errors of his less judicious moments.

Another poet who shows some real sensibility and imagination, but has no sense of humor as applied to himself, is Dr. Frederick Peterson, previously known by his Swedish translations, and now author of 'In the Shade of Ygdrasil' (Putnams). It is not possible to pardon much to a man who will put in print such doggerel as the following, even under the title of "The Bluebells' Chorus: Chanson Fantastique" (p. 58):

"Our carillon will carol on
In mellow melody,
To invisible dead Isabelle,
Who is a bell to be."

'The Other Side: An Historic Poem,' by Virginia Fraser Doyle (Riverside Press), is a singular survival of that inexorableness on the part of Southern women which doubtless prolonged the civil war for many months and still makes reconstruction difficult and imperfect. In her preface she defines contemporaneous literature as "the logbook by which the historical mariner can steer off the shoals of narrowness and lift above the fogs of sectionalism the many phases of a heterogeneous people." Her contribution towards this desirable end is a long poem in heroic couplets, in which every Southern soldier of the civil war becomes a picturesque cavalier, and every Union soldier a "brutal hireling," and the two hundred thousand black soldiers who fought for the nation are foolishly classed (p. 17) as

"those poor ebon chattels of his hand—
Enfranchised mockeries—held in the lines
By bayonets that prodded from the rear."

It is a curious indication how the laws of trade are doing more to reunite the nation than can

be done by the private wrath of man—or woman—that this book was sent to Cambridge, Massachusetts, to be printed.

'For Fifty Years' is a collection of verses, mostly occasional, by the Rev. E. E. Hale, D.D (Boston: Roberts Bros.). It is distinctively a collection and not a selection; bearing that character of literary odds-and-ends which mars so much of this brilliant man's work. We have found nothing in it so striking as the short translation from Homer called "Neptune Descending" (p. 98), and this is very much impaired by alteration from the form in which it first appeared, many years since, in the collection called 'Thalatta: A Book for the Seaside.' The author has now broken it up into short lines and given it a sort of Hebraic twist, suitable enough for the Psalms of the Old Testament, but peculiarly un-Homeric.

'On the Road Home,' by Margaret E. Sangster (Harpers), is a collection of pure and pleasing poems, thoroughly feminine and domestic, and likely to have many readers and warm friends. There is always a certain attraction in the Scottish dialect, and Mr. James Law, in his 'Dreams o' Hame, and Other Scotch Poems, with a Few Experiments in English Verse' (Paisley and London: Gardner), comes perilously near relying too much on this for the flavor of his volume. He lives apparently at Camden, N. J., but publishes in Scotland. One of the poems is described by Prof. Blackie as a "rich geographical ditty," and this or some other is guardedly and felicitously endorsed by Dr. Holmes as being "characteristic," which may mean much or little. 'Poems and Plays by Donn Piatt' (Cincinnati: Clarke) may certainly be labelled with that epithet; it is a mixture of journalist and politician, and the reader wonders whether the thick volume is the final apotheosis of the Sunday newspaper.

## CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

Despite the facts that the Chinese hieroglyphics stamped on the imperial yellow cover of Adele M. Fielde's 'Chinese Nights' Entertainments' (Putnams) are upside down, and that the green dragon looks wonderfully like an American tow-path mule, the interior contents are not disappointing. There are forty stories of indigenous flavor, felicitously translated out of a bulky Chinese novel entitled 'The Strayed Arrow.' Like two-score mirrors, these tales reflect faithfully as many phases of the social, official, commercial, and imaginary life of the Middle Kingdom. The book is so charming, in that translation and condensation take the place of philosophy or comparison, that the title of one of the stories, "Jean Valjean in Cathay," rather mars than improves. Underneath the folk-lore, the exposure of corrupt politicians, the circumvention of wicked purposes, the proper punishment of the naughty, and the liberal rewarding of the good, is a vein of sly wit and dry humor. The story-teller seems to be continually chuckling in his sleeve at seeing the biter bit, and the digger of the pit falling into his own snare. Especially interesting are the illustrations, by modern Chinese artists of one school, their modernness being shown especially in the jin-riki-sha imported from Japan. These pictures, drawn with spirit and finely reproduced, add greatly to the value of the work. Few accessible books give so faithful an epitome of Chinese life.

R. M. Ballantyne's 'Walrus Hunters' (T. Nelson & Sons) is a story for boys, not much better or worse than the other boys' books that have proceeded from this prolific writer. The Eskimo are not like any Eskimo known to travellers, the Indians are similarly unique, and the whole story of their relations to one another is equally removed from fact or probability. If there were such Eskimo and such Indians, it is possible they might act as here represented. Apart from this, the tale is rather amusing, and the narrative has a certain amount of "go" in it, so that the average uncritical boy reader will probably think it "not a bad story."

'Ivar the Viking,' Mr. Du Chaillu's latest contribution to literature (Scribners), is, according to the title-page, "a romantic history based upon authentic facts of the third and fourth centuries." Exactly what is meant by "authentic facts" is, apparently, facts that are neither doubtful by assumption, nor that have, in any way, succumbed to the wear and tear of time and the attacks of the critics. The reader, however, who looks for facts of this sort appertaining to the third and fourth centuries in the present book will be forced upon some other explanation. If the author were in secret possession of some new and startling sources of information not yet revealed to the eyes of the rest of the world, that would be the solution. Manifestly this, also, is untrue, for the source of the material of the book is plainly to be recognized in both of the Eddas and in the Sagas, with the added evidence of antiquarian finds with which we are all familiar. Some few of the elements comprehended under this last category in reality do go back to the specified time, but they are entirely insufficient to found this or any other story upon.

It may be, in fact, asserted that we know almost nothing at all of the Norsemen not only of the third and fourth centuries, but of those succeeding down to the so-called Viking Age, which began with the middle of the eighth century. Even then the material is scanty enough. The oldest of the Eddic songs do not, in all probability, antedate the ninth century, and the Sagas are later. The great body of Mr. Du Chaillu's "authentic facts" is, in reality, derived from the tenth century. Much of his mythology could not possibly be earlier. The picture of Walhalla, for instance, as we have it, is a distinct growth of the Viking Age. What the Norse mythology of the third century was, no man knows, and it is utterly incapable of reconstruction from what we have left of it. If Mr. Du Chaillu had put on his title-page and elsewhere the "tenth century," no reasonable complaint could have been made. There would have been, to be sure, some anachronisms, but they would have weighed comparatively light in the balance, and might easily have been forgiven.

Aside from the inconsistencies noted, and the few others which might possibly be adduced, the story of Ivar the Viking is to be thoroughly recommended to the young readers for whom it is intended. The history of the Norse chieftain begins with his birth, and tells of his fostering away from home, of his education, his expeditions and his voyages, and finally of his accession to rule upon the death of his father. Like the good old-fashioned tales everywhere, it ends with a marriage, and Ivar and his bride sail away home on a dragon-ship. The story is characteristically spirited, and the romantic part, at least, leaves nothing to be desired.

'Robin's Recruit,' by A. G. Plympton (Roberts Bros.), is a short tale of life on a frontier post. The recruit, a man of weak will and desperate, sullen impulses fostered by early wrongs, is won over to a certain degree of self-restraint through the trust and admiration gratuitously bestowed upon him by little Robin, his captain's child, and finally sacrifices his life in an heroic attempt to save the powder-magazine from threatening fire. The book is written in a rather sentimental tone, despite the protest against sentimentality delivered in season and out of season by the blunt faithful servant, Susannah. "I ain't going to have any man sprawling on the parade-ground picking flowers for *me*," is her acknowledgment of a delicate attention.

The stories in Mr. J. T. Trowbridge's new volume, 'Woodie Thorpe's Pilgrimage' (Lee & Shepard, surely sound the depths or scrape the shoals of commonplace. One after another introduces a youthful hero, generally poor and in some doubtful crisis of his career, often encumbered with some personal disadvantage—among others, "grimmy paws" in one case. They severally emerge from their difficulties, sometimes by the exercise of quite astonishing wisdom and virtue, and again through happy accidents and even in spite of their own ill-behavior. "Never mind," the author seems to say, with cheerful optimism; "a boy's a boy for a' that, and bound to turn out well in the end."

Col. T. W. Knox's 'The Boy Travellers in Southern Europe' (Harpers) is characterized by the merits and defects of its numerous predecessors. It contains a large number of well-chosen and generally good pictures of the principal cities of Italy and a few of southern Spain, with an accompanying text, descriptive and historical, closely packed with information, but which the dreary attempts at humor scattered through it cannot make entertaining. An unusual number of slight, but unnecessary, errors, as, Spielgen for Splügen, Trajan for Titus, and *Sir* Randolph Churchill, indicate haste in preparation. It should also be said that the usefulness of the book for reference is almost lost for the lack of an index.

'John Boyd's Adventures' (D. Appleton & Co.), by the same author, is the story of an American sailor in the early part of the present century. He passes through the usual experiences of heroes in sea-stories, is attacked by privateers and pirates, is shipwrecked, and makes an involuntary voyage in an African slaver. His capture by Algerine pirates and imprisonment in Algiers and Tripoli give occasion for an interesting account of some of the episodes in our naval war with the Barbary States. There is a lack of life and color in the story, and there is no originality and very little excitement in it, but it is unobjectionable, John Boyd being a manly fellow who deserves his promotion.

The 'Comic Tragedies,' written by "Jo" and "Meg" and acted by "The Little Women" (Roberts Bros.), come as an aftermath from Miss Alcott's hard-driven pen. They were worth gathering together chiefly as a passport to further intimacy with a mind that has given so much good cheer to other minds, whether young or only still keeping the spirit of youth. There are doubtless readers who will feel a thrill of genuine sentiment at the sight of these stage texts of the windy performances with which Louisa and her less gifted sisters amused themselves in the earlier Concord days, "the happiest of my life." In themselves they show no promise of the sympathy with homely human nature, its every-day hopes and thoughts, which is the constraining charm of her works. Love-lorn Zuleikas, Biancas, and Ianthes run riot on the boards; witches, bandits, black masks, and their ilk make havoc of every shred of congruity or probability. But it was

"Jo" herself who took the part of ranting villain or disdainful queen, and whose ingenuity made the most of the heterogeneous stage properties graphically described in the "foreword by Meg." This being the case, a volume without intrinsic merit of its own will be sure to find acceptance among readers of all ages and conditions, who will approach it from as many standpoints of interest as there are stages of appreciation of the imaginative faculty and of the value of its productions.

The easy writing and easy thinking of "Susan Coolidge's" stories for girls make them easy reading also. It is quite certain that the young people she has the knack of amusing so pleasantly will get no harm from the bevy of girl acquaintances she gives them. Nor will they often find a hint in her pages that the world is other than a cheerful sort of place, where every nice girl's pudding is sure to contain a matrimonial plum or two, and where common sense and pluck—especially if combined with an instinct for delicate cookery—are tolerably sure to bring their possessor to some good end. In a certain sense life proves to every one very much as he or she takes it, and a stock of comfortable optimism is by no means a bad thing to set out with. From this point of view 'The Barberry Bush' (Roberts Bros.) is an excellent little volume. But for more strenuous ideals a girl must look elsewhere. Intellectual incentive she will not find in any or all of these nine stories, nor will she gain from them that nice feeling for the finished use of her mother-tongue which comes from a familiarity with some of its masters. She may while away pleasant hours with tales thus genially conceived and not ungracefully told, but they will never open up to her the best delights of reading.

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*Alfred, Lord Tennyson, and his Friends:* A Series of 25 Portraits and Frontispiece, etc. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

Among the most important of the holiday books this year is certain to be reckoned this handsome folio volume, of which an edition of 400 numbered copies, 150 for sale in America, has been brought out. The portraits are well-executed photogravures, most of them from the celebrated photographs from life of the late Mrs. Julia Margaret Cameron and those of her son H. H. Hay Cameron. Five of them are from portraits by G. F. Watts, and one, that of Arthur Hallam, is from a bust by Chantrey. There is a short introduction by Mr. Cameron, and Mrs. Anne Thackeray Ritchie contributes some rambling but gracefully written Reminiscences, which give pleasant glimpses of Farringford and of the near-at-hand island studio of Mrs. Cameron and its enthusiastic occupant.

Mrs. Cameron took her art very seriously, and *as* an art, and it is a little odd to find her writing, as a great portrait-painter might write, of her effort at "recording faithfully the greatness of the inner as well as the features of the outer man" of her illustrious sitters. She seems to have felt that her admiration and insight were communicated in some way to the plates, and to consider her photographs as done with her soul and her eyes rather than with lenses and acids. Never was such a feeling more nearly justified by the results, and never has photography been more nearly transformed into a fine art. This woman, whose own intensely earnest face here looks out at us from Mr. Watts's portrait, by some magic of sympathy, by intelligence of arrangement, by feeling for light and shade, and, above all, by a trick of focussing which gives a certain vagueness of detail, has managed almost to divest photography of its mechanical nature while retaining its convincing accuracy as a record of fact. The result is a portrait-gallery of the highest interest, and one which posterity will value as giving at once the most just and the most artistic presentation of the faces of some of the greatest men of Victorian England. It is to be regretted that we are not told, except in one instance, which of the pictures are by the son, but, as well as we can judge from the date and other evidences, his plates are somewhat more commonplace than the mother's—excellent photographs, but with less individuality of manner.

The volume opens, after a frontispiece or illuminated title by W. A. Smith, in which there is little to praise, with four portraits of the Laureate himself at different ages. The first is Watts's portrait of 1859, dreamy and poetic-looking, but not very real, the author rather than the man. Strongly contrasted with it is the celebrated photograph, taken in 1865 by Mrs. Cameron, which Tennyson himself always spoke of as the "dirty monk." It is haggard and dishevelled, a face of power rather than of sweetness, the shoulders wrapped in an old cloak. There is a complete absence of linen that is slightly unpleasant in suggestion, and probably gave it its name. The head is in nearly full profile, and the high retreating forehead and aquiline nose are well shown. Mrs. Cameron herself said of it that it was "a fit representation of Isaiah or of Jeremiah," and Sir Henry Taylor thought it as fine as Tennyson's finest poem. That of 1866 is mild and combed, with a look as of a Dickens with longer hair. It suggests, too, somehow, the head of Jean François Millet. It is not very striking or individual. Last comes a photograph of 1888, nearly full-faced, with flat velvet cap, and beard now white with age—a strong, mild face that looks steadily at you from under brows and lids that droop less, apparently, than in some of the earlier portraits.

Chantrey's somewhat commonplace and smug-looking bust of Hallam, and Watts's refined but vapory Lady Tennyson, are followed by the magnificent profile of Carlyle which is best known to many by T. Cole's fine engraving published in the *Century* some years since. It is the most remarkable thing in the book, and one of the best portraits in existence. Only the great masters of portraiture have done anything at once so fine in aspect and so convincing in representation of character, and it reminds one rather of Velasquez or Rembrandt than of ordinary photography. It is little wonder that, difficult as Carlyle was about his portraits—calling that by Watts a "flayed horse"—he should have given a grumbling acquiescence to this one as having "something of likeness." Only less impressive than the Carlyle are the melancholy, leonine head of Sir John Herschel, and the vast pent-house brow and snowy beard of Darwin. To turn from these to the portrait of Gladstone by Watts is to realize what we moderns owe to photography. No one could read the character of the "grand old man" in these uncertain and characterless features.

Between Carlyle and Gladstone is Browning's strong face, and after Herschel come a good commonplace photograph of Hallam Tennyson, the present Lord, and one, not so good, of his brother Lionel; Mrs. Cameron herself by Watts and Watts by Mrs. Cameron—a fine portrait, noticeable for the likeness to Titian, which the painter is evidently aware of, and then James Spedding from Watts's drawing—"calm, wise, bald, combining the best features of youth and age," as FitzGerald said. The "forehead," on which FitzGerald joked, and which Thackeray caricatured as a milestone and a rising moon, is very conspicuous, and reaches beyond the crown of the head. Neither FitzGerald himself nor Thackeray is here, more's the pity. Mrs. Cameron would have made something very fine of Thackeray's noble face, one imagines. Americans will prize the portrait of Longfellow and the very fine one of Lowell, and every one will be interested just now in the "cherubic" countenance of Prof. Jowett, a delicate, refined, and kindly face, not without a certain resemblance to Thiers. Besides these, there are Dr. Butler of Trinity, Mrs. Thackeray Ritchie, Dean Bradley, the shrewd, diplomatic-looking face of Lord Dufferin, the homely, heavy-jawed Lecky, and, last of all, the younger Cameron's very fine portrait of Irving as *Becket*. Altogether, this is a book to be thankful for.

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*General Greene.* By Francis Vinton Greene, author of 'The Russian Army and its Campaigns in Turkey in 1877-78,' etc. D. Appleton & Co. 1893. [Great Commanders Series.]

When Jared Sparks says that Gen. Nathanael Greene "may justly be regarded as the most extraordinary man in the Army of the Revolution," it is to be assumed that primary reference is had to the extraordinary circumstances under which he rose to his singular eminence as a soldier. The son of a Quaker preacher, trained "among the most superstitious sort," to use his own words, taught to despise all learning outside of the Bible, to regard all worldly amusements as sinful, and to abhor war as criminal, he early began to collect books, was passionately fond of dancing, had a fancy for military parades, enlisted in the "Kentish Guards," despite three separate warnings from the "Meeting," pored over Cæsar's Campaigns and Turenne's Memoirs, surreptitiously imported a musket from Boston, hired a British deserter from Gen. Gage's army to teach the manual of arms to his train-band comrades, and finally, though only a private in that squad of military rustics, was elected *per saltum* Brigadier-General of the "Army of Observation" raised by the Assembly of Rhode Island in 1775 for the relief of Boston. At the age of thirty we find him lamenting his want of a liberal education, for the want of which, as he said, his mind had been "cramped." At the age of thirty-three we find him suddenly elevated by his fellow-citizens to the most important and responsible station in their gift; and his biographer is compelled to admit that history is silent as to the reasons which induced this extraordinary and sudden promotion.

But history is not silent as to the reasons which subsequently justified it. Among all the generals who, beginning at the siege of Boston, rendered service in the Continental Army, Washington and Greene are the only general officers whose service was continuous. Fiske thinks it not too much to say that Greene was Washington's "right arm" in every campaign, while "for indefatigable industry, for strength and breadth of intelligence, and for unselfish devotion to the public service he was scarcely inferior to the commander-in-chief." Cornwallis, called to measure swords with him in the campaign of the Jerseys, bore a frank tribute to Greene's military capa-

city. "Greene," he wrote, "is as dangerous as Washington; he is vigilant, enterprising, and full of resources." Alexander Hamilton has praised "the vast, it may be almost said the enormous, powers of his mind," while Robert Morris allowed the language of eulogy to rise into the *aliquid immensum* by saying that he was "an officer who found in his own genius an ample resource for the want of men, money, clothes, arms, and supplies."

Captain Greene brings to this biography a candid, and what, at certain stages of the narrative, becomes a critical, appreciation of the conduct he is here called to review, while the writer's military knowledge has well fitted him to interpret the theory of the movements made in each of the campaigns in which Greene figured. Especially interesting is the description here given of the Southern campaign, in which Greene manœuvred Cornwallis into Virginia and cooped up the remnant of the British army in Charleston.

It is admitted by his biographer that Gen. Greene's exit from the office of Quartermaster-General of the Continental Army "was not as dignified as might have been wished"; but it is pleaded, in partial extenuation of any peevishness he may have shown in retiring from that post, that its duties were very ungrateful to him, and that the provocations he received from his enemies in Congress were great. But undoubtedly the most painful episode in the whole of Gen. Greene's career is the complication in which, towards the end of the Southern campaign, he became involved with a firm of army contractors, in which one Banks was the managing principal. It is known that, without apprising Congress of the fact, Gen. Greene went as security on Banks's paper for the fulfilment of certain contracts, and was fraudulently left in the lurch by that bold operator. To add to Greene's humiliation, it was not only "insinuated" but openly charged that he was a silent partner with Banks in the hard bargain which the latter had driven with the Southern Army, and it came out, in the investigations to which the case led, that two of Greene's aides-de-camp had certainly been in collusion with Banks. From all the evidence in the case, we are perfectly persuaded that Greene was innocent of any confederacy with this rapacious army sutler, but we can hardly concur with the biographer in holding that Greene's "conduct throughout this humiliating incident was dignified and proper *with one single exception*"—the retention of the speculating aides-de-camp in their confidential relations after their complicity with Banks had been detected. This certainly was a grievous error, but the fountain and origin of Greene's whole imprudence was in becoming surety for Banks without at the time giving notice of the fact to Congress. We can see that the motive for this reticence may have been as patriotic as it was seemingly prudential, but the secret compact was made in contravention alike of public duty and of private safety, as the result soon proved. The biographer is entirely correct when he says that the widow of Gen. Greene was "warmly assisted" by Alexander Hamilton, while he was Secretary of the Treasury, in pressing her claim for public relief from the heavy burden which the estate of Greene was called to assume because of the failure and frauds of Banks. But Hamilton, with all his confidence in Greene's probity and in the purity of Greene's motives, could not bring himself to justify an obvious deviation from the ordinary rule of public prudence, and submitted it, "without observation, to the contemplation of legislative discretion."

The appeal to Congress was not made in vain, for in 1796 an act was passed, after full discussion, for the relief of the estate of Gen. Greene from the entanglement with Banks. And so it came to pass, in the end, that the national legislation set its seal to the integrity of Greene, and when it was proposed in the Senate to accompany this act of justice with an insulting proviso, to the effect that the moneys paid for the estate should be reimbursed to the Government "if at any time hereafter it should appear that the said Gen. Greene was interested in this transaction as a member of the house of Hunter, Banks & Co.," the proviso was promptly voted down, because the injurious implication had been negatived in the eyes of candid men by all the disclosures to which the scandal had led.

Capt. Greene writes in a quiet and easy style, but we do not share his predilection for such locutions as "the *balance* of the militia went home," "he withdrew the *balance* of the garrison," when the same thought could be just as well expressed in more reputable English.

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*The Philippine Islands.* By John Foreman. Charles Scribner's Sons.

We should recommend this book to any one who intends to visit the Philippine Islands for a length of time, or who wishes to investigate seriously their history, nature, and resources. We should not recommend it to any one else except to the very patient. Mr. Foreman evidently is at home in his subject; he has lived and travelled in the Philippines for nine years, he has studied and observed, and he furnishes us with much useful information. What a pity that he does not know how to use his material! His book is heavy from beginning to end; facts, figures, and personal experiences dragging along one after another in sleepy succession. Although he shows insight and we respect his opinions, he grasps his ideas clumsily. We miss a sense of proportion, of what is worth saying and what is not. His style, always tiresome, is often positively bad, especially when he attempts fine writing. On the first page we find: "Nor has the subsequent example of colonizing nations served to quench, in spirit, their petrified conservatism." Such an opening is discouraging to the reader who has nearly five hundred large pages ahead of him. Still, we repeat, Mr. Foreman tells us much.

The chief impression we get from his work —and it is also his own—is how little Spain has done in three hundred years with her splendid possessions. Many of the natives are yet unsubdued, none of them are really civilized. It is the usual story of Spanish bigotry and misgovernment. The laws are complicated and bad, brigands abound and are seldom punished, the officials are corrupt, capital and enterprise are lacking and receive no encouragement, and "every impediment possible, in the present day, seems to be placed in the way of trade." The great undeveloped resources are likely long to remain so; but, as in other countries where nature is bountiful, life easy, and modern industrial conditions unknown, there is almost no absolute want. On the whole, we get an unflattering view of the natives. They are incurably lazy, deceitful, and improvident. "In the South there is no way of expressing thanks in native dialect to a donor. . . . Even the best class of natives neither appreciate, nor feel grateful for, nor even seem to understand a spontaneous gift. Apparently, they comprehend the favor when one yields to their asking. The lowest classes never give to each other, unsolicited, a cent's worth. If an European makes voluntary gratuities to the natives, he is considered a fool—they entertain a contempt for him, which develops into intolerable impertinence." On the other hand, they are sober, patient, clean, they are rather honest, and they are brave when well led.

We regret that Mr. Foreman does not appear to be familiar with Java, to which he makes no allusion, though it is the colony of another power that can most fairly be compared with the Philippines. We believe that the Dutch get much the better of the comparison in every respect but one, which, however, the Spaniards probably think the most important of all. *They* have converted their subjects, including many of the Chinese, some of whom have even been admitted to holy orders, whereas the Dutch have not done so. Since the beginning of its history the Church in the Philippines has been all-powerful. "The conquest of this colony was decidedly far more a religious achievement than a military one." At the present day the influence of the parish priests or "friars" is immense, an influence in most cases bitterly opposed to all progress and reform. A great opportunity has been lost. In spite of symptoms of revolt against clerical rule and of a general awakening, we doubt if the islands can now ever hope to attain the prosperity they might once have enjoyed. Formerly the limited supply of tropical products which the world needs was obtained from a few favored countries; but such enormous tracts of tropical land have been recently acquired by European nations that it is hard to see how any such possessions can be very profitable. If any are, the Spanish certainly have not the best chance.

In conclusion, as a curiosity, here is an item in the expenditures that may interest some people in Chicago and elsewhere: "Share of the pension paid to the heir of Christopher Columbus, the Duke of Veragua ($23,400 a year), $3,000."

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*Madoc:* An Essay on the Discovery of America by Madoc ap Owen Gwynedd in the Twelfth Century. By Thomas Stephens. Edited by Llywarch Reynolds. Longmans. 1893. 8vo, pp. xvi-250.

At the Eisteddfod of 1858 a prize was offered for an essay on "The Welsh Discovery of America." Five papers were handed in, of which the present book was one, and it was esteemed much the ablest of all in research and literary skill; but, to save the national pride, it was thrown out, because, taking the ground of a non-discovery, it was held not to be upon the assigned topic. The writer of it has a reputation as the author of the 'Literature of the Kymry.' The essay has not lost by an enforced obscurity of five and thirty years, and is now made public. The question which it discusses has long been settled in the estimation of careful historical students who can weigh evidence, and the subject can well pass into oblivion under the impression which this treatment of it makes. The book in one sense is not a good one, because the author's method involves so much repetition, and the magnitude of the book is consequently out of proportion to the task given to him. He divides the matter into three sections. In the first he states the various so-called evidences, bardic and otherwise. In the second he follows down the critical literature of the topic based on these evidences. In the third he goes over the material of the first and second sections in the light of his own judgment. In this way pretty much the

same material is three times laid before the reader.

The examination of what is called the bardic proofs shows that perversion, garbling, and substitution have been the triple method of making these evidences serve an affirmative purpose. Mr. Stephens makes it clear that there is no contemporary historical evidence, and that legendary stories on the subject had no reference to Western discoveries until after the exploits of Columbus were known, when incidents, in some ways very like the experiences of the Genoese, were engrafted upon the legend. He then examines, at so great a length as to overdo the matter, the hollowness and hearsay character of the innumerable stories which have prevailed since the middle of the last century, of Welsh Indians among our aborigines, presumably descendants of Madoc's companions; and he disposes of them one by one as presumptions or falsities. Humboldt sixty years ago dismissed the question with the assurance that the main features of the story were quite possible, as indeed they are, and the authority of his great name has ever since been evoked in support of the claim by the same sort of minds as those which get a polite acknowledgment of their new book and think they have got a critical commendation.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Across France in a Caravan. 2d ed. Randolph. $4.50.
Adams, C. F. Massachusetts: Its Historians and its History. An Object-Lesson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Adams, Rev. H. A. The Larger Life. J. S. Tait & Sons. $1.
Alden, Mrs. G. R. Stephen Mitchell's Journey. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Alden, W. L. Told by the Colonel. J. S. Tait & Sons. $1.25.
Aldrich, T. B. An Old Town by the Sea. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Burt, H. M., and S. W. Life and Times of Henry Burt of Springfield, and Some of his Descendants. Springfield, Mass.: Clark W. Bryan Co.
Butler, E. A. Our Household Insects. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Campbell, Mrs Helen. Women Wage-Earners. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Cambridge Sermons: Preached before the University in St. Mary's Church, 1889-92. London: Methuen & Co.
Carus, Paul. Primer of Philosophy. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.
Castlemon, Harry. Rodney, the Overseer. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Denison, Mary A. The Romance of a Schoolboy. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co.
Dodge, Col. T. A. Riders of Many Lands. Harpers. $4.
Douglas, Amanda M. Lyndell Sherburne. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Edgeworth, Maria. Leonora.—Ennui. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. Each $1.
Elliot, Frances. Old Court Life in France. 2 vols. Putnams. $4.
Etheridge, Mary L. Dick and Joe; or, Two of a Kind. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
Fluegel, Rev. Maurice. Spirit of the Biblical Legislation. Baltimore: The Author.
Freeman, E. A. Studies of Travel: Greece, Italy. 2 vols. Putnams. $1.50.
Galton, Sir Douglas. Healthy Hospitals: Observations on some Points connected with Hospital Construction. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Gatty, Mrs. Alfred. Parables from Nature. 2 vols. Putnams. $3.50.
Geikie, Sir Archibald. Text Book of Geology. 3d ed., revised and enlarged. Macmillan. $7.50.
Goodhart, Prof. H. C. The Eighth Book of Thucydides's History. Macmillan. $1.90
Howard, Blanche W. No Heroes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Howells, W. D. Evening Dress. Harpers. 50 cents.
Howells, W. D. The Coast of Bohemia. Harpers. $1.50.
Hubert, P. G., Jr. Inventors. [Men of Achievement.] Scribners. $2.
Innes, A. D. Seers and Singers: A Study of Five English Poets. London: A. D. Innes & Co.
Ireland, Dr. W. W. The Blot upon the Brain: Studies in History and Psychology. 2d ed. Edinburgh: Bell & Bradfute; New York: Putnams. $3.
Irving, Washington. Knickerbocker's History of New York. 2 vols. Putnams. $6.
Jewett, Sarah O. Deephaven. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Jacobs, Joseph. More English Fairy Tales. London: D. Nutt; New York: Putnams. $1 75.
Knight, E. F. Where Three Empires Meet. 3d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Lang, Andrew. The True Story Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Lavisse, Prof. Ernest, and Rambaud, Prof. Alfred. L'Europe Féodale; les Croisades. 1095-1270. [Histoire Générale du IVe Siècle à nos Jours. Tome II.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 16, 1893.

## The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S decision in the Hawaiian case is the only just one possible. He has simply undone the wrong which Minister Stevens, acting without authority, committed in the name of the Harrison Administration, and which that Administration itself was forced to disavow after it had made thoroughly discreditable use of it. Secretary Gresham gives a clear and straightforward statement of all the disgraceful episodes in this most un-American proceeding, showing, what was made plain long ago, that the conduct of Mr. Stevens was indefensible in every particular, and was sustained by him with misrepresentation and falsehood. As Secretary Gresham says:

> "Should not the great wrong done to a feeble, but independent State, by an abuse of the authority of the United States, be undone by restoring the legitimate government? Anything short of that will not, I respectfully submit, satisfy the demands of justice. Can the United States consistently insist that other nations shall respect the independence of Hawaii while not respecting it themselves? Our government was the first to recognize the independence of the Islands, and it should be the last to acquire sovereignty over them by force and fraud."

There is no other answer to these questions than the one which the Cleveland Administration has given. President Harrison's course in the matter was scarcely less discreditable than that of Stevens. The Queen of Hawaii issued a proclamation after the Stevens seizure by force and fraud, in which she said she had yielded her authority to force and under protest, *pending an appeal of her case to the United States.* She then sent to this country a commission to present her case to the President. Without granting the very ordinary courtesy of awaiting the arrival of her envoys, the President closed the case without hearing the Queen's side at all, and hurried a message to Congress, with a treaty of annexation, saying that the "restoration of Queen Liliuokalani to her throne is undesirable, if not impossible." Nothing more disgraceful than this has ever happened in our international dealings. We observe that the annexationists are now denouncing President Cleveland's simple undoing of Harrison's wrong as a concession to "monarchy," as if a monarchy were not entitled to be treated with either decency or courtesy. We have no fear as to the popular judgment in this matter. There has never been any real sentiment in favor of annexation, as the condemnation of the Union League Club, uttered shortly after Harrison sent in his treaty, gave conclusive evidence. The American people are too sensible to believe that grabbing an island by force and fraud is the true way to vindicate our "Americanism."

The horror felt by the Republican press, and particularly the *Tribune*, over the restoration of an "idolatrous" monarch in Hawaii has not been equalled since Bill Nye discovered that he was being cheated by "a heathen Chinee." The remedy for it is to remember that, when you rob a man, you, *ipso facto*, condone the badness of his character. If, for instance, you steal his watch, you cannot plead that he is not a church member, or that he ill-treats his wife or gets drunk once a week. If we admit that we unlawfully dethroned the Queen in order to help the commercial speculations of certain people, we waive our objections both to her religion and to her morality. She is, from all we hear, quite as good a Christian as the bulk of her subjects, who are pretty steady in ordinary times, although they do now and then, when the Mauna Loa volcano is very violent, sacrifice a black pig or two by way of extra precaution. But our colored citizens in South Carolina and Mississippi are quite capable of the same thing if they had frequently to face alarming natural phenomena. Does any one suppose that if tornadoes or earthquakes became very frequent in those parts, the colored citizens would rely solely on prayer-meetings for deliverance? Moreover, we are dealing with heathen monarchs every day. The Emperor of China is a heathen; so is the Emperor of Japan, and the King of Siam, and certainly the Sultan of Morocco and of Turkey might as well be. The way the Emperor of Russia carries on before the "sacred images," too, is well calculated to draw on him the attention of the American Board. As to the Queen's morals, we do not say they leave nothing to be desired, but then is there a single moral ruler in the world, except Queen Victoria, or ex-ruler, except Benjamin Harrison? Are we to employ the army and navy to place moral rulers on the thrones of the earth, considering the kind of rulers we ourselves sit down under? Have the subjects of King Croker any right to complain of the evil behavior of other potentates? Would we allow any foreign power to land troops to deliver us from Gilroy and Paddy Divver?

We are greatly surprised at the absence in this discussion of all allusion to the virtues of universal suffrage. The *Tribune* on Tuesday had some mention of a certain "free and intelligent people" in Hawaii, whom this wicked Administration is forcing to submit to "a corrupt, idolatrous, and barbarous despotism." But it does not say of what this "free and intelligent people" consists. It cannot be possible that it consists of the 637 white Americans resident in the capital in a total registered vote of 13,593 (we quote from President Harrison's message submitting the annexation treaty), and that the term excludes the bulk of the population simply because they are native-born and colored. If this should prove true, we should all die of shame. Where would it leave the colored citizens of the Southern States, and the federal-election bill, and the wicked Democrats, and the "great work of reconstruction," and the Union League Club? What would "the Committee on Political Reform" of that institution say? Why, the very dogs in the *Tribune* office would arise and howl over such a view. We take it for granted that the *Tribune* means by "the free and intelligent people" the native-born citizens of Hawaii, without distinction of race or color, and that it is under the impression, formed through misleading reports, that they are furiously opposed to the Queen's government and would overthrow it but for Secretary Gresham and Mr. Blount. When it learns the true state of the case, it will come round, and will denounce the prejudice against color just as we do, and demand an equal voice in the government for the colored Hawaiians as it does for the colored Americans.

The current opinion is that the logical candidate of the Republicans for the Presidency in 1896 is William McKinley, jr., of Ohio. This is our opinion also. The Republican party believes in protection. Formerly it believed in protection only for infant industries. Now it believes in protecting aged ones as well, and this it learned from McKinley. Formerly it believed in moderate protection, now it believes in extreme protection. This, too, it learned from McKinley. Formerly it believed in protection for a time, now it believes in protection for eternity. This, too, it learned from McKinley. It is true that McKinley led the party to the most disastrous defeats in its history in 1890 and 1892, yet he has led it, or has seemed to lead it, to a remarkable and quite unexpected victory in 1893. His own majority is unprecedented in Ohio since the Vallandigham campaign which took place during the war. All these things point to McKinley as the logical and proper nominee of his party in 1896. Yet it is not probable that he will be nominated—for one reason, because the logical candidate of a party seldom is nominated. Yet we think that all tariff-reformers, if they could be

consulted, would vote unanimously for the nomination of McKinley. They want to meet a candidate who represents the most extreme views on the subject of the tariff.

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The Ways and Means Committee is going steadily on with its work during the recess, and the new tariff bill will be ready for presentation early in the next session. The theory that the result of the elections would cause the Democrats to abandon the policy of tariff reform has been dropped almost as soon as it was broached. The Philadelphia *Press* points out that in all our political history the party in power has gone on and executed its policy without reference to such elections, as the Republicans passed the resumption act after the "tidal wave" of 1874, and the tariff of 1883 after the next "tidal wave" in 1882. The business community will be pleased with the assurance of early action and the consequent end of the existing uncertainty as to what the new tariff rates are to be. The *Dry Goods Economist* says upon this point:

"The worst of a tariff change is the uncertainty of its period of incubation. A portion of this uncertainty we have already undergone; the remainder we are in a better position to endure than we have been for many years. Let the tariff bill be pushed vigorously, and let a date be early fixed upon and announced on which the new bill shall take effect. This is the only sensible and honest course, and, we firmly believe, the only popular one for Congress to pursue."

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It will be noticed that the price of silver bullion, which surprised many observers by advancing 3 cents per ounce immediately after the repeal bill passed into law, has subsequently fallen off again. On Thursday last the price touched 71½ cents per ounce, against 68¼ in the week before repeal. Last week it closed at 69¾. The later reaction, curiously enough, is, neither in New York nor in London, ascribed to the stopping of our Government's purchases. The explanation volunteered from London is a temporary slackening in the Oriental demand for bullion, such as caused similar reactions in August and in September. If, as is now very generally believed, the repeal of our silver-purchase law was "discounted" in advance by the July break in silver's price, the key to the situation rests very largely with this Eastern market. The silver imports into India and China have this year been of extraordinary magnitude. China has already thus far taken $7,617,580 from London, or $7,055,435 more than last year's import, and more than the full annual record for any preceding year. India has imported $29,644,255 worth, and will probably before the year is over have equalled its own largest annual record.

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In our rejoicings over the downfall of the Democratic bosses in the East, we have not given sufficient attention to another result of the recent elections which is also cause for great satisfaction. That is, the collapse of Populism in the West. Wherever this party has manifested any strength of late years—in Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, South Dakota, and Virginia—it lost ground this fall; this, too, although its leaders in Congress prophesied that the repeal of the silver-purchase act would swell their party's vote everywhere to immense proportions, as the only way in which the masses could utter their rebuke of the "gold-bugs" and the "money power." It is evident that this latest embodiment of financial lunacy has had its day, and will soon be laid in the political tomb along with greenbackism, grangerism, and the rest. It seems to be our fate to have a succession of these crazes from time to time, but it is encouraging to find that the area of disturbance is steadily moving westward. Since Gen. Butler, soon after the close of the war, proposed to pay the Government bonds in greenbacks, no public man on the Atlantic seaboard has lent these schemes any favor. "The Ohio idea" of greenbackism in a few years became so intolerable to Ohioans that they would not hear more of it. Kansas, Nebraska, and the Dakotas are already tiring of Populism. A few years more should sweep the remnants of this folly across the thinly settled mountain States and dump them in the Pacific Ocean.

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The money which the corporations of this city have been paying as blackmail to the Croker gang will not be called for next year, as the Legislature has passed into Republican hands. In the aggregate, it must have amounted to a considerable sum, and we would now respectfully suggest that it be paid over to any organization which may be occupied with the task of overthrowing the boss system in this city and State. That this tax should have been almost openly levied and paid is surely one of the most astounding incidents of the present crisis. To find a parallel for it, one has to go back either to Turkey before the Crimean war or Scotland in the seventeenth century. As a tribute it would have been far more respectable if paid to avoid physical violence. Paid to avoid hostile legislation, it indicated extraordinary degradation of American institutions. It was not even paid to officers of the law, but to an outsider who controlled the officers of the law. Moreover, the recipients did not run away and hide their booty after receiving it, or spend it secretly in low debauchery. They spent it ostentatiously in horses and carriages and harness, and houses and farms, or, in other words, flaunted their plunder in the faces of their victims. If the corporations can afford the money—that is, can carry on their business at a profit while paying it—they ought to be willing to hand it over to any committee which is occupied with the work of reform.

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The circumstantial account which Mr. Judson Lawson, the Assemblyman-elect in the Twenty-third District, gives to a *World* reporter of the Tammany system of blackmail in use in the Department of Buildings, furnishes a sufficient basis for legislative investigation. Mr. Lawson is a builder on a large scale, and has himself suffered personally many of the extortions which he enumerates. It is a notorious fact that not merely in this branch of the Tammany government, but in all other branches, the official power of the bureau is used, not to enforce the laws and protect both public and private rights, but to extort blackmail, either as the price of violating the law without interference, or as the price of freedom from constant annoyance by the underlings of the bureau. If the full truth about the way in which our laws are administered could be revealed, the people of this city would discover that they are living under a despotism more intolerable than that of the Czar of Russia, or any other civilized monarch, for it is the despotism of a band of thieves.

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For the first time in the history of the country, the majority of the men in a State last week voted directly in favor of giving the women of that State the ballot on equal terms with themselves. The Constitution of Colorado has a provision that women suffrage shall be granted whenever the Legislature shall submit the question to the qualified voters and they shall ratify it. The last Legislature thus submitted it, and equal suffrage was carried on November 7 by a majority of several thousand. Women voted for years in the Territories of Utah, Wyoming, and Washington, but it was only by act of the Legislature; and although Wyoming came into the Union as a State with a constitution that forbids any denial or abridgment of the right to vote and hold office on account of sex, this constitution was ratified as a whole, without any separate vote on the suffrage clause. In Colorado, on the other hand, the question of extending the ballot to women was submitted at the polls as a separate proposition, and it was the only State issue which was thus submitted this year, the elections being for county officials. The result consequently expresses the deliberate judgment of the men, and equal suffrage of the two sexes must be accepted hereafter as the settled policy of that commonwealth. There has been a notable change of sentiment on this question among the men of Colorado during the past sixteen years, as in 1877 the same question was submitted and a similar proposition was rejected by a vote of two to one. A woman-suffrage amendment to the Constitution of Kansas will

be submitted to the men of that State next fall.

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The liberal Presbyterians flung their banner to the breeze in Cleveland on Thursday. They assert, by implication, that Dr. Briggs was deposed in an illegal manner, and declare that they do not mean to accept the invitation of the church to withdraw and flock by themselves. They mean to stay and to fight for their rights and for "reasonable liberty of opinion." The character and standing as well as the numbers of the men taking part in this movement lend it importance and make it impossible to question their motives. Their action will of itself accomplish what they wish, in frightening the conservatives into dropping all further prosecutions, or else, what is more likely, will stir up the strife again with added bitterness, and lead to extreme measures. The case of Prof. Smith, which comes before the Assembly next May, will make a convenient centre for the battle to rage around. It will try the mettle of the conservative majority, as any weakening now will mean only complete surrender, while such severity as was shown in the case of Prof. Briggs will, if repeated, almost infallibly lead to a serious split in the denomination.

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It has been reported by telegraph that the Brazilian Government had suppressed the *Rio News* and placed its editor, who is an American, Mr. A. J. Lamoureux, under arrest. The issue of the *News* for September 27 shows how much reason President Peixoto had to dread its bold utterances, even when printed in the English language. Defying the press censorship, it was printing the news about the military and political situation, and was evidently in a fair way to let the truth get to the outside world despite the lying telegrams sent out by the Government. The number of the *News* referred to shows clearly that a veritable reign of terror existed in Rio de Janeiro. All who could possibly leave the city had done so, a reasonable estimate being that one-third of the population had abandoned it. Military press-gangs were roving the streets, and, not content with seizing here and there an unemployed man, were going into factories and carrying off the whole body of operatives at a stroke. Everybody of any political standing who was suspected of coolness towards Peixoto and his schemes was clapped into jail on the charge of sedition or on no charge whatever. The defenders of the city were its greatest danger, many more people having been shot, maliciously or accidentally, by Government soldiers and officers, than had been killed by the bombardment. The *News* also published communications from the States, showing how Peixoto's performances were regarded away from the capital. For example, the students of the Sao Paulo law school had published a manifesto upholding the rights of the revolutionists, and affirming that the Brazilian revolution represents "the struggle of the law to throw off a military dictatorship." These are only a few of the signs that the intelligence of the country is against Peixoto, and that he is bound to go down sooner or later.

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We have had some displays of Jingoism by educated men, but never anything so bad, we are happy to believe, as that seen in Paris at the wind-up of the festivities attending the visit of the Russians. Representatives of the Russian newspapers gave a banquet at which the first men of France were present—such men as De Broglie, Brunetière, Jules Simon, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, to mention only specimen names. The keynote of the evening was set in the speech of Count Melchior de Vogüé, whose talk was all of two great races "of imagination and susceptibility, penetrated with intelligence and feeling," at last coming to know each other better, and so to love each other. According to Count de Vogüé—and no one gave utterance to a different opinion—the *entente* between France and Russia had been initiated by the "ouvriers de la pensée," and the aim of it all was, as he expressed it in his toast: "May the two countries in concert seize and preserve the true domination of the world—the domination of thought!"

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It was shameful for such men to tolerate such a misreading of the significance of the Russian visit and fêtes. Education stands for clear thinking, if for anything, and what could be more muddled thinking than to imagine that the French people were hailing the Russians as leaders in thought? It was Russian guns and ships, and not at all the Russian novel or the Russian philosophy, that France was rejoicing over. The veriest street urchins could not have been imposed upon by the talk with which these men of culture were content to deceive themselves. And then what a farce to speak of the Russian people as having any part whatever in the affair! The only Russians concerned were the Czar and his ministers, and if it had answered their purposes to fall upon the necks of Germans, Turks, or Chinese, the Russian people would have had just as much and just as little to do with it. One can imagine the astonishment of the patient *muzhiks* if they could have been embraced bodily, as they were figuratively, by their new-found French lovers. They would not have had the faintest idea what it was all about. If French culture had to give in to the passion for revenge on Germany which was really the leading source of the enthusiasm over the Russians, it would have been better to do so with cynical openness.

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The Italians are having a curious experience with silver. Silver is proving as false and treacherous to them as gold did to us during the war. With every inducement to stay in Italy and serve the small wants of the inhabitants, it has been steadily crossing the Alps. That is to say, the two-franc, one-franc, fifty and twenty-centime pieces have disappeared as fast as they were put in circulation during the past year. There is literally no silver "change" in Italy, and people have to use postage-stamps and resort to other expedients of what M. Leroy-Beaulieu calls the "ages before money was invented." The reason of all this is very simple. Silver has heard that it commands in Switzerland and France a premium (in Italian paper money) of eleven or twelve per cent. For the paltry gratification of its vanity, therefore, and in complete indifference to the convenience of the Italian people, it skips across the Alps, and gets itself exchanged for paper and sends the paper back into Italy and stays behind itself. The Italian Government, having borne with this as long as possible, demanded of the other powers of the Latin Union that they should gather up all the small Italian change which comes into the hands of their tax receivers and deliver it to Italy for its value. The other governments answered, however, that there would be no use in this as long as the character of silver remained unchanged; that if Italian silver had no patriotic attachment to Italian soil, of course it would run away again as soon as let loose. Italy, therefore, now demands that all the public offices of the other governments of the Union shall be closed to Italian silver so that it shall be driven out of circulation everywhere but in Italy. To secure this there will have to be a modification of the convention of November 6, 1885. It is supposed that there are $20,000,000 in small Italian change now roaming about in France, Switzerland and Belgium, which would be caught and brought back to Italy under this arrangement, but it would have to be paid for in *gold*. We can imagine how indignant our silver men will feel over the spectacle of silver actually captured, bought with gold, and delivered over to task-masters who make no pretence of sympathy or affection for it. But such is the proposed arrangement. The allowance of small change to each power under the convention is six francs a head of population—a beggarly portion, we must admit. One hundred or 1,000 francs a head would not be a cent too much. Has any one ever heard of anybody being ruined by having too much small change?

### *THE HAWAIIAN CONSPIRACY.*

THE prompt appearance of a "signed leader" in Monday's *Kennebec Journal* shows that its editor, the ex-minister to Hawaii, knows when he is hit. It was his revolution that overthrew the Hawaiian Queen, his provisional government that was set up, his scheme of annexation that President Harrison tried to put through with a Jingo whoop, and his long plotting that Commissioner Blount has now exposed and the President brought to naught. It did not need his present explosion, in the character of the baffled villain of the stage, to show his proprietorship of the combined conspiracy and speculation which is now a burst bubble. Pending the publication of Mr. Blount's report, with its detailed proofs of Secretary Gresham's assertion that Minister Stevens deceived the President and Secretary Foster, it will be instructive to review some of the evidence going to show that the annexation of the islands was steadily kept in view by the American minister for months before the "revolution" finally came.

Secretary Foster, in his letter to Congress accompanying the treaty of annexation, on February 16, said that the "change of government was entirely unexpected, so far as this Government was concerned," and that it was, "in fact, abrupt and unlooked for by the United States minister." This only shows how little attention Mr. Foster had given to Mr. Stevens's own letters to Mr. Blaine, on file in the Department, and to his leader in the *Kennebec Journal* of November 24, 1892 (not "signed" that time, but plainly enough his), and to the other articles in the American press which evidently had their inspiration from him or from some one in his confidence. Shortly after his arrival in the Islands, in November, 1889, Minister Stevens sent a despatch which showed that he was already considering how best to run up our flag over them, and his letters to Mr. Blaine in February and March, 1892, prove that he was getting ready for a revolution, and expecting to use the United States forces to help it. He specifically wrote: "I desire to know how far the present minister and naval commander may deviate from established international rules and precedents in the contingencies indicated." Further than that, long before the "unexpected" revolution, he was busily arranging the details of annexation, a certain despatch of his numbered 74 going into the matter of the sugar bounty, which he thought, in the case of the Hawaiian sugar-planters, "should be limited to six mills per pound, $12 per ton."

The first "lay" of the annexationist schemers was Anglophobia. The English were after the Islands. The Queen was a good woman and a mild sovereign, but fully under "English influence," and her niece and probable successor was actually being educated in England. Evidently this must be stopped, and to prevent England from brutally seizing the Hawaiian Islands, we must seize them ourselves. All this is set forth in the *Tribune* of October 11, 1891, along with much talk about the "open secrets" of Mr. Blaine's diplomacy, and the declaration: "It is plain that their [the Hawaiian people] almost unanimous desire for annexation to the United States must be precipitated into our councils as a practical and immediate question."

This did not work as desired, and so it was soon discovered that the Queen was a bad woman and a tyrannical ruler, against whom it was necessary to rise and establish a republic of and for aliens. That the plot was hatching for at least two months is shown by the article in Minister Stevens's paper of November 24, 1892, informing the American people that something was going to happen in Hawaii, and also by a most extraordinary article in the *Tribune* of November 20. From this we make the following extracts:

> "Events are occurring in the Hawaiian Islands which should lead the American people seriously to consider the policy of forming a closer political tie with that interesting little kingdom. It is not in the nature of things for its present government to continue much longer. Indeed, the occasion might present itself at any moment when readjustments would be unavoidable. This will happen as well because of our influence as in spite of it. . . . We are fully and absolutely responsible only when Hawaii is constituted into American territory. . . . Hawaii must become American territory. But upon the conditions of annexation hang grave and far-reaching questions of foreign policy. In considering how to complete our sovereignty over Hawaii, we shall be considering also the future of other islands that are already commercial, and are rapidly becoming political, dependencies. American statesmen should be ready for this emergency. It may arise at any moment."

All this was said absolutely without reference to current news. The public knew nothing whatever of those "events" which Mr. Stevens's paper on November 24 and the *Tribune* of November 20 knew all about. By a noteworthy coincidence, November 20 was also the date of a "confidential" despatch of Stevens's urging "bold and vigorous measures for annexation." Why these warnings to the American people to be ready for "readjustments" in "that interesting little kingdom," and why these hints to American statesmen to be prepared for an emergency that might arise at any moment? Why Minister Stevens's anxiety for authority to "deviate from established international rules and precedents"? If there is any explanation of all these mysteries except the one which Secretary Gresham charges, namely, that the American minister intrigued with a lot of other aliens to overthrow the constitutional government of Hawaii, we should be glad to have it pointed out. It is clear, at any rate, that Secretary Foster's "unexpected change of government" was not unexpected to the conspirators. As Mr. Gresham remarks, President Harrison and Secretary Foster may have been deceived, but Stevens and his allies were not. They were trying to break the news gently to the American people for two months before their plot was put in successful operation.

### *McKANE AND McKANEISM.*

THE most notorious criminal in the United States to-day is John Y. McKane, the boss of Coney Island, which forms the chief part of the town of Gravesend, in Kings County. His performances during the week before election, culminating on the day itself in his defiance of a mandate of the Supreme Court and his treatment of its lawful bearers, have been told by the telegraph all over the country. The movement to secure his punishment is in the hands of the ablest and wisest men of Kings County, who are taking every step with proper care and deliberation, in pursuance of a well-defined policy which cannot fail to end in his imprisonment. Meanwhile, it will be profitable to study his career, for it is full of instruction and warning.

McKane is a man admirably qualified by nature for the political leadership of a town which is so largely composed as is Gravesend of the lower and rougher elements of society—the men who are connected with a multitude of cheap hotels and cheaper places of amusement, together with the hostlers, drivers, stable-boys, and hangers-on of race-tracks—in short, the riff-raff of the community. "Rough and ready" in his manners, the warmest of friends and the bitterest of enemies, quick to see the opportunity for power offered by the development of Coney Island into a great watering-place for the masses of Brooklyn and New York, shrewd and fertile in methods, he gradually gathered to himself all of the important offices not only of state but of church. For this most picturesque of bosses has not only been "hail fellow well met" with the "toughs," whom as chief of police he welcomed to the building which he owned and let for prize-fights, but he has also been the chief pillar of the local Methodist church and for many years superintendent of its Sunday-school. He could teach the lessons of Christian duty to his pupils on Sunday, order his tools on Monday how to intimidate any voters who manifested signs of independence, and greet on Tuesday a distinguished citizen of his county who carried the writ of the Supreme Court with the message:

> "Injunctions don't go here; I'll take no papers. I don't care a d—n for the Supreme Court or for Judge Barnard."

This man, then, at last really considered himself above all law. In the recent campaign he was supporting Maynard and the remainder of the Demo-

cratic ticket, and most people naturally suppose that he has always been a Democrat. But it is only two years since he cast the town's vote for the Republican candidate for Governor, and five years ago he was an earnest supporter of the Republican candidate for the Presidency. In the New York *Tribune* of November 8, 1888, we find, in an article entitled "Kings County Did Well," the statement:

"The Democratic plurality in the county is reduced from 15,748 to 12,037, a falling off of 3,711. To this result the change in Gravesend from a Democratic majority of 372 in 1884 to a Republican majority of 436, due to the efforts of John Y. McKane, contributes considerably."

The Republican managers were most warm and hearty in welcoming this political bandit into their ranks. They were delighted to humor his vanity by inviting him to help in inaugurating the President whom he had helped to elect, and the *Tribune* of March 5, 1889, mentions the fact that "the John J. O'Brien and John Y. McKane Associations gave a little spice to the tail end of the pageant, and all the New York clubs were cordially recognized from the grand stand." Nor was this all. The Republican President was proud to receive this notorious boss in the White House; he consulted him as to the distribution of the patronage in Kings County; and he named McKane's man for United States marshal of the district. Even as recently as two years ago the Republican managers in this State made a bargain with him, the existence of which he openly avowed before election day, by which he was to return his town for Fassett, running on a platform of opposition to Tammany and boss rule. And he actually did turn in figures by which Fassett was credited with 1,098 votes against only 180 for Flower—although, to oblige a friend who was running for a local office, he returned on the same day an even larger majority for the county ticket of the other party!

"Who is responsible for this John Y. McKane," asks the Philadelphia *Press*, "and who encouraged him to believe that he could commit fraud with impunity and make a population of 8,418 stand for 6,218 voters?" We reply that both parties are responsible for him. Every leader of both the Republicans and the Democrats, from the lowest county politician to the highest official in the United States, who was ready to bargain with this freebooter, is responsible for him. Ex-President Harrison, who gave him federal patronage, is responsible for him. President Cleveland is responsible for him, if it be true that he has lent him any favor since he professed to turn Democrat again. The honest masses of both parties are responsible for him, who were ready to accept his stolen goods so long as he stole for them. The Methodist denomination is responsible for him, which was ready to honor him with church offices because he was powerful and made liberal contributions to its support. All of us are responsible for him who have not made unceasing war upon bossism, whatever its party label.

The country has stood aghast at McKaneism in its final development as treason against the State and revolt against the whole system of lawful authority. But this is only the normal and legitimate end of bossism. McKane was one of the type which contracts to "deliver his vote." He long delivered it to the Democrats, and secured the reward which he claimed. When he quarrelled with them, he delivered it to the Republicans, and he found a Republican President quick to give him pay in federal patronage for value received. Is it any wonder that this vulgar tyrant, who had been received with respect in the White House, should come to consider himself above a mere judge of the Supreme Court? Is it strange that he does not comprehend his crime when he was only trying to "deliver his vote" once more? Let us make no mistake about McKane. He is no mystery, no phenomenon, no accident. The only thing accidental about him is the party badge he sports at any given moment.

## *COMING INVESTIGATIONS.*

WE trust that the rumors which are in circulation concerning the determination of the new Legislature to authorize an investigation of Tammany rule in this city, and Democratic misrule in other cities also, are well founded. The Tammany authorities show their uneasiness at the prospect by declaring with unnecessary promptness and emphasis that they will welcome all inquiry gladly, and hope it will not fail to be made. They ought to be given full opportunity to vindicate their system of government, and to display before the public all its merits. The best kind of a committee, it seems to us, would be a joint one from the two houses, containing only men of good character. Not a man suspected of "striking" propensities, or who in the past had been caught in "deals" with Tammany Hall, or who has, like "Ham" Fish, been presented by Tammany with diamond shirt-studs as a reward for services rendered, ought to be allowed on it. What is wanted is a fearless and merciless inquiry, not a hunt for a basis upon which to lay a demand for hush-money or terms.

The field for investigation was never more promising than at present. There are in it so many inviting points that we can only suggest a partial list. First of all in importance and in possibilities of development is the police department. A thorough revelation of what goes on in that would not merely startle but would astound the community. If a committee were to disclose the relations of the Tammany authorities, through the police department, with the gambling-houses, liquor-saloons, dives, brothels, and other resorts of the crime and vice of the city, we should have a revelation the like of which had never been made before. Such an investigation has been threatened many times, but it has never been allowed to be pushed. The momentous consequences involved have acted as an insurmountable obstacle. It may be that such would be the case if a new attempt were to be made now, although the fact that the police department is now exclusively in the control of Tammany for the first time in its history might facilitate matters somewhat. Everybody knows that criminal resorts flourish in defiance of law, and there is a general belief that they pay liberally for their immunity. It is a matter of general belief, also, that the liquor-dealers pay handsomely for various privileges which are denied them under the law. Full light on these points would be of value in showing the sources of much of the Tammany wealth.

There might also be direct inquiry as to the sources of this Tammany wealth, especially that part of it which has been acquired with such rapidity. Mr. Croker makes no concealment of the fact that he is a very rich man. He invests to the extent of a quarter of a million dollars at a time in a stock farm, and to the extent of many thousands of dollars in race-horses. He is also about to occupy a palatial house in upper Fifth Avenue. He rides about in a luxurious carriage, of the most expensive construction, and his scale of living is that of a millionaire. Yet he has no business, holds no public office, has no visible source of wealth. Where do all his riches come from? His position, openly avowed by himself, as the real director of the city government, makes inquiry into his financial affairs not inexcusable. It should be remembered that it is only a few years ago that he was a poor man, according to his own testimony and that of his political associate, ex-Mayor Grant. During the investigation by the Fassett committee in May, 1890, the fact was brought out that Grant, while sheriff, had made one of Croker's children a present of $10,000. This gift was made in 1886. When asked what Croker's financial condition at the time was, Grant said (we quote from the official report of the testimony):

"I understood that Mr. Croker was very poor indeed; that they were not well off; he had a very large family, and I felt that as I had accepted the obligations of a godfather for this child I ought to do something for it."

When Croker himself took the stand a few weeks later, to give his account of the $10,000 gift, he said:

"I have always had very peculiar notions about putting money in banks, and I always kept money around the house; we never kept a bank account, and Mrs. Croker was always

opposed to keeping a bank account, and this money was turned right over to her.

"Q. Have you never had money out at interest? A. No, sir.

"Q. Did Mrs. Croker at that time have any money of her own out at interest? A. Not that I know of."

There are no evidences of the possession of large wealth in these disclosures. Perhaps if Mr. Croker were to be put on the stand now he might be able to explain how he, with so little in his possession in 1886 upon which to build, has succeeded in amassing his present wealth. To pass in seven years from a condition which your friends describe as "very poor indeed" to one of affluence, having during the greater part of that period no occupation and no visible source of income, is a remarkable achievement even in a country of rapidly gathered fortunes.

Mr. Croker is not the only Tammany magnate whose prosperity is based upon mysterious sources. How does it happen that municipal officials on salaries of $10,000 and $12,000 a year are able to live at the rate of $30,000 or $40,000, riding about in fine carriages, owning large studs of thoroughbred horses, and spending money like princes in various other ways? Do the rumors which fill the town of blackmail levied on corporations, contractors, and everybody else who has dealings with the city or needs the approval of the authorities, have any relation to this mystery? If the style of living were less ostentatious, it might attract less notice, and public comment upon it might be considered less justifiable; but there is no concealment about it, neither is there much doubt in the public mind as to the sources of supply.

A full and unrestrained inquiry into all branches of the municipal service upon which suspicion rests might throw a great deal of light upon the sources of Tammany wealth, especially if all persons having information upon the subject would come forward and present it. That there has been a vast sum paid in various kinds of political blackmail to somebody connected with Tammany Hall is notorious. An investigation could not fail to come across some of this, and, having once struck the trail, the hunt would be certain to run down valuable game sooner or later. Investigations are always profitable; we have never had one yet that was not a great source of gain for honest government. There has been no time since Tweed's day when one was more needed than at present, and we trust that it will be ordered, and will be put in the hands of competent persons.

## *ABOUT BRAZIL.*

WITHOUT any desire to see the President take hastily any new position regarding the conflict now raging in Brazil, we think one point in particular should be urged on his consideration, and it is a point of considerable importance for a government like ours. That is, that in all States like those of South America, or like France, or Italy, or Germany, in which the president or sovereign is also the head of a concentrated armed force, in case of disputes between the executive and the legislature the presumptions are against the executive. In Brazil the President has not dissolved the legislature, or dispersed it, but he has vetoed one of its bills making him ineligible for a second election, and he has committed a great many violent and unconstitutional acts. Moreover, there does not seem to be any way out of the difficulty through a popular vote, for although the October elections have been postponed till December, there is not the least likelihood that in December or any other month while the war is raging a fair plébiscite can be taken. The quarrel must apparently be fought out with sword and gun, until one or other of the belligerents is worn out.

But no matter how the fortune of war may go, bystanders must not forget that in semi-barbarous or military States which are striving for constitutional representative government, the man in command of the troops is naturally suspected. If trouble arises, he is in nine cases out of ten at the bottom of it. We who have inherited representative government, and have grown used to it through ages of practice, can form no idea of the difficulty which military commanders in other countries find in obeying the law. After Alexander I. had granted a constitution to Poland, the Russian Grand Duke in command of the troops in Warsaw went on arresting people and punishing them arbitrarily as before, and a remonstrance from the civil authorities was received by him and his officers with shouts of laughter. In France, in 1851, Louis Napoleon could not put up with any constitution which restrained him. When MacMahon, another soldier, came into power, he was in like manner, but under far less auspicious circumstances, on the verge of attempting a *coup d'état*. We do not need to go back to Cromwell for examples of the danger to popular liberty of having the army commanded by a man who has learned that the law may be disobeyed with impunity. Fully half of Washington's great fame with the world outside the United States was due to his not having tried to make himself a monarch or dictator. Ability to lay down power peaceably, and to obey people who cannot lock you up if you do not obey, is, in fact, learned very slowly, and cannot be said as yet to have been thoroughly learned by any race but the Anglo-Saxon.

In South American States, as a rule, the man who once gets hold of supreme power cannot reconcile himself without great difficulty to the idea of surrendering it. The very best of such men looks about a good deal before he steps down, to see whether there is no way of avoiding it. When the constitution is clear, and party spirit quiescent, when, in short, temptation is weakest, he finally reconciles himself to the inevitable. But the time when the habit of self-government is most needed is when the constitution is not clear and party spirit runs high, and this is just the time when self-renunciation is hardest. If he has the command of the army, and there are doubts about his rights, the disposition to use the army to settle the doubts in his own favor becomes very strong. This accounts in some degree for the curious revolt of the navy under somewhat the same circumstances both in Chili and in Brazil. The case against Peixoto is not as strong as the case against Balmaceda, but there is a case against him, and those who believe in it, being unable to make a stand against the army in the capital, take to the sea. The officers of the navy are probably better educated and come from a better class than the officers of the army, and are not brought into close contact with the Executive. Moreover, in cases like Chili and Brazil, where the headquarters and chief seat of the insurrection are at an immense distance from the political capital, the navy affords the readiest means of coming to close quarters with the dictator, usurper, or whatever else he may be called.

Our Government, in dealing with disputes of this kind in countries struggling slowly towards constitutional government, gives the legislature and those who act with it or for it the benefit of every doubt. Theirs is by far the most difficult rôle. The lamp of liberty is in their hands, if it is in anybody's hands. The physical force of the occasion is almost always in the hands of their enemies. In nine cases out of ten they stand for legislation by discussion and by vote, against legislation by decree. In nine cases out of ten they offer the only materials for anything better than a dictatorship based on brute force. In the case of Chili, we did just the opposite of this. We sided with Balmaceda from the outset. We set our navy to sympathize with him; we put our law in motion to discourage and oppress his enemies, and treated his pinchbeck and illegal machine as if it were the legitimate government of Chili, in the teeth of all the best traditions of our Department of State. Finally, we came near going to war with the republic, and so smashing it that the materials for a good and strong legitimate popular government would probably have been wanting for generations.

We hope this mistake will not be repeated in Brazil. We do not as yet know which side is right, but the presumption is in favor of the malcontents, of Congress, of the writers, of the orators, and one may say of the navy. The navy never

has any interest in despotism on shore. Its officers do not bask in royal or dictatorial favor. Their march is o'er the mountain waves, their home is on the deep. They do not mount guard in palaces, or "clean out" legislatures. The navy has the strongest interest in peace, quiet, and good order, because, when a country becomes poor and revolutionary, the navy is the first thing to go to decay. A despot can always keep a standing army about him, but as a rule the navies of free peoples are the best. The best navy in the world is that of England, the poorest that of Turkey.

## "GOOD AMERICANS."

AT the dinner to Mr. Clemens (Mark Twain) at the Lotos Club on Saturday night, much was made of the fact that he is a "good American," which we believe he is, in all senses of the term. But there was a lamentable want of clearness in all the definitions of "good American" there and elsewhere. In the mouths of many people a "good American" is simply a person who does not wish to go to Europe, or, having gone to Europe, spends his time there in longing to get home, on the general principle that "America is good enough for him." Other "good Americans" are persons who, having gone to Europe, cannot put up with European food, and are consumed over there with a passionate desire for fishballs, buckwheat cakes, and doughnuts. Then there are "good Americans" who qualify simply by wearing poor clothes and old neckties as a protest against "dudism" and monarchy. But there is one mark of a "good American" which never fails: he is constantly reminding you that he is a "good American," and inquiring whether you are. To be a "good American" quietly and unostentatiously is something he cannot bear, and he is equally unwilling that you should.

The odd thing about this is, that, to a rightly constituted man, patriotism, is something like filial affection—that is, a matter of course, something that "goes without saying," as the young Gallicists would remark. The right sort of man loves his country as he loves his mother, because he cannot help it. In Scott's fine eulogy on patriotism, he says, in the familiar quotation,

> "Breathes there the man with soul so dead
> Who never to himself hath said,
> This is my own, my native land!"

It will be seen here that the man makes this observation about his native land "to himself." He does not run about the town telling everybody that he loves his native land, and urging others to do likewise. If a man on every public occasion were to inform the audience that he was a good son and loved his old mother dearly; that the reason why he loved Mark Twain or William D. Howells was that he too was a good son and loved his old mother, and that everybody ought to love his old mother, the public would laugh at him and vote him a bore. We are the only nation which indulges in this protestation. There are no such things as "good Englishmen," or "good Frenchmen," or "good Germans." There are Englishmen, Frenchmen, and Germans, and each of these terms connotes love of country, pride in her history, and readiness to serve her to the death. There ought to be only one class of Americans, known simply as "Americans." If there are two—good and bad Americans—the less said about them the better.

This matter may seem unimportant, but it is really very important. We do not know of a phrase more full of corruption for the young than "good American," for we know as a positive fact that a man may be a "good American" and yet think a criminal good enough for the court of last resort, think the rule of an ignorant foreign dictator good enough for the chief city of America, think any fool or ignoramus or drunkard good enough to represent the nation in foreign countries, think murderous anarchists estimable citizens, try to pay his debts in a currency depreciated by himself, publish a newspaper filled with the filth and lies of a continent, cheat the Government in his contracts, and shout for war in order to help his private business. Every one of these things may be done, and has been done, by "good Americans."

The way to be really "good Americans" is not to keep telling people of it and urging them to imitate you, but to be the thing you say you are. A "good American" who does not, in every way in his power, labor to make America good, is a wretched fraud. As Lowell says:

> "I loved my Country so as only they
> Who love a mother fit to die for may;
> I loved her old renown, her stainless fame;
> What better proof than that I loathed her shame?"

Hurling defiances at monarchies, or ridiculing good clothes and correct speech, and calling for wars in which other men are to suffer and die, and in which weak powers are to be despoiled, is to be a bad American. It costs nobody anything to show this kind of patriotism. Much of the "genuine Americanism" of the day comes from men who are interested in and uneasy about some piece of bad government. No man is so fierce in his Americanism as "a dead beat" who has got a consulship for which he knows he is not fit, or a boss who has "delivered" the vote of his district as per contract. Americans ought not to have to go about the world proclaiming their patriotism, and ought not to have to address each other on the beauty of this particular virtue. It excites the suspicion of the rest of the world. That "good wine needs no bush" is as true in politics as in tavern-keeping. A real patriot, like a real gentleman, is a modest, self-contained man, who keeps to himself his love of his country, as he keeps his love for his mother and wife and children. When he meets the blatant variety of American in Europe, with the national flag stuck in his buttonhole, he naturally wants to creep into his shell, or pass himself off as an Englishman or something else. And it must be admitted that one meets in Europe more or less of the class of which Mr. Lowell complains in his letters, who tell you they are "travelling with two servants" and are something different from other Americans. But both these parties ought to behave better. If the blatant, noisy American who travels on his nationality would subside, the American with the "two servants" would be more willing to let his country get the credit of his retinue.

## FRANCIS PARKMAN.

THE passing away of Francis Parkman leaves vacant the first place among American writers of history. His title to this preëminence has been increasingly recognized with every new contribution to the fascinating series of volumes which bear his name. It was his felicity up to the very hour of his transit to see his star in the crescent. Whether measured by the sober estimate of the critical verifier of his facts, or by the popular approval of the way in which his facts are set forth, the historical reputation of Mr. Parkman—in a considerable degree contrasted with that of Prescott and Motley, and very strikingly in contrast with that of Bancroft—is seen to be one which steadily grows with more intimate acquaintance with his work. That this is the case is due not so much to the dignity of his theme and its aptitude for splendid workmanship upon it, though his theme lacks nothing in this regard, as to the personal qualities which Mr. Parkman himself brought to his undertaking—his absolute sincerity, his painstaking perseverance, his fine moral sense, his judicial equipoise, his wholesome uncloistered sympathy with nature and with out-door things, his self-repression, and his chaste, unexaggerating, conscientious literary taste and skill. The result is that we have in the volumes of Mr. Parkman the most graphic and most truthful of all our American historical writings, and the ones likely longest to retain a place, not alone on library shelves, but in living contact with the eyes and hearts of men.

Francis Parkman was born in Boston, September 16, 1823. He came of a line of ancestry honorably known in Massachusetts for generations. His great-grandfather, the Rev. Ebenezer Parkman, a graduate of Harvard in 1741, was a Congregational minister in Westborough fifty-eight years, a preacher of much acceptance in his day, and not without recorded evidence of historical tastes in study. His grandfather, Samuel Parkman, was a prosperous Boston merchant engaged in foreign traffic, whose beautiful home-garden on Green and Chardon Streets gave token in its possessor of those interests in floriculture which were so marked a trait of his distinguished grandson. His father, the Rev. Francis Parkman, a Harvard graduate of 1807, was a favorite student and a friend of the Rev. Dr. Channing, and became in 1813 pastor of the New North

Church in Boston, an organization at that time, and later, Unitarian in its fellowships, but which in the process of subsequent changes has ceased to exist. The Rev. Francis Parkman is remembered at his alma mater as one of the founders of the professorship of pulpit eloquence and pastoral care in Harvard College, which of late years has borne the name of Parkman professorship, and there are extant sundry volumes of sermons and addresses which attest his possession of the traits this professorship was founded to cultivate. On the maternal side, young Parkman traced back to John Cotton, the most eminent of early Massachusetts divines.

Coming thus of a line in which culture and taste were inbred, it would have been a wonder if the boy Francis had not been a student and a writer; but Providence interfered in his behalf to give unforeseen direction to the particular type and quality of his mental development. The boy's childhood was frail. He was sent, therefore, to the country home of his maternal grandfather in Medford. The town was only twelve miles from Boston, but the house where for four years he was to live was close on the border of a wild and forest tract of ground known as the Middlesex Fells, as untamed and uninhabited a region for thousands of square acres as it had been two centuries before. Here from eight to twelve years of age he roamed the woods, chased the squirrel, snared the partridge, and, as he himself always recognized, began that acquaintanceship with nature which became so marked and delightful a part of his equipment for the tasks which lay before him. From this free life of unconscious schooling in the woods and fields, the boy passed in due time to the school since known as Chauncy Hall, and thence to college. He entered Harvard in 1840, at seventeen years of age. Already, to a very unusual degree, his path in letters was defined before him. His reading in the happy days of the Middlesex Fells and afterwards had been largely the stories of early New England settlements, with their romances and hardships of pioneer and Indian struggle; so that it is not, perhaps, strange that, by the time he had reached his sophomore year, the distinct design of writing the history of the French and Indian (or the "Seven Years'") war became clear within him, or that nearly all his after doings were made tributary to the purpose which—widened and developed in the process of fulfilment—became the dominant purpose of his life. One vacation of this college period was spent in canoeing and camping on the Magalloway River in the wilds of northern Maine—an account of which youthful excursion was printed twenty-three years afterwards in *Harper's Magazine* for November, 1864. Another of these vacations was similarly spent by him on the waters of Lake George and Lake Champlain, regions destined to afford the scene of so many dramatic passages in his graver histories.

An accident in the gymnasium, sustained by young Parkman in 1843, appeared, but only appeared, to threaten the onward progress of his special training for his special work. Rather, instead, it promoted it. To recover from his injury, he took a voyage to Europe, touching at Gibraltar and Malta, places full of the memories of that great world-encompassing struggle of which the conflicts along the Champlain and the St. Lawrence were only a part; and reaching Rome he made his lodging in a monastery of the Passionist Fathers. This brought him into personal contact with one of those great religious orders, hitherto known to him only in books, which the Catholic Church has for centuries found her most efficient instruments of missionary zeal, and the achievements of some of which were to find nowhere more brilliant or sympathetic delineation than in this young visitor's own pages. Returning from this voyage of instruction, not less than recuperation, Parkman reached home in time to graduate with his class in 1844.

For some parts of the next two years Mr. Parkman studied law, but his destiny was too strong for him, and the spring of 1846 found him with his kinsman, Quincy Adams Shaw, at St. Louis, setting out for a tour of observation among the Indians of the Rocky Mountains. The tide of emigration had just begun to flow towards Oregon and California. Gold had not yet been discovered on the latter coast, but good land had, and the Mormons, driven out of Illinois, and other settlers were pressing towards a New West beyond the great hills. More or less in the line with these companies, the two college youths of Boston journeyed part of the distance across the plains, then, cutting loose, spent the rest of the summer in the camps of the Sioux Indians in the wild regions traversed by multitudinous buffalo between the Platte and the Arkansas and around the Black Hills of Dakota. Here they lived with the roving Indians, sleeping in their tents, eating with them out of their bowls, accompanying them on their hunts, listening to their legends, and witnessing their incantations and worship, and obtained an acquaintance with Indian character and manners invaluable to the destined delineator of occurrences in which the Indian share is so conspicuous a feature. This experience, however, cost the adventurer dear, and came near costing him his life. His exposure, in the absence of medical aid, and the possibility of needed rest, brought on prostrating illness, from the enervating effects of which he suffered throughout his life. The summer, however, gave him the materials for his first published volume. Printed originally as a series of sketches in the *Knickerbocker Magazine* under the title of "The Oregon Trail," the papers were at once gathered into a book issued in 1847 with a title somewhat changed by the publisher; but the change was rectified by the author in several of the later editions, the ninth of which was published in 1892. The story is graphic and interesting; doubly so as being not only a vivid and obviously truthful narration of the scenes and experiences depicted, but as a delineation of scenes and experiences impossible now for any one to repeat. The careful reader discerns, however, the hand of the youthful writer of twenty-three rather than the hand of the master of later years.

This summer's episode over, Mr. Parkman addressed himself to his self-imposed undertaking, selecting as the work to be first performed that which was really latest in historic sequence—the dramatic and stirring scenes of the dying struggle of French and English warfare on this continent, delineated in the two volumes published in 1851, entitled 'The Conspiracy of Pontiac.' He said in his preface to this first instalment of his great historic series:

"It is evident that other study than that of the closet is indispensable to success in such an attempt. Habits of early reading had greatly aided to prepare me for the task, but necessary knowledge of a more practical kind had been supplied by the indulgence of a strong natural taste, which at various intervals led me to the wild regions of the north and west. Here, by the camp-fire or in the canoe, I gained familiar acquaintance with the men and the scenery of the wilderness."

But the "closet study" is evident no less. How conscientious it was, and under what difficulties it was performed, is indicated in this further passage from the same preface, which, because it represents the method and the limitations of substantially his whole lifetime's work, may well be quoted:

"The most troublesome part of the task was the collection of the necessary documents. These consisted of letters, journals, reports, and despatches, scattered among numerous public offices in Europe and America. When brought together they amounted to about 3,400 manuscript pages. Contemporary newspapers, magazines, and pamphlets have also been examined, and careful search made for every book which, directly or indirectly, might throw light upon the subject. . . . For about three years the light of day was insupportable, and every attempt at reading or writing completely debarred. Under these circumstances the task of sifting the materials and composing the work was begun and finished. The papers were repeatedly read aloud by an amanuensis, copious notes and extracts were made, and the narrative written down from my dictation. This process, though extremely slow and laborious, was not without its advantages; and I am well convinced the authorities have been more minutely examined, more scrupulously collated, and more thoroughly digested than they would have been under other circumstances."

It was under conditions so adverse that the book was written which Mr. John Fiske has pronounced "one of the most brilliant and fascinating books that have been written since the days of Herodotus."

The condition of Mr. Parkman's health, however, made a period of comparative repose imperatively necessary. Having in 1850 married Catherine, daughter of Dr. Jacob Bigelow of Boston, he purchased in 1854 a small property on the shore of Jamaica Pond in the township of that name, and turned his immediate attention to gardening. The tastes inherited from his grandfather Samuel here found ample scope for development. He cultivated roses and paid special attention to the hybridization of flowers, originating thus several new varieties, one of which, of the lily family—his entire stock whereof was purchased by a Scotch gentleman-gardener—is known to botany as *Lilium Parkmanni*. Solicited to give others some of the fruits of his own experience in floriculture, he published at a later period (1866) a volume entitled 'The Book of Roses.' His interests in gardening, developed thus at the Jamaica home, ultimately found recognition in his election to the presidency of the Massachusetts Horticultural Society, and to his occupancy for two years of a professorship in Bussey Institute, the agricultural department of Harvard University. An episode of the earlier portion of this Jamaica residence was the publication, in 1856, of his only venture in fiction, the novel 'Vassall Morton,' a book whose success was not such as to encourage, even had he desired, a successor. Two years later than this, in 1858, a shadow fell over his home in the death of his wife, leaving behind her two little daughters. Partly to change the scene, but more to prosecute the work which his partially recovered health had now made feasible, he went the same year to Europe to collect material in the French, Spanish, and English archives for his future volumes. By this time, too, his plan had widened beyond the boyhood conception of a history of the Seven Years' war to a narration of the whole great struggle for territorial supremacy in this country of two opposing nationalities, civilizations, religions, under the one general title, "France and England in North America." This journey to Europe in 1858 was followed by others in 1868, 1872, 1880, and 1881 on the same errand.

The first fruit of this widened plan of historical narrative was given to the press in 1865 in the volume 'Pioneers of France in the New World,' setting forth the attempts toward colonial establishment by that nation in Florida, Acadia, and along the St. Lawrence. Two years later (1867) followed 'The Jesuits in North America,' a thrilling narrative of the heroic missionary labors undertaken in association with French civil enterprise in behalf of the Indians of Canada and the lake regions of New York. The volume 'The Discovery of the Great West' came in 1869, narrating the romantic efforts of La Salle, Marquette, and Hennepin to explore and take possession of the Mississippi and Great Lake regions of the far West and Northwest. This volume was succeeded, in 1874, by 'The Old Régime in Canada,' treating of the period 1653–1680 in Canada, and setting forth the efforts and failures of paternalism in government, and absolutism in religion, on the part of well-intentioned sovereigns and self-sacrificing ecclesiastics. 'Count Frontenac and New France, under Louis XIV.'—the story of the knightly soldier "under whom occurred the first serious collision of the rival powers, and the opening of the grand scheme of military occupation by which France strove to envelop and hold in check the industrial populations of the English colonies"—came next, in 1877. This was succeeded, in 1884, by 'Montcalm and Wolfe,' narrating in dramatic and affluent detail the later scenes and the tragic close of the long struggle of French and English diplomacy and arms on American soil, some passages of which had been more briefly touched upon in 'The Conspiracy of Pontiac,' published thirty-three years previously, but whose proper place in the series is at this point. To this was added, in 1892, 'A Half Century of Conflict,' announced as completing his historical series on "France and England in North America." This volume takes up the narrative at the close of 'Count Frontenac,' and fills in the gap between that volume and 'Montcalm and Wolfe,' being the story of the period from 1700 to the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

These seven works in nine volumes, to which must be added in their proper place the two volumes of 'Pontiac's Conspiracy,' constitute Mr. Parkman's contribution to American history; and a magnificent contribution it has been. For originality of investigation, fidelity of statement, fairness of treatment of conflicting interests, and for chaste excellence of literary style, these volumes are unsurpassed, nay, unequalled, by those of any other writer of American annals. Some of the most vivid and beautiful passages of nature description anywhere to be found illuminate Mr. Parkman's pages. Mr. Parkman had a magnificent opportunity, but no advantage of subject or material could have availed but for the rich personal endowment he brought to his work: his poet's eye, his tireless industry, his scrupulous honesty, his absolute sincerity and sanity of mind and heart.

Mr. Parkman was a not infrequent contributor to periodical literature, writing several articles for the *Christian Examiner*, and a dozen or more each for the *Atlantic Monthly* and the *North American Review*, and he was a generous friend and contributor to the *Nation*. An article in the *North American* in 1878, upon "The Failure of Universal Suffrage," is interesting in itself and as shedding light on the personal attitude of the writer towards more than one tendency of modern society. In a similar spirit Mr. Parkman published, in 1883, a pamphlet entitled 'Some of the Reasons against Woman Suffrage.' But though writing thus occasionally, and when he did trenchantly, upon some phases of current affairs, Mr. Parkman's mind dwelt in the regions of his chosen work, an interesting token of which was the fulfilment of a promise to the *Atlantic Monthly*, said to have been made long years ago, in publishing during the present year a serial paper upon "The Feudal Knights of Acadia." More than fifty years of literary activity upon substantially one theme thus marked the life of Mr. Parkman. Always interested in the Massachusetts Historical Society, and one of its most distinguished members, he put, several years ago, into its safekeeping thirty-five volumes of manuscripts gathered by him in the prosecution of his work.

In personal appearance Mr. Parkman was distinctly noticeable. He was about five feet eleven in height, square-shouldered and firm-set. He had a strong, clear-cut face, always closely shaved, with a chin and jaw of marked vigor of outline. His forehead was rugged and broad; the whole carriage and expression was that of a modest but resolute man, capable, spite of whatever drawbacks and infirmities, of hard work and the persistent prosecution of difficult undertakings. His physical suffering and disability never seemed to abate his powers of research or mar the sweetness of his temper. He belonged, like Lowell, to a generation of Boston littérateurs who never forgot that they were gentlemen as well as literary men, and upheld under all circumstances the tradition of personal dignity which came down from an earlier generation. He was a rather shy-mannered man, yet in no sense a recluse; fond of boating, horseback riding, and not averse to genial society, as his six-years' presidency of St. Botolph's Club in Boston bears witness. His increasing infirmities of late years more and more withdrew him from the social life of that city, but nobody who ever saw him in the serene simplicity of his own home will readily forget the charm of that gracious and patient presence.

After the death of his wife, Mr. Parkman was accustomed to pass his summers at his house by Jamaica Pond, and to spend his winters in the companionship of his sister at No. 50 Chestnut Street, Boston, on the western slope of Beacon Hill. Here, in the top story of the house, he had his study, and kept most of his books and papers. His daughters survive and are married. With one of them, whose home is in Portsmouth, N. H., he had of late been accustomed to spend considerable time. He was from 1868 to 1871 one of the Board of Overseers of Harvard College and from 1875 to 1888 one of the Fellows of its corporation. He received its degree of LL.D. in 1889; the same degree having previously been conferred on him by McGill University in Canada, in 1879, and by Williams College in 1885.

## JOWETT AND MANCHESTER COLLEGE.

OXFORD, October 27, 1893.

THREE weeks ago to-day in Balliol College and at St. Sepulchre's, on the 6th of October, the funeral of the late Prof. Jowett took place. Hundreds were in the chapel and followed thence to the grave, while thousands assembled in the streets. Touching and memorable though this ceremonial was, and although a characteristic discourse was subsequently delivered by the Bishop of London (Temple), yet the frequent allusions to the late Master, the invocations as it were of his generous spirit which have marked several recent and important academic acts, speak even more eloquently of the marvellous power for good which he exercised while living and which lives on in his memory.

At the conference upon secondary education—the first ever held at either university—which took place here on the 9th and 10th instants, Prof. Jebb read a letter from him giving views upon *abiturienten-examinations* to take the place of university matriculation tests, and containing in outline a scheme for granting university degrees without residence. In the place of what the Master would himself have said had he been spared to take part in the conference, an interesting paper was given by the president of Magdalen. Three days later, on the first day of term (October 14), the new Anatomical Building was formally opened by the vice-chancellor. In this assemblage of representative men of science, as in the previous meeting of representative teachers and professors, the catholic mind of the lamented Master was devoutly remembered. Prof. Burdon Sanderson spoke of the late Master's strong feeling that Oxford must not only produce scholars, mathematicians, statesmen, and men of action, but also men who were to take a foremost place in natural science and in the application of natural science to medicine. He added that at a time when he himself felt much less sanguine than at present, Prof. Jowett used to say in his quiet way: "The school of medical science in Oxford will succeed." On October 18 came the formal opening of the new buildings of Manchester College. During these interesting ceremonies, which lasted two days, mention of the late Master was constantly recurring. When "Manchester" removed to Oxford in 1889, he was among those who gave it the most cordial reception. He had promised to be present when it entered its new and permanent Oxford domicile, and, "although no speaker," to propose a welcoming toast in its honor. He was the friend of every movement tending to widen the horizon and enlarge the usefulness of the university, and so he could not but welcome to Oxford the two Nonconformist establishments of Mansfield and Manchester. As Prof. Nichol has eloquently said of him, "He did not confer favors; kindness flowed from him like wine from grapes."

Mansfield College set the example which Manchester College followed of transferring its establishment to Oxford, and a pupil of Dr. Jowett's who stayed with him in 1887 has often spoken of the delight his host took in guiding him to a point from which a view of the beautiful buildings of Mansfield, then newly completed, could be obtained. At that moment no building in Oxford had more importance in the Master's eyes than Mansfield, the newest of them all. Transference to Oxford in the case of these two institutions has not involved their legal incorporation in the University, which they remain as independent of as they were when established at Birmingham and Manchester respectively. Their status here is as nearly as possible that of the Episcopalian Divinity School in the American Cambridge, while the Harvard Divinity School stands relatively in the position of the Oxford theological faculty. Thus it will be seen that similar causes, working upon minds of widely divergent theological views in England and America, have resulted in the establishment of an Episcopalian School of Divinity at Harvard and of a Congregational college at Oxford, which has been speedily followed thither by Manchester College. This last, though, like the Harvard Divinity School, it emphatically disclaims exclusive adherence to

any sect, has been for many years and still is under Unitarian management.

On Tuesday, the 18th instant, the President, the Principal, and the Committee of Manchester College, followed by their guests from Oxford colleges and by various delegates, approached the new building, which was formally handed over. Its most successful and remarkable features are the library and the chapel—rooms of uncommonly fine proportions. The company proceeded immediately to the library, where they listened with bated breath to the letter in which the Master of Balliol promised to be present. This was followed by President Eliot's letter accrediting Dr. Everett, Dean of the Harvard Divinity School, as the Harvard delegate. The Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster (until lately professor at Oxford), Mr. James Bryce, wrote "as one of those who worked for the abolition of tests twenty-five years ago, and who have since striven to make the two ancient universities more generally accessible and useful to the nation." He claimed that Mansfield and Manchester brought much to Oxford, as an offset for the advantage to be derived by the clergy of the unestablished churches from an education "under the shadow of our venerable walls and amid the enobling influences which Oxford is so well fitted to inspire." Mr. H. R. Greg, the president, sketched briefly the past of Manchester College, which in its present shape went back one hundred years, and could be traced in some form nearly to the date of the Act of Uniformity, 1662. The college had always maintained "its original principle of freely imparting theological knowledge without insisting upon the adoption of particular doctrines." This undenominational position was, he said, "at once their excuse, and their strength, and their hope of final success," now that they had come to Oxford and were placed "for the first time in the full glare of light and criticism." When Principal Drummond, the resident head, arose to speak for the teaching staff and the students, there was pathos in his unaffected and unresentful allusion to former days when the college suffered persecution. From this topic thus treated he passed on to say, with a sincerity which was memorable, that the building was "almost more sumptuous than is needed for those who can only look forward to a life of comparative poverty, and who will always consider it their highest glory to deny themselves, and to endure laborious days, that they may benefit their fellow-men in the spirit of Him who had not where to lay His head."

The sermon preached at the dedication of the chapel by Dr. Dowson contained notable references to the late Master of Balliol. The welcome extended to "Manchester" by him was, the preacher said, "more than a message of good will," it was an incentive and served to point out new opportunities. The college was a theological college pure and simple, its undergraduate course existing no longer. This change was intended to leave the way open for culture under the best conditions, especially at the ancient seats of learning now for a quarter of a century accessible to students of every religious persuasion. The welcome that the revered Master of Balliol was ready to give them for the second time, and that of others in Oxford, brought the college into contact with something wider than even their own broadest and freest traditions. "Face to face with the University of Oxford," they were "in the presence of a larger life than any found within their walls."

After these ceremonies and speeches, the most remarkable utterances of the occasion were undoubtedly those of Principal Drummond and of the veteran Dr. James Martineau, which came on the second and closing day. Dr. Drummond's opening address was a luminous and scholarly picture of the play of religious opinions since the Reformation, and the resulting political proceedings so far as Nonconformists were involved. "With all its shortcomings, Puritanism," he said, "was one of the grandest uprisings of the human soul that this world had known. Never had religion been more real. Never, as Milton has testified, had the love of virtue been implanted more deeply in the human breast." The Principal spoke of the Corporation Act, by which dissenters were driven from public life; of "the Act of Uniformity passed by a majority of six, which was considered amply sufficient for trampling on the rights of an adverse party, and before which the Lords, who had wiser views of statesmanship and a higher sense of the obligation of public faith, withdrew their objections." Here many of the audience could not help thinking of a recent majority of thirty-odd before which the Lords have not withdrawn their objections. But there was evidently no thought of such an allusion in the speaker's mind, for he was thinking of "pious and faithful ancestors" of Frankland who, against persecution and in spite of legislation, founded the academy out of which Manchester Academy and College finally grew. Owing to the changes which time had brought about, it was necessary, he said, to emphasize the fact that the college was designed to be, and for considerably more than half a century actually was, a general school of higher education. When Queen's College at Manchester, with far wider means, arose to undertake the general and preparatory education, Manchester College confined itself more and more to theology. Its removal to London was "that this general work might be done for it by University College." "Gradually the class of Nonconformist laymen who used to go up to London to study at University College turned their faces toward the more ancient cities of learning, and the same reasons which prevailed on the trustees to sanction the removal to London seemed to point to a new and final removal to Oxford."

This "new and final removal" has taken place; "Manchester New College" has shortened its name to Manchester College, and is firmly established at Oxford. What Manchester College, Oxford, proposes to do can be easily learned from a speech by Dr. James Martineau, who, in spite of his eighty-nine years, seemed still to be "spoiling for an argument," and who made every point with unwavering keenness and unfailing zest. Speaking at the banquet after the whole opening ceremonial was over, he maintained that in this country the principle of Manchester College was absolutely unique in respect of the teaching of theology. If not, he would like to hear of any other institution that had such teaching in the same sense and carried it out to the same extent. He further maintained that a fixed theology was utterly impossible in a progressive society. Men must choose between a scientific theology and a progressive society on the one hand, or, if they preferred a fixed theology, they must reduce or limit the progress of society. If Manchester College was to have free teaching and free learning, it must be open to the students to accept what they were taught or to reject it, and they were not to expect to have a body of teachers turned out all with the same faith and bound to perform their clerical duties within the limits of the same church. In spite of the breezy vigor that enlivened Dr. Martineau's speech, the same sense of loss was upon him which underlay the cordial remarks made earlier by Sir William Markby. Sir William spoke for his departed friend, the late Master of Balliol. Dr. Martineau referred to the beloved Master and to the long friendship that had subsisted between them.

In closing, some notice may fitly be taken of the strong sympathy and great help given by the late Prof. Jowett to those who have succeeded in establishing services in Oxford according to the Jewish rite. The reason why every one interested in enlarging the limits of Oxford life always turned, and never in vain, to the late Master, may still be found by going to his writings, and was well expressed by Canon Ainger when he said, in a recent university sermon: "Whether he was writing of St. Paul or of Plato, whether in sermon or in comment, the reader feels himself breathing the bracing atmosphere of righteousness." Mr. Oswald Simon has done well to remind us, in an account of the late Prof. Jowett which appeared in the *Jewish Chronicle* (October 6), of the beauty and inspiration in the Master's incomparable introduction to the 'Phædo,' which contains wonderful words concerning the immortality of the soul:

> "First of all there is the thought of rest and freedom from pain; they have gone home, as the common saying is, and the cares of this world touch them no more. Secondly, we may imagine them at their best and brightest, humbly fulfilling their daily round of duties, selfless, childlike, unaffected by the world; when the eye was single and the whole body seemed to be full of light; when the mind was clear and saw into the purposes of God. Thirdly, we may think of them as possessed by a great love of God and man, working out his will at a further stage in the heavenly pilgrimage."

These words may be regarded as a part of his last message to all his friends, since he wrote them in these later years, and they are to be found only in his last edition of the translation of Plato to which he gave so much of his life.

LOUIS DYER.

## GENERAL THIÉBAULT.

PARIS, October 24, 1893.

THE success of the memoirs published, a few years since, on the period of the Revolution and of the First Empire, and especially of the memoirs of Gen. Marbot, has drawn out of their hiding-places many memoirs which perhaps had better have remained for ever in the obscurity of family archives. The publisher, Plon, has resuscitated some people who had no notoriety in their lifetime, and who did not deserve the honor of resurrection. Still, there is always, in my opinion, something worth attention in reality; there are always, to use the vulgar expression, some plums in a pudding. It is difficult to imagine a man more devoid of the qualities of an historian than Gen. Baron Thiébault, whose memoirs are just now published by his daughter, Mlle. Claire Thiébault; or more devoid also of the qualities of a writer. The name of Thiébault was quite unfamiliar; but so was, though perhaps not to the same degree, the name of Gen. Marbot. This last name will now for ever be associated with the history of Napoleon. What will be the fate of Gen. Thiébault? We cannot yet say exactly, as we have only the first volume of his memoirs, which extends from 1769 to 1795, and I have been told that there will be three other volumes. There is a law of development in man,

as there is in a plant; the Thiébault of later years most probably improved upon the Thiébault of this first volume, in which he appears the very type of what we call a *gobe-mouche*—the man who has not the slightest critical faculty in his nature, who is open to every impression, without the power to analyze them, or to choose among the multiplicity of impressions what is worth remembering.

I confess having been discouraged by the first chapters of Thiébault's memoirs; they seemed to me so vapid, so futile. Still, the circumstances of the author's early years were interesting in themselves. He was born in Berlin, December 14, 1769; his father, Dieudonné Thiébault, was professor of French at the military school of Berlin founded by the great Frederick, and a member of the Academy of Berlin. The elder Thiébault remained twenty years in the capital of Prussia, and his 'Souvenirs de vingt ans de séjour à Berlin,' published in 1804, are among the valuable documents which concern the reign of Frederick II. The son was educated in a Prussian military and philosophical atmosphere; his greatest amusements were the grand reviews of the Tempelhof, the autumn manœuvres at Gesundbrunnen:

"Imagine," says he, "36,000 superb soldiers, and among them the regiment of giants, which was the regiment of the Guards; the gendarmes, with their scarlet uniforms; the hussars of death, a body of 2,000 men. . . . Add to this magnificent and moving spectacle the presence of a King placed by his genius and his exploits at the head of the philosophers, the legislators, and the warriors of his time, and followed by a crowd of officers of all the countries of Europe, who came to render him homage and to instruct themselves at these reviews; surround him with illustrious generals, formed in his school; represent to yourselves his white hair, which recalled and ennobled forty years of glory; and you will conceive that there was no bound to my admiration."

The anecdotes which Thiébault tells of Berlin and its society are not all interesting. I note one which concerns Voltaire. Those who have read his correspondence all know his quarrels with Maupertuis. Somebody was trying to reconcile the two philosophers, whom Frederick had called to his court, and said to Voltaire, at the end of a long remonstrance: "Don't you feel what, in your position, two Frenchmen owe to each other?" Voltaire rose from his chair, and burst out: "Two Frenchmen! Know you, sir, that if two Frenchmen met at the extremities of the world, it would be necessary for one to eat the other; it is the law of nature."

Dieudonné Thiébault, seeing Frederick growing very old, and knowing that his successor would remain a stranger to art and literature, resolved in 1784 to leave Berlin. He sold his library, under pretext of making a profitable investment, and sent secretly all his money to Paris. He took his family with him, and, travelling by short stages, arrived in Paris at the end of the year. Animal magnetism had become the ruling passion, and, when Dieudonné Thiébault asked for a leave of absence from Berlin, he not only had for his object to settle his family in France, he wished to try magnetism on one of his daughters, who was deaf, and whose deafness had resisted all the treatment tried in Germany. Thiébault gives us an elaborate description of Mesmer's famous *baquet*, and has very wild stories about the effects of magnetism and about its adepts. The stories are mixed up with the first impressions which young Thiébault received from the events that preceded and prepared the French Revolution. The chapters which relate to his father's acquaintances and his own might have been suppressed without inconvenience. Thiébault becomes really interesting only when he begins to be involved in the great revolutionary drama.

If we had to make headings to his chapters, we should call one "How a Quiet Citizen Becomes a Revolutionist." Thiébault was enjoying himself at a picnic with a number of people in the forest of Vincennes on the 12th of July, when his father arrived with a friend. He was dancing a contradance, and his father allowed it to come to an end, when he told his son that Paris was in full insurrection, that the barriers of the city were guarded by the people, that nobody could go in or out; that the busts of the Duke of Orleans and of M. Necker were carried in the streets, that blood had already been shed. A revolution during a quadrille! What was to be done? Dieudonné Thiébault held a Government office; he was in what was called the Direction of the *Librairie*, being lodged by the State in the Garde-Meuble (now the Ministry of the Navy, in the Place de la Concorde). The journey from Vincennes to the Garde-Meuble was not an easy one; it was eleven o'clock at night when the father and the son arrived after having been arrested and cross-examined several times by sentries. On the morning of the 13th all Paris belonged to the insurgents; the Arsenal had been searched by the people, and it was announced that some patriots were marching on the Garde-Meuble, where there was a depot of arms. The elder Thiébault had only time to take his family, his money, and his papers to the house of a friend when the Garde-Meuble was invaded. Meanwhile a municipality was organized; the sixty districts of Paris convoked their inhabitants and armed them. Such was the origin of the national guard of Paris, which soon numbered nearly 100,000 men. Each district had its battalion. On the evening of the 13th, Paris was illuminated, and, on the 14th, young Thiébault bought a tricolor cockade. He was wandering through Paris when he met a troop of 500 men. A friend of his, who was in its ranks, told him they were going to take the guns of the *invalides;* young Thiébault felt a sudden impulse and joined the assailants. It is useless to say that the poor old *invalides* did not offer much resistance.

"Such was," says Thiébault, "the first expedition in which I took part—an expedition which had not much that was military in it, but which made me an actor in one of those circumstances when force is mightier than right. Forty-eight hours before, I little thought of disarming the *invalides*. This is a proof of the commotion which was taking place in all ideas and positions; my zeal was so much inflamed that from that time there was not at the Feuillants a more ardent soldier than myself."

Lafayette had to occupy himself with the organization of the national guard of Paris; he was its commander-in-chief, and formed as many as six divisions of ten battalions each. Among these companies, there were some which had as many as 1,200 to 1,500 men. This national guard, which was by no means a contemptible force, elected its own officers. Young Thiébault was, as a national guardsman, mixed up with the events of the 5th of October. He became a sergeant of the company of grenadiers of his section and entered upon his functions with a truly military spirit; he played his part, in his fine uniform, in the famous feast of the Federation. Once when on guard at the Tuileries, he saw Louis XVI. walking in the garden.

"When he reached the little door of the passage which led through the Convent of the Feuillants from the Place Vendôme to the Tuileries and from there to the Constituent Assembly, a young lady was coming out with a pretty young spaniel, which approached the King. As soon as the lady recognized the King, she hastened to recall her dog, and made a deep bow; at once the dog turned round to join his mistress, but Louis XVI., who had in his hand an enormous cane, broke the back of the dog with it, and, while the lady screamed and wept as the poor beast was expiring, the King continued his promenade, enchanted with what he had just done, and laughing as a big peasant would have done."

Thiébault was scandalized, and nobody will wonder at it. I believe that, even at the present time, dogs are not allowed in the garden of the Tuileries; at any rate, this was the case not long ago. But it is difficult and painful to think of Louis XVI. as a "tueur de chiens."

Thiébault became a member of the "Club of the Constitution," having among his colleagues Mirabeau, the brothers Lameth, Barnave, the Prince de Broglie, the Duc de Chartres, who became Louis-Philippe. Thiébault's memoirs show us all the transformations of the French mind at the beginning of the Revolution. See, for instance, what he says on hearing of the flight of the King: "I jump from my bed, and open my window on hearing the drum beating. I hear the screams, 'The King is gone, the King is gone!' repeated from mouth to mouth. This clandestine departure gave a chief to the emigration; it deprived France of one of its guarantees; it could not, as far as the parties were concerned, do otherwise than push everything to extremes and excite civil war." The news of the flight of the King filled everybody with anxiety; it was felt first that the sovereigns of Europe had nothing more to restrain them, and that they could march their armies against France without fearing to injure the royal family. The capture of Louis XVI. and his return to Paris, as a prisoner, did not improve the situation; the King was no longer a King, and France was like a ship without a compass. Thiébault's father lost his situation, and the Garde-Meuble, where he lived, became the Ministry of the Navy. He accepted an office in the provinces, and left Paris for Épinal, in the Vosges.

Thiébault himself, after a short journey to the Vosges, returned to Paris and continued to do service in the national guard. He describes the invasion of the Tuileries on the 10th of August. This famous day was "the definitive triumph of crime and assassination"; and Thiébault adds that the Revolution ceased to be the Revolution which he had intended to serve. The national guard had to change its uniform: the grenadiers changed theirs for a miserable *Carmagnole* and a bad hat with a cockade. Thiébault felt almost dishonored, and we shall see him now in a new character. The massacres of September became for him, with the 10th of August, a sort of turning-point: "those September days, the most hideous of the Revolution, made on me an indescribable impression." He was now brought face to face with terrible facts and realities, and from that moment his memoirs become more serious, more important, as he soon had to exchange his uniform of a civic guard for the uniform of a soldier.

# Correspondence.

## GRANT AND RAWLINS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: All candid students of Rebellion history will thank you for your recent review of Piatt

and Boynton's 'Life of Gen. George H. Thomas.' I have neither purchased nor read the work referred to, nor do I propose to do so, but enough quotations appear in your article to show that time and experience have not cured the constitutional perversity of these authors.

In your review, the now celebrated letter written by Gen. Rawlins at midnight in the trenches at Vicksburgh is adverted to. It is a momentous document from a subordinate to his commander. Not the least among Gen. Grant's claims to greatness is the fact that he selected Rawlins and kept him where he was, and allowed him to write such a letter and profited by its admonitions. You say justly that the letter bears internal evidence that Gen. Grant did not indulge in the habit of drinking to the extent of injuring the cause he served. While this is true, I wish to add that Gen. Rawlins himself, of record, certified to the same effect. When the latter went East in 1864 to assume the duties of chief of staff to the commander of the United States armies, he left many of his papers in the care of his neighbor and friend, Gen. John E. Smith of Galena, Ill., the first colonel of the celebrated "Lead Mine Regiment," who by genuine military talent and personal worth attained the position of brigadier and brevet major-general during the war. The same qualities preserved for him the friendship of Generals Grant and Rawlins till their death. Gen. Smith now resides in Chicago, a colonel upon the retired list of the regular army. The very fact that he was the depositary selected by Gen. Rawlins for his private papers indicates his nearness to the "chief of staff"; and all who know him will justify such confidence. I have seen, read, and copied this letter, all of which is in the handwriting of Gen. Rawlins. Upon the back of it is an endorsement in the same handwriting, as follows:

"This is an exact copy of a letter to the person addressed, and delivered at its date about four miles from our headquarters in rear of Vicksburgh. Its admonitions were heeded, and all went well. RAWLINS."

This proves conclusively that, at some subsequent time to the date of the letter, and before May 1, 1864, Gen. Rawlins asserted, with his own pen and under his own signature, that Gen. Grant did not drink during such period. It proves, also, that while all men may not be liars, some are.—Very respectfully,

L. B. CROOKER.

MENDOTA, ILL., November 6, 1893.

## MR. QUINCY AND THE PRESIDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is there no other side to the question discussed in your editorial on page 338 of this week's issue? Mr. Maxwell was not noted as a spoilsman before his appointment, was he? Did Mr. Dayton declare his preference for Tammany men until after his confirmation? Was Mr. Quincy the citizen recognized as a fit successor of Higgins the official?

The last case requires more than a passing word, for Mr. Cleveland came into the very holy of holies of the civil-service-reform gospel and called Mr. Quincy, theretofore a professor of the faith. Is the evangelist responsible for every backslider? Mr. Cleveland could hardly know intuitively what few people have learned, even here in his home, that Mr. Quincy is weak as cold. He took him at face value, without "ringing" him, and was deceived. Since June surely the President's time has been fully occupied with matters of more importance than Maxwell and Dayton, or even Quincy.

In a word, cannot the harm done by Mr. Quincy's treachery to the cause of civil-service reform be more quickly remedied by putting him, where he belongs, with the Hills, Sheehans, Platts, and Murphys, than by charging all the "false doctrine, heresy, and schism" to the President's account? Give the devil his due and start a column for Mr. Quincy. H.

UNIVERSITY CLUB, BOSTON, November 9, 1893.

## ADMISSION TO SOUTHERN COLLEGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The two articles on the above subject that have appeared in recent numbers of the *Nation* open a chapter of Southern educational history which affords us no room for boasting. The general inferiority of college training in the South is clear, and it can hardly be claimed that the signs of improvement are many or marked. The tabulated statements of your correspondent from New Orleans tell their own story, but the saddest part is that even the published requirements are upheld in very few colleges with any degree of strictness. A few words of conversation between the professor and student are often considered sufficient to determine the class of the applicant, and it usually makes but little difference whether the published requirements have been complied with or not. The vagueness of statement that is frequently met with in the published requirements of Southern colleges differs materially from the growing tendency visible in Northern institutions towards indefiniteness in the prescribed requirements for admission to college. The one is the vagueness of chaos, the other the brevity of conceded facts. A simple card with the inscription "At home" may be sufficient to bring together in New York a brilliant gathering of men and women with shining silks and flashing pins, but this effect could hardly be produced by so simple a means in Zululand. The published requirements of Harvard in Latin, to wit, "The translation at sight of average passages from Cicero and Virgil, with questions," may be plain enough for Boston, but such words would be understood very differently a few degrees nearer the equator.

The only hope for Southern education is that the colleges may in some way be brought together, and may come to some agreement as to the amount necessary for admission to the freshman class. Then schools would spring up to do the necessary work, and improvement in every grade of instruction might be confidently expected. For this reason the suggestion of Mr. Harrington that there be formed a Southern Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools is most timely and commendable. The way is being prepared for such an association by State organizations, such as the one that has existed in North Carolina for two years. I am glad to say that Tennessee is not behind North Carolina in this respect. Six years ago, through the efforts of Vanderbilt University, an association of this kind was formed in this State, and the last annual meeting has just been held at Bellbuckle. Only five of the colleges in the State have taken an active part in this work, and it cannot be claimed that any decided effect has as yet been produced in the elevation of standard or in securing unanimity of requirements. On the schools, however, the effect has been more marked. Every year new schools apply for membership, and their masters show an earnest desire to bring their work into harmony with the requirements of the best college of their section. If the best colleges of the South could unite in a larger association of this kind, great good would undoubtedly result. Even weaker colleges would soon see that it would pay them to elevate their standard, to cut off preparatory classes, or, if such work must be done, to turn it over to a preparatory school wholly distinct from the regular college organization.

The experience of Vanderbilt University for the past six years has demonstrated beyond a doubt that, even with the present lack of training-schools, it is possible for an institution to maintain strict requirements for entrance. How much easier would this be if several or all of the leading colleges of the South would unite and stand together in the demands made on the schools. The responsibility in this matter rests on the stronger colleges, on those that have some endowment or derive their income from State appropriations. The weaker institutions, which are largely dependent on their tuition fees for support, will make no further advance than is forced upon them by the pressure of public opinion and the odium of comparison.

J. H. KIRKLAND.

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY,
NASHVILLE, TENN, November 6, 1893.

## CONUNDRUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Part VII. of Murray's Dictionary seems to afford the derivation of the word *conundrum*, though the editor fails to notice it. As he says, there is evidence that it is an Oxford word, and he gives the following from Bedell, 1651:

"These *conimbrums*, whether Reall or Nominall, went down with Erasmus like chopt hay."

There surely can be no doubt what this word is. The reference to realists and nominalists shows that something in the scholastic philosophy is referred to; and "conimbrum" is easily recognized as meaning *argumentum Conimbricum*. The doctors of Coimbra, in their celebrated commentaries published in the sixteenth century, have in all cases a great deal to say of the "multiplex significatio" of one word and another. Indeed, such remarks are their great weapon. They used it for all it was worth, and a little more. Accordingly, a dealer in verbal quibbles might naturally have been called by Oxford students a *Conimbricus*, and his quillet *Conimbricum argumentum*. The original *c*, which this hypothesis requires, is preserved in another old form of the word, "conuncrum." *Conimbrica* was in the sixteenth century the most usual Latin form of the name Coimbra, though Conimbria is also common. Colimbria was obsolete.

C. S. P.

# Notes.

IT is now announced by his publishers, Macmillan & Co., that Prof. Goldwin Smith will, on his return from England, take up the foreshadowed second volume of his political history of the United States; but he has also in preparation for the press a book of essays setting forth his well-known and often unpopular views on questions of the day, such as the Jewish question, the Irish question, woman suffrage, prohibition, etc. The same firm have

nearly ready a new rhymed translation of Dante's 'Divine Comedy,' by George Musgrave.

Harper & Bros. make a holiday book of 'The Masters and Masterpieces of Engraving,' by Willis O. Chapin, illustrated with sixty examples from Dürer to representative American engravers; also of Charles A. Platt's 'Italian Gardens,' with many additions to the cuts which accompanied Mr. Platt's articles in *Harper's Magazine;* and finally of Charles Reade's 'The Cloister and the Hearth,' in two volumes, with 550 illustrations by William Martin Johnson.

Holiday editions of 'Poems of Nature,' selected from Bryant, with nearly a hundred "pictorial accompaniments" designed by Paul de Longpré, and of 'Picciola,' similarly treated by another French artist, J. F. Gueldry, are to be brought out by D. Appleton & Co. They will publish immediately 'The Brontës in Ireland,' by Dr. William Wright, with many illustrations.

Dodd, Mead & Co. are preparing a new edition, the fifth, of Mr. H. W. Mabie's volumes, 'My Study Fire,' 'Under the Trees and Elsewhere,' 'Short Studies in Literature,' and 'Essays in Literary Interpretation.' These have all been revised and added to, and each volume will contain three photogravures and be attractively bound. For the manufacture, recourse has been had to the press of J. M. Dent & Co., England.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce 'Social England,' a record of popular progress from the earliest times to the present, edited in six volumes by H. D. Traill, D.C.L.; 'The Religion of a Literary Man,' by Richard Le Gallienne; 'James Henry Chapin of Connecticut,' a study by George Sumner Weaver, D.D.; and 'Wah-Kee-Nah, and Her People,' a study of the customs, traditions, and legends of the North American Indians, by Gen. James C. Strong.

Six doctors of divinity at least have collaborated in the volume about to be issued by Hunt & Eaton, bearing the title 'Anti-Higher Criticism.'

'The Child and the Bishop,' memorabilia of the late Phillips Brooks, and 'Gentle Thoughts for Gentle Women,' edited from the writings of the late Dinah Mulock Craik, are in the press of J. G. Cupples & Co., Boston.

The first four books of Goethe's 'Dichtung und Wahrheit,' edited for schools by Prof. C. A. Buchheim, will form a volume which D. C. Heath & Co. are bringing out.

Charles L. Webster & Co. desire it to be known that, contrary to report, no change has been made in the personnel of the firm, and that it will not retire from the book-publishing business. While it has sold out its subscription department, it will more than ever devote itself to general publication.

"The new is old, the old is new," we must still sing with Whittier as we look at the mass of the publications of the present season. The ideally attractive and handy Dent series of Jane Austen, the Brontë sisters, and Fielding, has received a fresh extension in a reprint of Maria Edgeworth's tales, beginning with 'Leonora' and 'Ennui,' each in a single volume bound most tastefully in green cloth stamped with the shamrock and with Erin's harp in gold. The same emblem has been used for the pretty ex-libris which Dent has had the happy thought to place on each cover. For the rest we need only note that the illustrations are old steel engravings reduced, instead of the customary photogravure, and that the American co-publishers in this instance are Dodd, Mead & Co. The same firm's neat uniform edition of Anthony Trollope's novels proceeds with 'Phineas Redux,' 'The Prime Minister,' and 'The Duke's Children,' each in three volumes, according to the English convention, bound tastefully in wine-colored cloth. A medley of drawings in wash, line and color, by Theodore Hampe, irregularly embellish their new edition of Mrs. Barr's 'Bow of Orange Ribbon' (a romance of Dutch New York), with a total effect more showy than elegant.

The Messrs. Putnam, too, confirm the saying about old and new. Here is their latest (the Van Twiller) edition of the classic 'Knickerbocker's History of New York,' in two volumes, illustrated by Edward W. Kemble. Each page has a colored border repeating the same design, and it is a very happy and decorative one; and like praise may be given to the windmill figure on the inner covers. These are really, besides the handsome letter-press, the chief successes, for Mr. Kemble's humorous pen-drawings are agreeable but not great as art. The outer covers, in white, stamped with blue and gold, are perhaps a little too elaborate; but as a whole, these are very handsome volumes indeed and will make their way.

A delightfully proportioned page and general quiet good taste, without any pictorial ornament, mark Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s reissue of Mr. T. B. Aldrich's 'An Old Town by the Sea.' Both externally and internally it seems to us leagues ahead of Miss Jewett's 'Deephaven' redivivus, with illustrations by Charles and Marcia Woodbury, of which the binding is a sad thing and the paper too glossy. The illustrations, on the other hand, are decidedly meritorious, the lady's by no means the worst, as witness her "Mrs. Kew" and "Miss Brandon at the Piano."

'Olympe de Clèves' has just been added to the taking edition of Dumas, senior, which we owe to Little, Brown & Co.; it begins the line of historical romances. The two volumes are well printed and richly bound; a spirited etching and a vignette portrait are the frontispieces. The same firm send us 'The Life of Shakespeare, Copied from the Best Sources, without Comment,' by Daniel W. Wilder, a modest attempt at a brief and trustworthy compendium of what is actually known about the poet. The book is in the main excerpted from Halliwell-Phillipps's 'Outlines,' to which references are duly given, and it will certainly be very useful to readers who do not possess the larger work. Mr. Wilder has done his excerpting cleverly, and his publishers have presented the result in an attractive form. The defects of the undertaking come chiefly from the compiler's having overlooked or ignored the 'Life of Shakespeare' by the exasperating but indispensable Mr. Fleay.

Mr. Edward Maunde Thompson's 'Handbook of Greek and Latin Palæography,' in the International Scientific Series (D. Appleton & Co.), is a masterly outline of a subject replete with difficulty, interesting to the few who will actually use this book as a primer of research. The preliminary chapters, however, on the alphabet, early writing and writing materials, forms of books, punctuation, contractions, etc.—say the first 117 pages—ought to be common knowledge, and would bear separate publication. They would supplement, without much overlapping, Mr. Falconer Madan's lucid work on 'Books in Manuscript' in the "Books about Books" series, and deserve as handsome typography. Beauty of manufacture does not distinguish the International Scientific Series, and the defect is especially felt in the case of a knotty theme like the present. The size of the page, too, has necessitated arbitrary shearing of the copious MS. examples reproduced in facsimile. Finally, the index might well have been made more elaborate. It is remarkable how much use is made of the recent discoveries of MSS. in Egypt, like the Herodas and the 'Constitution of Athens'; and it is certain that future finds are likely to affect considerably the generalizations about early Greek MSS. The closing pages of the 'Handbook' are devoted to the English book-hand in the middle ages. An appendix deals with systems of dating, or eras and calendars; and there is an important list of the principal palæographical works referred to, the use of which Mr. Thompson has aimed to facilitate by his learned compendium.

In the midst of elaborate and enigmatic literary criticism, it is a pleasure to read the nine essays that compose Mr. Arthur D. Innes's 'Seers and Singers' (London: A. D. Innes & Co.). The poets treated are Wordsworth, Tennyson, Arnold, and the two Brownings. The manner is almost colloquial; no stress is laid on "new" points of view; there is no philology, no searching for sources, no attempting scientific criticism, no trying to be witty. What the reader does get is a judicious and temperate comparison of the qualities and characteristics of the poets mentioned, without any flourishes and with much soundness and charm of style and thought.

'Within College Walls' (New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.) is a collection of ten diffuse essays—or, perhaps, sermons—on college life and education, by President Thwing of Western Reserve University. The college, it appears, is not a place where the student, during four years of comparative seclusion from the world of commerce and society, may give himself over, under trained and experienced teachers, to obtaining a thorough grounding in some of the most important branches of learning and investigation. It is, on the contrary, a compound of the academy, the home, and the Sunday-school, where the development of the spiritual part of character is of prime importance, where revivals are expected with periodic regularity, where scepticism is smothered or diverted, and where young ministers are appointed to departments of which they have no knowledge because they are supposed to be men of strong character. A book which could paint the college as the student, the professor, and the executive officer really see it would be full of interest and value. Charges are continually made against the habits and methods of college life, organization, and administration. These need discussion and investigation, but do not find them in President Thwing's pages. The questions he treats are usually of minor importance: if by chance he stumbles on a critical problem, it is only to pronounce upon it dogmatically, or to show in other ways that he has not mastered the facts upon which decision must depend.

J. G. Bartholomew's 'Tourist's Atlas Guide to the Continent of Europe' (London: Geo. Philip & Son; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) is convenient enough and useful enough to be kept at home as well as taken abroad. Of a size fitted for the pocket, with rounded corners, it contains non-folded general maps of the whole of the Continent, aptly subdivided, and plans of most of the great cities (in the case of Paris two); the Rhine and the fjords of Norway are shown in sections, and even Iceland is thrown in. The British Isles, except for a small railway map, are excluded. Opposite each city plan is a summary enumeration

of hotels, stations, cafés, theatres, churches, museums, monuments, etc. No one who has once used such a companion will consent to be without it. In the map of Southeastern France, the western color boundary of Switzerland has receded, in glacial fashion, so as to throw Geneva and other territory into the latter country.

Along with the foregoing may well be carried the little English-German dictionary by Jäschke (Boston: Carl Schoenhof), which is uncommonly well conceived. Interspersed with the mere vocabulary and its phrases are titles such as *lavatory*, *railway*, *hotel*, *money*, *washing*, *tailor*, under which are set down very natural and practical questions and directions in the German idiom; and a select little German-English vocabulary at the end furnishes what aid it can to understand the responses to the traveller's remarks. The author's ingenuity has overlooked, under *railway*, a very important question in some parts of Europe—"Is this a through train?" or "Do we have to change cars before reaching such a place?"

In this day of innumerable books any one deserves gratitude who publishes a full list, or a discriminating list, of books in any department of literature; and so we turn with a cheerful hope to Haferkorn's 'Handy List of Books on Fine Arts and Architecture' (Milwaukee), to be disappointed by finding it merely a voluminous trade-list of the books in English which are current in the market to-day, with a very scanty sprinkling of such books, published before 1880, as are most commonly known. It may be handy to salesmen who have to answer the calls of ordinary buyers, but is of no value to any one who is trying to follow the literature of its subject. The "three years of persistent work" claimed for it apparently mean the labor of some one working from booksellers' catalogues without acquaintance with the literature. The same labor, with some discriminating knowledge, covering the foreign languages in which the most important part of this literature is printed, might have made the catalogue very valuable, for it has no substitute. Unfortunately, every time such a work is imperfectly done the way is blocked for something better.

The first edition of Henry William Watson's 'Treatise on the Kinetic Theory of Gases' (Macmillan) was published in 1876, and it was then, we believe, the only treatise on the subject which could lay any claim to completeness. Almost all the text-books on thermodynamics devoted one or two chapters to the kinetic theory, which were little more than introductions to the subject, and, even as such, incomplete and often wanting in strict logical precision. In the first edition of this treatise the author followed for the most part the methods of Boltzmann, with, however, some important variations. In the present edition the ground is covered in much greater detail, the statistical method of treatment due to Maxwell being kept in view. The mathematical investigation of the subject leads finally to the conclusion that, with the assumed premises, the properties of the gaseous medium will correspond perfectly with those of an ideally perfect gas. In spite, however, of the very elaborate and on the whole successful treatment, no physicist will, we think, admit that the work, good as it is, is more than a first approximation towards a satisfactory solution of the extremely difficult problems involved.

Lecène, Oudin & Cie., Paris, have just published a new volume, the seventh of M. Jules Lemaître's 'Impressions de Théâtre.' The most striking fact one notes, on completing the reading of the brilliant pages of the impressionist critic, is the absence of any really remarkable work among the absolutely contemporary pieces, and the unconscious tendency of authors and critics to seek new forms of vice and sin as subjects. M. Lemaître speaks of the most noted works only: there is not one which, from its subject or its treatment, appears destined to outlast its brief popularity, not one which seems to have opened new roads to dramatists. This is all the more remarkable because, beside these "moderns," figure the names of classics whose works, notwithstanding the changes in taste and fashion, wear well and satisfy the cultured mind. It is only justice to M. Lemaître to add that, while he suggests how much more abominable (though he does not so qualify it) the conduct of some of the characters might have been made—*e. g.*, that of the younger Dumas's 'Père Prodigue'—and consequently more soulfully interesting, the coarse vileness of the Théâtre Libre comes in for condemnation at his hands; and the delicate grace of Maxime Bouchor's work is duly praised and the genius of Ibsen recognized.

A small book, in French, with a preface in English by an Italian countess, English by birth, Evelyn Martinengo-Cesaresco, forms the eleventh volume of the collection of "La Tradition Populaire," known to folk-lorists, and published by Lechevalier (Paris). The subject of this volume is 'La Poésie Populaire,' and a short historical study is followed by an interesting chapter on the idea of Fate in southern tradition.

In the November number of the *Educational Review* the editor has published statements from a dozen universities and colleges as to the effect of the present business depression on their attendance for this year. The statements themselves are somewhat vague, but it can be plainly seen that in most cases the numbers are very much the same as last year, or only slightly increased. Prof. James, in answering for the University of Pennsylvania, propounds the theory that, in general, "financial depression, where it is not continued for too long a time, is rather favorable than otherwise to an increase of attendance at higher institutions of learning," for the reason that boys who would naturally drift into business find it hard to get places and so continue their education. If this be so, we should expect to find this year the largest gains in scientific and technical schools, whose aims would naturally attract such boys. The statements given are not sufficiently definite to confirm this supposition, but it is interesting to notice that the gain in the case of the only scientific school for which figures are given, that of Harvard University, has been 50 per cent.

A report of progress on the surface geology of New Jersey, by Prof. R. D. Salisbury of the University of Chicago, appears in the recent annual report of the State geologist, Prof. Smock. The specialist in this subject will find Salisbury's account much more explicit in regard to the washed drift than any of its predecessors have been. Dictionary-makers should take notice of a new term, "aggradation," applied by him to the filling up of valleys by heavily loaded streams, in contrast to "degradation." Most of the valleys of middle New Jersey were "aggraded" by the rivers that ran from the melting ice sheet at the close of the glacial period. Speaking of new terms, we may mention the adoption by an Austrian geologist, Dr. Robert Sieger of Vienna, of the term, *drumlin*, introduced into our glacial literature some years ago from Ireland as a name for rounded hills of drift, shaped under the ice sheet. Sieger uses it in his account of similar hills near Lake Constance, where they seem to be numerous, although generally unmentioned in descriptions of continental European geology. Sieger's essay is a contribution to the Richthofen *Festschrift* of the current year.

Messrs. Putnam think our description of their illustrated edition of Mrs. Gatty's 'Parables' liable to misconception. They say: "The illustrations in question were designed specially for this edition, by Mr. Paul de Longpré, an artist resident in this city, who has devoted himself largely to nature subjects, and whose previous work has won for itself very high commendation." We had no intention of depreciating these examples of it.

—It is refreshing to see the editor of the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* bringing all the wealth of his antiquarian knowledge to dispel those old and widespread notions of his countrymen that the early Virginians were for the most part Cavaliers, that they lived in superb mansions, and that they engaged in frequent duels. Mr. Moncure D. Conway, in his 'Barons of the Potomac and Rappahannock,' recently published, has given additional currency to these antiquated views, and it is in a review of this book, contained in the second number of the magazine, that we find a distinct denial made of the alleged fact that any considerable number of the "Virginia gentry were descended from men of high rank who had adhered to the King's side." The reviewer adds that all genealogists having any competent acquaintance with the subject are agreed that but few scions of great English houses came to any of the colonies. As to the size of the houses of the Virginian colonists, inventories exist among the county records, furnishing abundant evidence that six or seven rooms were the limit in the case of the houses of planters of means having social and political consequence, and seventeen rooms in the case of the greatest houses, such as Rosewell, Rosegill, or Westover. In the 'Recollections of Rear-Admiral Ralph Randolph Wormeley,' published in 1879, the authors give thirty bedrooms alone to "Rosegill," in Middlesex County, Virginia, the old residence of the admiral's family. In this review Ralph Wormeley's inventory, dated 1701, is produced, showing that the rooms in the house, exclusive of kitchen, dairy, etc., were exactly nine in all. The comment upon duelling is particularly interesting. Mr. Conway has declared that duels in colonial Virginia about sweethearts were not infrequent. In this review, however, the origin of the appeals to the code is ascribed to the long war of the Revolution and to French influence, the fact being that while the "records [of Virginia] mention a few—very few—challenges, so far as they show or as can be learned from other sources, no duel was fought in the colonial period about wives, or sweethearts, or any one else."

—As the fourteenth volume of Dr. Billings's grand 'Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office' reaches Universally, we suppose another will close the series. By far the amplest title in the one before us is Syphilis, which fills 118 of these two-column quarto pages, the earliest treatise on the subject that we have observed being Leonicenus's 'Libellus de epidemia quam vulgo morbum gallicum vocant' (1497). A tenth part of the space is devoted to congenital, hereditary, and infantile syphilis; a tenth likewise to treat-

ment by mercury (in the midst of other remedies), and if Chicoyneau demonstrates salivating to be of no use, Goris shows us 'Mercurius Triumphator.' Another melancholy chapter is Tubercle and Tuberculosis, in 55 pages; Tetanus requires 43, Therapeutics 38, Tumors 35, the Teeth 27, etc. Tobacco is more interesting in a briefer compass (11 pages), a third of which is concerned with the evil effects of this narcotic. The earliest entry about the weed is Neander's 'Tabacologia' (1626), followed in 1744 by Schulze's 'De masticatione foliorum tabaci, of chawing tobacco, in Anglia usitata'; and in our own very recent time we have a French 'Cri d'alarme du tabac' (Paris, 1878), upon the heels of a founding in 1877 of a society against the abuse of tobacco, with a journal, and this perhaps leading to an international congress having the same end (Paris, 1890). As far back as 1750 Languth of Wittenberg wrote warningly 'De immoderatiori tabaci abusione communi juvenilis ætatis pernicie'; and here we find bills prohibiting the sale of tobacco to minors introduced in the Michigan Legislature in 1879, and in Congress in 1888, 1890, 1891—this last in response to a memorial from citizens of the District of Columbia. James Parton's 'Smoking and Drinking' occurs on the same page with his royal British namesake's 'Counterblast to Tobacco.'

—It would be hard to say what may not be found in this section of the Catalogue—Swedenborg and his 'Animal Kingdom'; Bishop Berkeley and his Tar-water; Sir Kenelm Digby and his "powder of sympathy," "touching the cure of wounds" thereby, "with instructions how to make the said powder"; Swaim's Panacea, and the Thomsonian system, both blossoming into print in 1822; Sweet's 'Bone-setting' (1829); Daniel Turner's "particular account of Monsieur Bellost's pill compared with the author's, and the case of Barton Booth, esq., the late famous tragedian, as the same was communicated to the author by Mr. Alexander Small, surgeon, who open'd the body in the presence of Sir Hans Sloan" (1733); 'Observations on the state of the dispute between a physician and an apothecary concerning a prescription of Sydenham,' with a vindication of Sydenham's "method of curing the dysentery by injections of milk and Venice treacle" (1765); Dean Swift's 'Right of precedence between physicians and civilians enquir'd into' (1720); Stevens's 'Homographia: an essay on the proportions of man's body, hitherto unknown, or undescribed; exhibiting the prescience and reflection of the Deity, and the origin and harmony of numbers; with an appendix on the monuments of the ancients, etc.' (1806); 'Trial of William Bushnell [and others], all of Boston, for practising homœopathy while they were members of the Massachusetts Medical Society'; the Tichborne trial; and, to have an end, the case of Miss Marianne Woods and Miss Jane Pirie against Lady Gordon Cumming (1811–19), the latter having accused the plaintiffs, who kept a young ladies' school, of a practice known only by a French name, though here anglicised (and so to be commended to Dr. Murray's attention). May we not also note the appearance on the scene of three Tartarins, one an antiquarian at Vienne if not quite "sur les Alpes"? Certainly we ought to mention that the United States has 52 pages, in which will be found an analysis of the contents of the Sanitary Commission's 'Collection of Original Documents.'

—Not long before his death, Mr. Darwin stated to Sir Joseph Hooker that he desired to do for biological science something in addition to what he had already accomplished. To carry out this desire he devoted a considerable sum to the preparing and publishing of a general reference-index to the names and places of original publication of all known flowering plants, saying that the difficulties he had experienced in accurately designating the many plants he had studied, and in ascertaining their native countries, had suggested to him the importance of a work which should give these particulars. He requested Sir Joseph Hooker to take general charge of the work, and it has been under the supervision of this master in botanical science that the task of compilation and arrangement has been accomplished at Kew by Mr. B. Daydon Jackson. The first volume accordingly comes from the Clarendon Press (New York: Macmillan), under the title of 'Index Kewensis,' and with the names of Hooker and Jackson on the cover. It is a quarto volume of over seven hundred pages, three columns to a page, and contains by rough estimate not far from one hundred and sixteen thousand references. The limits chosen are from Linnæus to the year 1885; each recognized genus is referred to its proper page of Bentham and Hooker's 'Genera Plantarum,' and with each species is named its native country. A glance at a few names of species is enough to show that the classic conservatism of Bentham and Hooker and Gray has governed the choice of names. Thus, under *Acer* the proper name for our sugar maple is recognized to be *Acer saccharinum* of Wangenheim; and *Acer saccharinum* of Linnæus, the older name, but one imposed on our silver maple through some error, is made a synonym of *Acer dasycarpum* of Ehrhart. Brongniart's emendation of Gray's *Agatea*, changing it to *Agation*, is adopted, showing that the law of priority is considered inferior to what may be called the law of common sense, and that one of the best friends of our own conservative Gray could even accept the correction of what may perhaps not have been an error after all. This volume includes the names of genera from *A* to *Dendrobium*, and covers about a fourth part of the whole, so that three more volumes may be looked for in good time. This 'Index' cannot fail to be of the greatest use to botanists, who will naturally look upon it as a loving legacy from one of the most distinguished of naturalists.

—The 'Lettres de Cecil Standish,' privately printed by Lemerre at Paris during the present year, possess so curious an interest that one must regret the limited circulation of the book. The letters are by turns in French and in English, the writer, whose high-born English connections speak for themselves in his name, having been of French descent (allied with the Noailles) on his mother's side, and having been bred a Catholic in France. His means and his delicate constitution together deprived him of the incentive to settled work, and, after many journeys in many lands in search of health, he ended his brief thirty-eight years with a single literary achievement, a story in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The affectionate correspondence with his friends, among them an American fellow-student at Oxford, Louis Dyer, ranges from 1874 to 1891, the year of his death, with gaps in the series for 1880, 1883, and 1886. It opens in Colorado, where Standish spent two years, but to us this is the least attractive period of his wanderings, and it even requires some effort to follow the development of the youth of twenty-one. After his two years at Balliol his growth is obvious, and his letters become very finished specimens of the art. Those from Spain and Italy in particular show a fine descriptive power, and together would make a valuable addition to any tourist's guide-books for either peninsula. See, for example, his elaborate "programme pour les promenades de Mme. de Talleyrand" in Rome, with its first, second, third, and fourth days, and a hint of the theatre where Duse (this was in 1888) was playing, as he remarked, only French plays, save one piece of Goldoni's, doubtless "La Locandiera," which Standish had seen at Palermo the year before. He would have been embarrassed had Madame desired to accompany him to the Bellini Theatre in Palermo on occasion of the representation of Macchiavelli's "Mandragora," when it was publicly advertised that women spectators must come masked. Half-a-dozen shameless girls ventured unmasked, and were treated to hootings and foul-mouthed speech such as Pepys never witnessed at the play. They were "interpell es par les gens du parterre et des fauteuils: on leur criait des horreurs," says Standish. Quite other scenes are those of the Papal court and ceremony of Leo XIII., intimately and humorously touched off by this Anglo-Frenchman, who had been appointed *cameriere segreto di cappa e spada* and was costumed accordingly. Still, the collection has, perhaps, a greater attraction for the student of mankind, in the person of Standish, than for the lover either of foreign ways or of letters. Copies of the daintily printed book are at hand in the Astor Library, the Newberry Library at Chicago, the Harvard College Library, and the Boston Public.

—A suggestion for American educational experts is contained in the letter of a Welsh correspondent who sends an account of the way in which some friends of co-education in Bangor have solved its domestic side, a phase of the problem which our British cousins have always regarded as complicated. A stock company of ladies and gentlemen have provided "The Women's Hostel for Students, in connection with the University College of North Wales, Bangor," for such young women as do not prefer to live in lodgings. The enterprise is controlled by eleven directors, of whom four are officers of the college, and Miss Mary Maude, the lady superintendent, is also a newly-created member of the college board, "with supervision over all women students." The fees for board and residence in this uniquely named dormitory, for the three terms of the college year, vary from one hundred and fifty to two hundred dollars. The College Hostel opened last month with fourteen students, and some of the rules for the guidance of both superintendent and students illustrate international differences in custom and point of view. Miss Maude is required to accompany the girl students to the meetings of such college organizations as the choral and debating societies; there are daily prayers, and students are expected to attend regularly a place of worship, "though the Hostel is non-denominational." Students must consult the lady superintendent before accepting invitations of any kind from friends, nor can they "be out in the evening without leave." The Hostel is beautifully located in full view of the Snowdonian range of mountains, about twenty minutes' walk from University College. Moreover, the college provides a room for its women students, where they can rest, take lunch, or wait between classes, etc., and "no talking or loitering is allowed" in the halls or corridors.

RECENT NOVELS.

*Pietro Ghisleri.* By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co.

*The Complaining Millions of Men.* By Edward Fuller. Harper & Bros.

*An Innocent Impostor*, and Other Stories. By Maxwell Grey. D. Appleton & Co.

*Not Angels Quite.* By Nathan Haskell Dole. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

*The Heavenly Twins.* By Mme. Sarah Grand. Cassell Publishing Co.

*Ideala.* By Sarah Grand. D. Appleton & Co.

PIETRO GHISLERI is one of the Romans who move in the Saracinesca set. We meet them now as summer friends meet, intermittently but familiarly. As with summer friends, too, an interest grows up in all their affairs, great or small, based less on the importance of the affairs than on the old acquaintanceship. Like the pleasure of reading poetry in a foreign tongue, or Browning, which is said by the cynic to arise from the mere satisfaction of finding, after search, that it has a meaning, so the simple fact that San Giacinto gave Don Orsino sage counsel in money matters in an earlier volume of Mr. Crawford's, now makes it positively pleasurable that it should be the same San Giacinto who befriends Pietro Ghisleri, the hero of the present story. That the famous and melancholy duellist, Spicca, interested himself profoundly in Maria's fortunes last year, now adds pungency to the page wherein the same Spicca says that no one could possibly be as good as this year's Laura Carlyon looked. The wit of Gouache, the painter, too, borrows a little of its lustre from the fact that he has been witty before; but for this spiritual ancestry we are inclined to think that Gouache's studio party in the new novel, a varied function of tableaux and blank verse, would not have had quite the success ascribed to it. There are dangers as well as attractions in introducing us to the same society year after year. If Mr. Crawford has touched this danger, however, it is only on its margin, for he has made an interesting book and shown us his old friends and ours of the gay Roman world of society in new lights. A Roman society woman may not only be revengeful—that sounds very familiar—but, under sufficient provocation, she may read scientific works, and, borrowing the wisdom of this end of the age, may, for her purpose, summon bacilli from the vasty deep. The bacilli play her true, but the weak points of her intricate scheme of blackmail seriously need the explanation given that the plotter was half insane from the use of morphine.

It is not alone the Roman woman who is thus touched with the modern idea. A Roman society man may not only carry on his intrigues in the face of the world—that sounds very familiar—but he may turn teacher, and counsel virtue to the mistress he is forsaking. The complicated man is Mr. Crawford's specialty. Pietro Ghisleri is constantly spoken of as one. All his friends call him so, including his friend the author; but in reality he is not so much complicated as contradictory—what he says contradicts what he does; what is said of him contradicts both. The author describes him as a great sinner, and is explicit as to some of his worst sins, but contrives also to make him get tired of his sins in so chivalrous a fashion that one begins to dread the evolution, in fiction, of the knightly cad; nor, less, of the over-tolerant heroine, since it is she who talks away Pietro's dissatisfaction with himself and at last convinces him that he is good enough to marry her. His charm, the charm which never fails to reach the heart of woman, in or out of a book, is that, whatever may be said of him to the contrary, he always controls the situation of the moment, be it intrigue, athletics, finance, or love.

'The Complaining Millions of Men' have one more cause for complaint in the novel where they play the title rôle. They and their cause are made the ostensible theme in a story whereof it is hard to say whether the alleged socialism is more superficial or the alleged high life more dingy. The book is distinctly grimy, not as to morals, but in its literary atmosphere. We shall not quarrel, now or ever, with a book on socialism because it does not offer new schemes of reform to an attentive world, but we must have a decent literary marriage between the motive and the execution, or we must murmur. If the knightly cad is to be dreaded, what shall we say of the unknightly one? The novel of which he is hero shall surely die. It is impossible to care what Francis Baretta does, says, or thinks, whom he loves, whom he forsakes, because his contemptible insincerity as a man and a composition puts him beyond the pale of human interest. We defy any one to remember, one hour after closing the book, whether or no he blew his brains out at last. The lower social stratum of the two in which he moved has no reality, not from its lowness but from the nervelessness with which it is presented; the Beacon Street half of the book (for its scenes are laid out in Boston) is even more depressingly penny-valentine-like. There is in the style an exasperating trick which consists in eternal questions asked by nobody and answered by the querist. The most nearly redeeming work is the portrait of the girl from the slums, who fatiguingly, but faithfully, loved the cad unto the welcome end.

Maxwell Grey's volume of stories, to judge by internal evidence, must have been written at a less experienced time of literary life than the novels which made their author's fame. They show some liveliness of invention and no little readiness of pen, but are crude in their form and substance. The plots are not content to thicken; they open and shut, like jack-knives, with a jerk and a click. Here, one says, is slender work which may develop on the brighter side and become original, or on the slighter, and become vapid. It is needless to particularize, since the same qualities pervade all the stories, whether they be of persons exchanging their identity by accident, or of other persons doing the same on purpose—personating some one else being the prevailing topic of the book. The topic, however, matters little, for the interest, such as it is, is more often in the graces of telling than in the thing told.

Mr. Dole's novel contains a small story of love and a legacy, with a great many opinions, theories, verses, stories, and quotations. It is indeed a curious collection of paragraphs on numerous subjects woven into the conversation of a dozen persons, whose story is outweighed by their convictions. They all have ardent convictions on all subjects, and all talk about them. A very few of their topics are socialism, prevention of cruelty, belief in a future life, spiritualism, proof-reading, the elective system, cremation, spelling-reform, music and composers, the metric system, centralization, nationalism, and the management of periodicals. There are lunch parties, dinner parties, supper parties, with the attendant menus; there are psychic-research meetings and ritualistic services and concerts and press-club meetings; there are cruel teamsters and car-ticketless Irish, and Jew newspaper-owners and Malaprop widows, besides the principals of the plot, and there is much punning. Strange to say, the book is not particularly unreadable. As a novel it is harum-scarum, but as a collection of "ana" it is rather bright.

'The Heavenly Twins' and 'Ideala' have the merit of originality, whatever else they have or lack. They are large-purposed books, dealing with the greatest problems of life. The very vastness of the object interferes with their effectiveness as works of fiction. The genius of George Eliot was needed to save her didacticism from overwhelming her novel. Mrs. Humphry Ward escaped even more narrowly, and Mme. Grand—"may profit by their example," we will say, in anticipation of cries of "Treason!" In 'The Heavenly Twins' the moralizing well-nigh swamps the moral, particularly at the outset, where the swinging to and fro of both motive and treatment is so ponderous and so sluggish that the reader has no soothing premonition of the dash and velocity into which they work up later. In the early chapters, moreover, the warfare against injustice is waged with snarling—a lance which may prick but cannot slay; but later this is laid down in exchange for the worthier weapon of a glowing and impersonal wrath. Thus the last impressions of the book are the best, as to its tone and purpose, but the same can hardly be said of its construction, which is a tangle of themes and counter-themes worked out to a tangle of conclusions. The account of the twins and their diabolically mischievous pranks from the cradle to the grave has nothing to do with the life-history of Evadne; the two stories clash like dissonances on the ear. The twins, with the fantastic idyl of the Tenor and the Boy, should have made a separate chronicle. The great questions treated in the book are the deepest questions of life, but the dominant motive, which may be dryly stated as the elevation of man's moral status to that of woman, is zealously, even thrillingly, dealt with in the story of Evadne. Her theory is that the different standards for men and women can be equalized only by the steady refusal of women to marry men whose previous lives have been questionable; a necessary part of the plan being that women should not shirk a full knowledge of the world, its evil as well as its good. Ignorance is set forth as vice in some sententious pleadings, as, for example, this, of certain "gentle-mannered, pure-minded women":

"They kept their tempers even and unruffled by never allowing themselves to think or know . . . anything that is evil of anybody. . . . They seemed to think that by ignoring the existence of sin, by refusing to obtain any knowledge of it, they somehow helped to check it; and they could not have conceived that their attitude made it safe to sin, so that when they refused to know and to resist, they were actually countenancing evil and encouraging it. The kind of Christian charity from which they suffered was a vice in itself."

The false principles on which woman is educated—her feeling over-developed, her reason under-trained—perhaps needed public attention a few years ago more than to-day; but that side of the question which bears upon woman's culpability in encouraging a low standard for man, negatively if not positively, has rarely received more original or intelligent discussion than in Madame Grand's books.

With the carrying out of her idea, however, we have a serious quarrel. Evadne, finding as she is setting forth upon her wedding journey that her husband's past has been an evil one, runs away and refuses to live with him, giving

consistent reasons for her conduct to her parents. With her absolute views on this subject she could do nothing else; therefore her final yielding to her mother's tears and prayers to return to a mere appearance of wedded life with her husband, that her family and the world may not be scandalized, is wholly inconsistent with the character of the high-strung but coldly logical Evadne, and the whole struggle loses its significance. It is true that a new struggle begins, which is worked out to a fitting end, but the original question, for which the soil has been carefully prepared, for which Evadne has fitted herself by her whole way of living and reading and thinking, falls to the ground. Often nothing is so true to nature as inconsistency of character; but it is fair to say that Evadne's inconsistency in this particular, as the heroine of a novel of reform, is a breach of trust with the reader. To a girl of her uncompromising truthfulness, seeming to yield the point would have been one shade more disgraceful than really doing so.

'Ideala,' which is a far slighter work, is, to our thinking, a more perfect one. Obviously by the same hand, its weaknesses are the same —the tendency to what Disraeli calls anecdotage, the desultoriness, the quotations, the original poems. Its virtues, too, of high purpose and of daring and original statement are the same, but, in this self-declared "study," the faults sit lighter and the moral marches straighter to its goal. Both books are noticeable far beyond the ordinary. Their author stands in some peril, as a reformer, of trying to cure all maladies with one medicine, the higher (and lower) education of woman; and, as a novelist, of overloading her pages with irrelevant incident and wilful boldness where business-like calm would say more.

## FOUR BOOKS ON OLD NEW ENGLAND.

*Some Old Puritan Love Letters:* John and Margaret Winthrop, 1618-1638. Edited by Joseph Hopkins Twichell. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1893.

*Thomas Hazard*, Son of Robert, called "College Tom": A Study of Life in Narragansett in the XVIIIth Century. By his grandson's granddaughter, Caroline Hazard. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

*The Old Colony Town*, the Ambit of Buzzard's Bay, and Other Sketches. By William Root Bliss, author of 'Colonial Times on Buzzard's Bay.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

*Customs and Fashions in Old New England.* By Alice Morse Earle. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

In the old Winthrop love-letters two notable founders of New England poured out their hearts as lovers of our day would, if they knew how. The epistles run through twenty years. Their number is fifty-eight, of which sixteen were written by the lady—the earliest specimens, we think, of such writing by an American Puritan woman. Born in 1591, this Puritan girl was nearly coeval with Shakspere's daughters, who could not write. But her chirography as we have it in facsimile is a fine round Roman hand, showing contempt of those "statists who held it a baseness to write fair." The substance, too, is throughout worthy of the fair show. Her style, as well as that of Mr. Winthrop, would now be censured as sentimental and suffused with religious cant; but it was natural in an age when all expressions of feeling were effusive, when the Bible was the Puritan library, and when religious controversy was all in all in social no less than in political relations. Inside the letters, such a style shocks modern taste no more than it must to see them superscribed on the outside—*To my very deare and lovinge Husband these deliver.* Winthrop at least, reading lines that beg pardon for themselves as "liveless," could never have said with *Hamlet's* mother, "The lady doth protest too much, methinks." Again, the unconscious autobiography which is the chief charm of familiar letters—above all of those scribbled in haste—pervades this correspondence from first to last. Nor do the letters fail to throw side-lights on the vicissitudes of English domestic life in the early decades of the seventeenth century. Daily food, luxuries, medical nostrums, dress, modes of travel, meanings of words, all receive illustration.

Margaret Winthrop died in 1647. A little less than a century afterward "College Tom" began his distinctive struggle as an anti-slavery pioneer in Rhode Island. This reformer, born in 1720, whose family name was Hazard, was son of one of the wealthiest Quakers just north of Point Judith. Going in 1742 to buy a cow in a corner of Connecticut where slavery had not penetrated, he was shocked to hear a deacon there assert that Quakers could not be Christians because they held their fellow-men as slaves. Thenceforth he began to till a farm his father had given him with free labor while a thousand slaves were held in the county where he lived, very many of them by his relatives, some of whom were Guinea slave-traders, and though his rich father threatened to disinherit him. Years before he had felt some scruples about slavery. The question had arisen: Ought slaves to be baptized? Many said that, being chattels bought and sold like sheep and oxen, they ought not to be baptized any more than those beasts. Some, however, argued that negroes, having souls, had a right to freedom. Bishop Berkeley endeavored to settle the question by procuring and publishing a formal opinion from his Majesty's attorney-general that slave baptism was right. But official authority had no weight with "College Tom." Freeing first his own slaves, he set an object-lesson before his neighbors which they could not disregard. His leaven was not long hid. In the outset it leavened the monthly and then the yearly meeting of Quakers, and finally the Rhode Island Legislature, which, but for the impending Revolution, might have abolished "the detestable practice of enslaving" ten years sooner than it did in 1784. He lived fourteen years after that.

It has been well said that every man's account-book shows what manner of man he is. "College Tom's" books of that sort show his character and many things besides. Their disclosures are especially edifying in relation to fiat money during forty years while it had free course and was glorified around him. How it depreciated till a dollar was not worth a cent; how it led to the fixing on corn or wool or meat as a standard of value; how it forced trade to become barter, and clogged every wheel of business, is revealed on multitudinous pages. The last third of the volume is composed of official documents illustrative of what had preceded, but intended to be referred to rather than read. The first two hundred pages are a narrative in artless Quaker fashion by "College Tom's" grandson's granddaughter. They were penned on the self-same estate where he flourished and which his descendants still possess. The story is so well told, and gives so many glimpses of colonial life, that no one who reads one page will find it easy to leave any page unread.

Half of Mr. Bliss's title, namely, "The Ambit of Buzzard's Bay," must have been chosen from President Cleveland's making Gray Gables his summer retreat. The other half, "The Old Colony Town," may be due to a desire to secure a sale among summer boarders who resort for their outing to the Old Plymouth region. The book deserves the patronage of all such health and pleasure-seekers. It gives them what they both need and lack—an excellent topographical description of all the natural features they will encounter in their walks, drives, and water parties, besides mention of the old landmarks with something of their history and legends. But those who buy Mr. Bliss's sketches merely as a local guide will get more than they bargained for—more than they ever dreamed of concerning lighthouse life on the coast of Maine, for example. Again, Mr. Bliss dwells for about forty pages with affectionate minuteness on "the mind of his dog" and on "society in the menagerie." Every man who cares for his dog or for any animal, from a mouse to an elephant, both included, will here find something he will be glad to know. Mr. Bliss's sketches stretch not only through the animal kingdom, but so much further that "the Ambit of Buzzard's Bay" is a world too narrow for them. They ought rather to be called "the ambit of the terraqueous earth," for they include hairbreadth 'scapes in stormful voyages across both the Atlantic and Pacific, as well as adventures in India, China, and Japan. His experience in the farthest East a long time ago was much of a piece with the present writer's in more recent years. In Shanghai both rode in jinrikishas, but Mr. Bliss makes no mention of spacious wheelbarrows which are now very generally used there in place of cabs. On unbeaten paths in Japan, Mr. Bliss found "no envious rivalry between jinrikisha-men who were travelling in the same train"; the present writer saw much of it. Mr. Bliss speaks of "small lacquered *tables* on which supper was spread." Those the writer met with, being not more than three inches high and a foot long, it were more fitting to call salvers. Both were guests at the same Kiyoto hotel, which Mr. Bliss calls Maruyama, but which was known to the other traveller as Yaammeh. The passports of both had odd clauses: that of Mr. Bliss was forfeited in case "he committed matrimony," that of the writer if he were caught "appearing at a fire on horseback."

Mrs. Earle paints for us the ancient Yankee from his birth and baptism to his burial and gravestones, in fifteen chapters, each presenting a distinct colonial phase. The picture or panorama is drawn to the life and full of realistic traits. Many of Mrs. Earle's most racy details she owes to the colonial gazettes which Isaiah Thomas began to gather more than a century ago in Worcester, and which have been sought for ever since by the Antiquarian Society he founded. She has also made the most of ancient wills, inventories, mercantile day books, and court records; nor has she failed to resort to museums of colonial relics in Deerfield, Hartford, Plymouth, Boston, and Salem. It is very noticeable how impossible it would have been to write her descriptions twenty years ago. Then the Journal and Letters of Judge Sewall were inaccessible; since then they have been deciphered and printed with excellent annotations and indexes. But for his private records concerning his multitudinous courtships, the chapter on

colonial love-making must have lacked half its sap and savor. Mrs. Earle mentions various colonial houses, but is silent about one, still well preserved, of which Sewall loved to write. This is the house of his cousin Quincy, already old in Sewall's time, beside a brook flowing down from the Adams estate to the sea. Here, in Tutor Flynt's chamber next the brook, Sewall lodged March 28, 1712. One may see there a fine specimen of pre-Revolutionary paper-hangings—the pattern, Venus and Cupid. This paper was put on for the wedding of John Hancock in 1775, which was prevented from consummation there by the Concord fight. But few indeed are the sources of information that have not been deeply drawn from by Mrs. Earle. Her account of domestic service will be a revelation, perhaps a consolation, to housekeepers. Their predecessors—changing Irish help for Indian, and Indian for African, and still served worse and worse—were by no means to be envied. Mrs. Earle also shows how, after generations had known no diverting spectacles save executions and funerals, "Othello," while play-acting was prohibited by law, managed to sneak in on the stage at Newport in 1762, under the disguise of "a moral dialogue, in five parts." We wish space would allow us to copy the playbill, which Mrs. Earle pronounces "the most amusing example of specious and sanctimonious truckling extant."

## WILLIAM BLAKE.

*William Blake:* His Life, Character, and Genius. By Alfred T. Story, author of the 'Life of John Linnell,' etc. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1893.

THERE is a great fascination in the incomplete, and a glory in understanding the misunderstood and admiring the unappreciated. When any man has fully and clearly expressed himself—when what he had to do or say in the world is thoroughly done and unmistakably said—why bother one's self to explain the clear or interpret the known? But the half-articulate genius whose message the people have not heard or comprehended, the fire of whose inspiration is smothered in its own smoke—the man of fitful force and unbalanced power—he furnishes to the discerning critic his true opportunity. There is little credit to be had in praising what all the world admires, and little need for ingenuity to read what is plainly written; but it needs a penetrating mind to discern the beauties of what most of the world despises, and to find or invent a meaning in what men take for madness. So there is more written of William Blake than of Veronese, and almost as much as of Michelangelo.

The present work is in some ways a singular one. Its external appearance is not pleasant. There are no illustrations save a portrait of Blake as frontispiece. The small page is crowded and the margins are unduly narrow, and the dirt-colored cloth cover is stamped in a meaningless and ugly imitation of alligator-skin. It is a curious dress for the life of an artist, and one soon finds that it is not as an artist or even as a poet that this book deals with its subject. It is of Blake as prophet and seer, the inspired revealer of new truths and a new morality and religion, that Mr. Story writes. It is doubtless so that Blake would have preferred to be considered, but it is not so that the world will consent to consider him. It seems to us much like considering Turner mainly as the author of 'The Fallacies of Hope.'

The facts of Blake's life, to which Mr. Story devotes considerably less than half his 164 pages, are so familiar that it is hardly necessary to recount them here. The recurring question as to whether or no Blake was "mad" seems to us one for professional alienists to decide; nor does its answer seem to us important. In any case it is only a question of degree. A "lack of mental balance" Mr. Story himself admits; and whether this lack of balance was great enough to deserve the name of insanity is largely a question of names. Perfect sanity Blake certainly had not. He spoke constantly of his "visions" as having objective reality; but whether this was hallucination or mystification, who can tell? He was incoherent to the verge of raving, vainglorious to a degree that suggests the *folie des grandeurs*, and suspicious and unjust to an extent which reminds one of the mania of persecution. Whether he was or was not mad, his was assuredly a singularly ill-regulated, unbalanced, and untrained mind. In art his education was little enough, but it was, fortunately for him, of the right kind. In literature he had almost no education at all, and a good deal of what he had was of the wrong kind. Mr. Story laments his apprenticeship to Basire, "whose style of engraving was hard and dry and conventional, the result being to cramp and fetter the genius of the pupil." We cannot help thinking that these "fetters" were eminently salutary to Blake as an artist. In spite of his strange genius he was technically a convinced classicist. He was amusingly bigoted in his denunciation of the colorists and of "that infernal machine called Chiaroscuro," and maintained that "the great and golden rule of art, as well as of life, is this: That the more distinct, sharp, and wiry the bounding-line, the more perfect the work of art; and the less keen and sharp, the greater is the evidence of weak imitation, plagiarism, and bungling."

Of course this is silly and one-sided, and largely the result of ignorance and prejudice; but there is an element of truth in it. In the first place, it must be remembered that "nature put him out"; that, as he said of himself, "natural objects always did . . . weaken, deaden, and obliterate imagination" in him. Now *painting*, as we understand it since the Venetians, requires for its perfection the direct study of nature, and, therefore, was not for him who found that the posed model "smelt of mortality," and who was not strong enough (as the truly great artists have been) to make nature serve him rather than allow nature to master him. Michelangelo did not find even the "mortality" of the dissecting-room deadening to his imagination. Yet Blake felt that in art mere vagueness was death. The highest imagination is always the most definite, and "a spirit and a vision are not, as the modern philosophy supposes, a cloudy vapor or a nothing; they are organized and minutely articulated beyond all that the mortal and perishing nature can produce. . . . Spirits are organized men." Debarred from great realization, he found safety in that very hardness and dryness of style that Mr. Story laments, which gives a sense of accuracy even when accuracy is absent, and makes even false drawing look marvellously sure and vivid. His wildest creations seem as if they must have been really observed, because his method of statement is so precise; and they owe half their effect to that cause. His style "fitted him," and gives the same reality to his apocalyptic visions which those of Dürer possess.

In literature, however, Blake had nothing answering to the training in clarity and precision which, as a draughtsman, he had gained from his long practice of engraving and of drawing Gothic monuments. He was altogether self-educated, and ignorant even of grammar. He shared in the admiration for Ossian that was common in his time, and retained it after the rest of the world had outgrown it. He always maintained that both Ossian and Chatterton's "Rowley" were genuine beings, and "owned himself an admirer of Ossian equally with any other poet whatever." His early "Songs of Innocence and Experience," in spite of grammatical and metrical stumbles, contain, as we all know, much lyrical power and true beauty; but when he began to occupy himself with religion and philosophy, to form a theory of the universe and of good and evil, and to make myths which should convey his notions on these subjects, both his thinking and his style were those of an untrained and unbalanced mind. The so-called "prophetic books" are "full of sound and fury, signifying nothing."

It is to these books that Mr. Story devotes more than half his volume, trying manfully to make sense of them and to explain Blake's thought, though he has often to confess that he cannot do so and to admit a "vast overplus of words utterly without meaning." "Yet, in spite of all," he says, "there burned through this incoherent windy drift, and for ever stands revealed as in golden letters of light, a treasury of thought so rich that it constitutes a veritable and almost unparalleled intellectual heritage for all the ages to come." The style, too, he admires. He calls it "unrhymed verse," and considers it "a very powerful instrument for the expression of his thought, and a decided addition to our poetical forms. With all the force and simplicity of prose, it is yet capable of the metrical sweetness and flow, and more than the charm and variety, of ordinary blank verse." In support of these contentions he gives many long extracts, and it is fair to suppose that they are the best he could find. If what he does not quote is any more "windy" and formless and unintelligible than what he quotes, it must be astonishing indeed. As to the "unrhymed verse," we cannot see that it is verse at all, or has any other vestige of versification than the arbitrary division into lines with a capital at the head of each. We shall try the experiment of giving one short passage, and by no means the worst, without the line division, and let the reader judge. Blake is speaking of "Beulah"—

> "Where every female delights to give her maiden to her husband: the female searches sea and land for gratification of the male genius, who in return clothes her in gems and gold, and feeds her with the food of Eden."

This has a certain rhythm, but it is distinctly the rhythm of what is known as poetical prose. It has no line structure; and we defy any one who does not know the original to divide it as Blake did.

We shall decline to discuss the value of the ideas, in themselves, which Mr. Story tells us Blake meant to convey. They seem to us, as we have intimated, as much the outcome of an untrained mind as is the poetry in which they are conveyed. But were they as valuable as Mr. Story thinks them, it would matter little. After all, what the world most loves is art. Thought has never long saved a work not plastically beautiful, and it is William Blake the artist that the world will care for as long as it cares at all for William Blake.

It is, then, to some examination of Blake's claims to remembrance as an artist that we

shall devote our remaining space. A painter, in any just sense of the word, he never was at all. As an illustrator in black and white, whether of his own ideas or of the works of others, he displayed undoubted ability. His knowledge of the figure was far from complete, and his anatomy is often impossible, while his taste was sometimes faulty and his ornamental flourishings are frequently mean and trivial. On the other hand, he had a strong imaginative sense of the weird and awful, a feeling for grandeur of style and an ability to suggest space and movement. Some of the "Inventions to the Book of Job" reach a very high level of dignity and beauty, and are more essentially *large* in their small dimensions than many a twenty-foot canvas or fresco. Due distance guarded and allowance made for their inferior completeness, they are almost worthy of comparison with Michelangelo, of whom they contain many reminiscences. To say of them, as Mr. Story does of the less well-known illustrations to Dante, his last works, that, "in comparison with them, Flaxman's designs are puny, and Doré's grotesque and feeble," is weak praise. Neither of these men is worthy to be compared for an instant to Blake. It should be remarked as bearing on the sanity of these works and Blake's consciousness of rational adaptation of means to ends in their production, that he never attributed their authorship, as he did that of his later poems, to supernatural inspiration. The spirit of his brother suggested the methods of engraving some of his designs, and St. Joseph told him how to mix his colors, while "Flemish and Venetian demons" interfered with him; but he never seems to have doubted that the drawings were his own. The visions posed for him, but they did not draw for him.

## SUNDRY LAW BOOKS.

'The Law of Insurance,' by Arthur Biddle (Philadelphia: Kay & Brother), is an exhaustive and valuable treatise upon all branches of insurance law not marine. The different forms of risks are not treated separately, but the arrangement of the book is based upon the contract of insurance in its successive stages, and deals in order with its formation; the rights of the parties before the occurrence of the contingency insured against; the avoidance and performance of the contract; its breach; and the measure of damages—an arrangement which more than compensates, by its opportunity for scientific treatment, for an occasional lack in convenience. Mr. Biddle's method is careful and thorough, and the book gives every evidence of painstaking labor. The number of cases cited is very large, and while the text never departs far from a treatment of the actual authorities into the realm of original discussion, it is nevertheless far more than a mere digest. On the contrary, much is done throughout to reconcile and explain the cases and to simplify and systematize the general principles of insurance law; and there can be no doubt that the book is an important addition to the literature of the subject. Among other interesting things are the discussion of the difference between life and fire insurance, good chapters on the difficult subjects of fraud and estoppel, and an excellent statement of the true nature of the so-called "parol evidence rule."

'The Law of Incorporated Companies Operating under Municipal Franchises,' by Allen Ripley Foote and Charles E. Everett (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.), is a work which, so far as our experience goes, entirely justifies the claim made by the authors to novelty of conception and plan. A doubt which arises at first sight as to the object of the book is not altogether removed by the statement of the preface that the aim has been "to elucidate principles and clearly to define strategic points, in order to measure by fundamental rules the progress made by the several States in aligning legislation with the requirements of such rules." In substance the compilation seems not to be a law book in the ordinary sense, but rather a comparison of the legislation of the various States and Territories upon the subject of corporations exercising franchises of various kinds in the highways and other public places of municipalities. The laws of each jurisdiction upon this head are treated separately, after a preliminary "Discussion of the Economic Principles Involved"—a singular compound of ethics, philosophy, political and economic science, and other things—which sets forth the authors' plan for a system of industrial corporations operating under State control. There is also a statement of the general principles of law applicable to such corporations.

Thomas Carl Spelling's 'Treatise on Extraordinary Relief in Equity and at Law' (Boston: Little Brown & Co.), deals fully with the law of injunction (to which the largest part of the book is given), habeas corpus, mandamus, prohibition, quo warranto, and certiorari. It is likely to prove a useful text-book on all these heads, some of which have never, to our knowledge, been so thoroughly and systematically treated.

The 'American Digest' for 1893 (St Paul: West Publishing Co.) is a remarkable volume. Its more than twenty-eight hundred pages of closely printed matter is sufficient evidence of the appalling rapidity with which the accumulation of case law is going on. But while this continues, and while all efforts to emancipate the legal profession from their dependence upon the cases are so far from success, there can be no doubt of the service which the West Publishing Company is doing by its National Reporter system and this annual index to its publications. The assistance thus given in finding the latest decisions on any subject is partly indicated by the fact that this one volume, prepared with much attention to detail and arrangement, and with every mechanical aid, contains references to every decision for a year past of the highest court in any State or Territory, and of many other courts besides. It must be said, however, that the bulk of the Digest might have been greatly reduced, and its convenience increased, by a more careful condensation of statement.

*Letters of Asa Gray.* Edited by Jane Loring Gray. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893. 2 vols. 8vo.

It must have been a task of extraordinary difficulty to select from Dr. Gray's voluminous correspondence the handful of letters here given. Every one who knew Dr. Gray recognized in him an eminent botanist, a patriotic citizen, a defender of the faith, and a lovable man. Doubtless the greater part of the correspondence at the service of the one who has edited these volumes could have been utilized to present in strong light, and in all these phases of activity, the beautiful character of Prof. Gray. And the loving hand which has chosen with consummate judgment the few letters now before us, must have often lingered with regret over the hundreds of notes and letters which had to be discarded in favor of these. The first volume opens with a short autobiography which brings Dr. Gray's life down to the date of his first vacation after he had fairly entered on the duties of the professorship at Harvard (1843). From this time on, the letters are linked together by occasional remarks explanatory of the sequence, where such remarks have seemed necessary. Few persons have ever put more of themselves into their letters than did the writer of these, and therefore the chain of correspondence is in itself almost autobiographical. Sundry journals, introduced from time to time, add to this effect, so that the volumes might well be called the Life of Asa Gray.

Besides a few engravings illustrating the Garden and home where most of his scientific work was done after he came to Cambridge, there are three portraits taken at the ages of thirty-one, fifty-seven, and seventy-six. The first of these, belonging to the time when the art of the photographer demanded for the portrait many minutes of constrained attention, has no suggestion of the face as it was later known. Dr. Gray appears to have been devoting the time necessary for the portraiture to the perusal of some such work as the photographers of those days kept for their patients. The likeness at fifty-seven, taken in 1868, brings Dr. Gray before us in all his marvellous alertness. It may fairly be called a speaking likeness, for it is ready to speak. One can fancy that it represents him in an animated scientific discussion at the very moment he has discovered a weak point in his antagonist's armor, and there is beginning at the corners of the mouth the gentle smile which promises that his opponent will actually enjoy the adroitness of the thrust as much as he. No portrait could better show the character of Dr. Gray at this period of his life. After almost twenty years of untiring activity, he sits for another portrait. In this his beard shades the mouth somewhat, but the kindly smile finds full expression in the twinkle of the eye. The strong and gentle character is revealed as clearly in these two portraits as in the letters themselves.

Of course, the letters give special prominence to the nature and scope of the botanical researches and discoveries on which his fame securely rests, but these letters have been chosen so skilfully that they can be read even by a layman with pleasure and profit. They cover a period of more than fifty years of successful labors appreciated from the very first by all of his contemporaries. They show that from the very outset he became not merely the correspondent but the intimate and affectionate friend of the leading botanists in all countries. The only interruptions to his toil were his occasional journeys, but these were all made tributary to his work. In these journeys, as soon as he had fairly thrown off the vexations of administrative service, he entered on new scenes with the glee of a boy, and records his impressions of delight without restraint or reserve. We shall be mistaken if the charming journals of travel only lightly freighted with botanical lore but rich in friendly gossip, botanical and other, do not prove welcome to many a reader who does not know one plant from another. Mrs. Gray has made these volumes of great interest to all botanists by her judicious choice of letters written at critical periods or on most timely subjects, but she has done well not to overload the work by matters too technical. Annotations in footnotes supply all needed explanations.

The letters written during the civil war

show how deeply this assiduous student was concerned as to the issue of the struggle. He seems to have seen early that the war would result in the destruction of slavery and in a new South, and he cannot conceal his joy that the South which he loved so well, and where he had passed so many happy days in exploration, had thrown off its burden of slavery.

On page 117 of the first volume is an account of a visit in 1839 to the College of Surgeons, London, to see Prof. Owen. "We there met Mr. Darwin, the naturalist who accompanied Capt. King in the *Beagle*." This was Gray's first personal acquaintance with Charles Darwin. It is well known to our readers that his hearty interest in Mr. Darwin's speculations led, shortly after the publication of the 'Origin of Species,' to the closest intimacy between these naturalists. It is also widely known that Dr. Gray's attitude towards Darwinism conciliated many persons who were concerned chiefly for the effect which the hypothesis might have on religious thought. From first to last, Dr. Gray saw nothing in Darwinism, as he understood it, which was inconsistent with his religious belief. In none of these letters are Dr. Gray's religious views brought obtrusively forward, but enough is stated to give in his own language an expression of his belief.

Throughout the volumes, one comes suddenly upon gleams of humor and sharp critical points, but there is no suggestion of malice or cynicism; there is no trace of petulance or jealousy. That Dr. Gray was at times wholesomely impatient is clear. Many a touch in the letters and in the notes by Mrs. Gray will bring the great botanist very near to the readers of these volumes—the fondness for his pets; his dismay at certain college duties; and his deep interest in activities lying far from his own field of labor. But there is a pathetic side, of which we catch glimpses, which brings him nearer still—the crushing weight of trivial questions, all of which he answered conscientiously with his own hand; anxieties about the preservation and care of the noble collections which he had brought together; the discouraging magnitude of the ever-growing task before him, rendered almost hopeless by the scanty means at his disposal, when large means were needed most for largest ends. We must close this notice by an extract from a letter written to Mrs. Gray by Dean Church, after Dr. Gray's death. It is printed immediately after the last letter written by Dr. Gray to Dean Church, who was for many years a cherished correspondent: "The sweetness and charity which we remember so well in living converse is always on the lookout for some pleasant feature in the people of whom he writes, and to give kindliness and equity to his judgment."

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*The Life and Writings of Jared Sparks:* Comprising Selections from his Journals and Correspondence. By Herbert B. Adams. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

THE life of Jared Sparks deserved to be told, but it is a pity that the telling of it has not fallen to a biographer who holds a different idea of what biography should be from that held by Prof. Adams. He believes in the method of compilation, in "letting his subject speak for himself." This is all well enough when the subject is a lively or original letter-writer; but Sparks was neither. His letters are singularly devoid of ease, directness, and interest. Though he saw, during the course of fifty very busy years, the most eminent men in American public and literary life, and many of the politicians and writers of England and France, his correspondence and journals, so far as Prof. Adams quotes from them, noticeably lack those personal pictures, those salient traits, which make the illustrious dead seem alive again. To Sparks, Jefferson and Madison and Lafayette appear to have been merely the possessors of documents which he wished to copy and publish; that they were historic personages in the flesh, notable then and there as such, was a minor consideration to him, or, at any rate, he had no power of delineating them. Had plain Jones and Smith possessed the coveted manuscripts, their individuality could not have been a matter of more indifference to him. If we misjudge him in this respect, let the blame fall on his biographer, who has shown us only this side of Sparks's life. Evidently the correspondence of a collector of historical material wanting in all the qualities which make letters entertaining, should have been sparingly quoted. The fact that on a given day Sparks wrote three or four foolscap pages to ask some one to lend him a package of Washington's letters, may well enough be recorded in his biography, but to fill the better part of two thick octavo volumes with such epistles is to tie a millstone to them.

This result is hardly to be avoided when a biographer adopts the method which Prof. Adams has chosen. The mere heaping together of documents, though it lightens the author's task to a minimum, does not, cannot, produce a satisfactory historical work. We have an old-fashioned prejudice that the mind, and not a shovel, should be the historian's chief instrument. The mind should have judgment, a sense of proportion and fitness, which it would be idle to look for in a poor inanimate shovel. The biographer, endowed with such a mind, should determine how he can best represent the person whose life he has undertaken to write; what attitude is the most characteristic, what light the most favorable for a truthful, vivid portrait. Assuming that the biographer possesses this indispensable equipment and uses this method, there is still another quality without which his work cannot hope to endure. What that quality is we may learn from the following advice given by Alexander H. Everett to Sparks in 1826, when the latter proposed to write a history of the American Revolution. The proposed history, says Everett, "furnishes a glorious subject. As respects the probability of success, the great point is *style*. Precision and accuracy in dates and facts, correct views of morals and politics, are taken for granted, but contribute very little to the popularity of the work. A history would have no value without them, but even with them will have no success unless the author narrate his events and state his reflections in such a way as to please the taste and ear" (i., 288). Prof. Adams will probably deem it a compliment when we say with regret that we have failed to discover any trace of style in these volumes; because he more than once speaks scornfully of historians who write narratives instead of stating facts.

Having thus briefly indicated the general grounds for pronouncing this work unsatisfactory, it remains for us to remind the present generation of some of the points in Jared Sparks's career which deserve to be commemorated in a biography of proper size. In the first place, his early life was that of the typical scholarly New Englander at the beginning of this century. A poor boy, with a strong love of study, he worked his way from his village home to the academy at Exeter; thence he went to Harvard and partly supported himself by teaching school in vacation; then, like Everett and others, he entered the ministry, which was still the chosen profession of earnest young men with a leaning towards literature. He felt the full exhilarating influence of Unitarianism, and went to Baltimore as the apostle of liberalism in religion. Gradually, however, his talent for historical work preponderated, and this, combined with ill-health, led him to resign the ministry and assume the editorship of the *North American Review*. His services to American letters in that position can hardly be overestimated. He attracted to the *Review* contributors of recognized ability, and still more those whose ability first had a chance to display itself through that medium, and thus he made the *Review* not only the representative periodical in America, but the exponent before European readers of the best American thought of the time. His editorial duties fixed his attention on American historical subjects, and finally he resolved to fit himself to become the historian of the Revolution. His researches in this field opened to him vast quantities of documentary material which had not only not been previously used, but not even properly arranged and indexed. He conceived the difficult project of printing Washington's correspondence and official papers, and to accomplish this he visited all the archives in this country, went to London and Paris to consult the state papers there, and persisted during ten years, with infinite patience, until his work was completed. In similar fashion, he edited the correspondence of Franklin and of Gouverneur Morris, and drew from obscurity the manuscript material of many other of the less conspicuous actors in our Revolutionary and constitutional history.

This we take to be the distinctive achievement of his life. He was a pioneer in the almost unbroken jungle of American historical data, as surely as Otfried Müller was in the excavations in Greece, or Layard in Mesopotamia. By his unwearied perseverance he not only brought to light many documents of prime importance, but also inspired other explorers with similar zeal, which has resulted in the collection and preservation of innumerable manuscripts that might otherwise have been lost. For this he merits the gratitude of posterity, irrespective of the fact that his own historical writings are now but little read, or that his editions of Washington and Franklin are superseded by others more nearly complete. Nor should it be forgotten that he gave an immense impetus to the study of the first half century of our national life, and so helped to bring about the recognition that for Americans their own history is most interesting. Add to these claims to remembrance the fact that, for ten years as professor of history at Harvard, Jared Sparks exerted a wide influence on the methods of historical teaching in American colleges, and that he was for four years president of Harvard; remember, also, that he was a man of strong personal character, unflinching in his discharge of duties, magnanimous to his literary critics, alive to many interests beyond the somewhat narrow pale of his editorial work, and it will be seen that he furnishes a fair subject for a skilful biographer.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, T. B. Mercedes: A Drama in Two Acts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Ashmore, Prof. S. G. The Adelphoe of Terence. Macmillan. $1.
Bamford, Rev. J. M. The Cracked Hearthstone. Hunt & Eaton. 70 cents.
Benson, E. F. Dodo: A Detail of the Day. Appletons.
Benson, W. A. S. Elements of Handicraft and Design. Macmillan. $1.60.
Betham-Edwards, M. The Curb of Honor. Anglo-American Publishing Co. $1.

Bjornson, Björnstjerne. Pastor Sang. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Black, William. The Handsome Humes. Harpers. $1.50.
Blok, P. J. Geschiedenis van het Nederlandsche Volk. Vol. II. Groningen: J. B. Wolters.
Bowley, A. L. A Short Account of England's Foreign Trade. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Brown, W. H. Business Correspondence and Manual of Dictation. Excelsior Publishing Co.
Budge, E. A. W. The Mummy: Chapters on Egyptian Funereal Archæology. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.25.
Carnegie, Andrew. Triumphant Democracy. Revised ed. Scribners. $3.
Chamberlayne, C. T. Best on Evidence. New International ed. London: Sweet & Maxwell; Boston: Boston Book Co. $6.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Witch Winnie in Paris. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Six Boys. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Chandler, H. P. The Lover's Year Book of Poetry, Married-Life, and Child-Life. 2 vols. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
*Chatterbox*, 1893. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Chittenden, L. E. An Unknown Heroine. Richmond, Croscup & Co.
Cholmondeley, Mary. Diana Tempest. Appletons.
Clark, John. Manual of Linguistics. Edinburgh: James Thin: New York: Putnams. $2.
Clement, Clara E. The Queen of the Adriatic; or, Venice, Mediæval and Modern. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $3.
Cleveland, L. Lotus-Life, and Other Poems. Putnams. $1.25.
Cobban, J. M. The Burden of Isabel. Harpers. 50 cents.
Colson, F. H. Cicero Pro Milone. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Connelly, J. H. Hetty, or the Old Grudge. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Darlington, W. M. Christopher Gist's Journals: Pittsburgh: J. R. Weldin & Co.
Deland, Mrs. Margaret. The Old Garden, and Other Verses. Decorated by Walter Crane. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Dumas, Alexandre. Olymphe de Clèves, 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.
Ellis, E. S. The River and Wilderness Series. 3 vols. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co. $3.75.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. Cathedrals of England. Whittaker. $1.50.
Favorite Dishes: A Columbian Autograph Souvenir Cookery Book. Chicago: C. V. Shuman. $1.50.
Fawcett, E. D. Hartmann the Anarchist: or, The Doom of the Great City. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Fernald, F. A. Index to the *Popular Science Monthly* from 1872 to 1892. Appletons.
Field-Marshal von Moltke as a Correspondent. Harpers. $2.50.
Foster, Prof. M. A Text-Book of Physiology. 6th ed. Part I. Macmillan. $2.60.
Francis, Edward. Wagner: A Short Account of his Life and Works. [Petite Library.] Brentanos. 50 cents.
Furneaux, W. The Out-Door World; or, The Young Collector's Handbook. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Gasper, Howland. The Complete Sportsman. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. $2.
Gordon, E. A. "Clear Round!" or, Seeds of Stories from Other Countries. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners.
Gore, Prof. J. H. Auerbach's Brigitta. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 cents.
Gorton, Dr. D. A. The Monism of Man. Putnams. $2.
Grand, Sarah. Ideala. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Gray, Jane L. Letters of Asa Gray. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Guerber, H. A. Myths of Greece and Rome. American Book Co. $1.50.
Haggard, H. R. Montezuma's Daughter. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Halliburton, W. D. The Essentials of Chemical Physiology. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Hamilton, P. J. Rambles in Historic Lands. Putnams. $1.75.
Harper, Prof. W. R., and Castle, Prof. C. F. An Inductive Greek Primer. American Book Co. $1.25.
Harrison, Wilmot. Memorable Paris Houses. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.25.
Higginson, T. W., and M. T. Such as They Are: Poems. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Hill, Georgiana. A History of English Dress. 2 vols. Putnams. $7.50.
Jenks, Tudor. The *Century* World's Fair Book for Boys and Girls. Century Co.
Jerome, J. K. Novel Notes. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Johnson, C. N. The Hermit of the Nonquon. Rand, McNally & Co. 75 cents.
Karpeles, Gustav. Heinrich Heine's Life Told in his Own Words. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
Legge, A. O. Sunny Manitoba. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $2.50.
Leland, C. G. Memoirs. Appletons.
McCabe, Lida R. The American Girl at College. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Meyer, Rev. F. B. Joshua and the Land of Promise. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Nansen, Fridtjof. Eskimo Life. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
O'Hagan, Thomas. In Dreamland, and Other Poems. Toronto: Williamson Book Co.
Ortoli, Frédéric. Evening Tales. Done into English by Joel Chandler Harris. Scribners. $1.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. The Court of Louis XV. Scribners. $1.25.
Salisbury, W. A. Portugal and its People: A History. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.50.
Sargent, C. S. The Silva of North America. Vol. V. Hamamelidæ-Sapotaceæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Schenk, Prof. S. L. Manual of Bacteriology for Practitioners and Students. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Schreiner, Olive. Dream Life and Real Life. Boston: Roberts Bros. 60 cents.
Scott, Prof. F. N., and Denny, Prof. J. V. Paragraph-Writing. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 80 cents.
Seelye, Mrs. Elizabeth E. The Story of Washington. Appletons. $1.75.
Selected Proofs from the *Century Magazine* and *St. Nicholas*. Century Co.
Select Thoughts on God and Man from Robertson of Brighton. Hunt & Eaton. $1.
Selous, F. C. Travel and Adventure in Southeast Africa. London: Rowland Ward & Co.; New York: Scribners. $10.
Shedd, Rev. W. G. T. Orthodoxy and Heterodoxy: A Miscellany. Scribners. $2.
Shepp's World's Fair Photographed. Philadelphia: Globe Bible Publishing Co. $1.
Sterling, A. H. Torch-Bearers of History. T. Nelson & Sons. 80 cents.
Stredder, Eleanor. Doing and Daring: A New Zealand Story. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.25.
The Bookworm: An Illustrated Treasury of Old-Time Literature. London: Elliot Stock; New York: Armstrong. $3.
Weitzmann, C. F. A History of Pianoforte-Playing and Pianoforte-Literature. G. Schirmer.
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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 23, 1893.

## The Week.

THERE can hardly be a doubt that the dethronement of the Queen of the Sandwich Islands was, as an enterprise, first conceived by Mr. Blaine, whose history as a diplomatist we need not recall. His selection of Mr. Stevens, the editor of the *Kennebec Journal*, his own old paper, to go to Hawaii as United States minister was, for his purpose, a wise step. That Stevens had fully caught his idea was shown as early as February and March, 1892, in his correspondence with the Department. In his oration at Honolulu, July 4, he politely spoke of the country to which he was accredited as "a monarch-cursed country." The "tip" as to what was going to happen was distributed among various persons, including the editor of the New York *Tribune*. This gentleman was able to say in November, 1892, that "events" were occurring in Hawaii which were likely to turn the thoughts of our people towards annexation. In that same month, as appears by the correspondence, Stevens was clamoring for annexation. Another recipient of the "tip" was Secretary Tracy. When Admiral Skerrett called on him before going to Hawaii in December, he asked him what was the policy of the Government about annexation, reminding him that it had formerly been opposed to it. The secretary calmly informed him that "the wishes of the Government had changed. They will be glad to annex Hawaii." This gentleman's passion for international complications seems to have been almost as insatiable as Blaine's, and his knowledge of international law about as great.

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President Cleveland did what President Harrison ought to have done, viz., send out a commissioner to ascertain the facts on the spot, and, above all, to hear the Queen's side of the story. His report shows clearly that the revolution was a "put-up job" of Stevens's, probably to some degree a commercial speculation, as nearly all Blaine's diplomatic enterprises were. Every stage in it reflected the highest discredit on the Government and public service of the United States, and we cannot be too thankful that the Cleveland Administration came in in time to protect and reëstablish our character for fair dealing with all the nations of the earth. We can recall nothing in modern history quite so mean and tricky as this transaction. Other nations, particularly Great Britain, have seized and annexed foreign possessions with a high hand, boldly declaring their intention to take and keep them for their own use and behoof. But we cannot recall a single case before Stevens's in which a foreign minister has been the centre of a conspiracy for the overthrow of the government to which he was accredited, and has set up a sham government in its place, with the aid of his own navy, under false and fraudulent pretences. Mr. Blount's report ought to be issued far and wide in a pamphlet form. It is a striking lesson in morals.

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There is a great deal of squirming over Secretary Gresham's declaration that a majority of the men who set up the Hawaiian Provisional Government were "aliens." Were they not all voters under the Constitution of 1887? it is indignantly asked. They were, but were aliens nevertheless, taking advantage of a clause giving them the right to vote in Hawaii without renouncing their allegiance to their own country. Indeed, everybody knows that the great argument for annexation was the duty of the American Government to protect "American citizens" in Hawaii. There they were, just as much entitled to the protection of the flag in Honolulu as in San Francisco, and had our country sunk so low that it would not care for its own citizens? But now, when Mr. Gresham has drawn the simple inference that citizens of the United States are aliens in Hawaii, there is a great rush on their part to say how completely their affections and civic interests are bound up with the Islands. The revolutionists themselves ought to know what they are, and they have all along represented themselves as the party of the foreigners versus the natives. If any one doubts this, let him read the annexationist *Hawaiian Gazette* of October 24. In an article on "The Government's Backing," it made the thing clear as noonday, as the following citations will show:

> "The great mass-meeting which preceded the overthrow of the monarchy represented the *foreigners* of Honolulu. . . . As to the present intent and purpose of the *foreigners* of Hawaii, there is no doubt. They did not go into the annexation movement with any idea of ever taking a hand from the plough. . . . The movement is backed by Englishmen, Germans, Portuguese, and Americans, whose investments and homes are here. . . . So long as the provisional government carries out the trust placed in its hands, it will receive the political and moral support of the *foreigners* of Hawaii. . . . On the question of annexation the *foreigners* are virtually a unit."

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Senator "Bill" Chandler gives the President a dreadful scoring for his "provinciality" and inability to grasp the "true continental policy of the United States." For the full realization of that policy, "Bill" says, we shall have to wait for the return of the Republican party to power, but meanwhile he kindly explains what it is and involves. He imagines a wicked doubter rising to ask: "If we begin with Hawaii, where shall we stop?" and then puts him down severely with the following "easy reply": "We shall stop on the west with the Sandwich Islands and on the east at the West Indies." The wicked doubter still wants to know what and how many of the West Indies, and gets the crushing answer, "A reasonable and sufficient number." After that, all is clear sailing for "Bill," and he draws a beautiful picture of what will come when the Republicans are restored. But, after all, he leaves a horrid uncertainty as to what kind of Republicans he means, as he pauses to give a sharp rebuke to the Arthur Administration for cutting short Mr. Blaine's performances in Chili and Peru. It might easily be that Republican secretaries of state like Mr. Evarts and Mr. Frelinghuysen would turn out fully as provincial as Mr. Gresham. "Bill" does not say so, but it is evident that he is the only man of really continental proportions left in the party.

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President Cleveland should lose no time in calling off the Commissioner of Indian Affairs from his meddling with the civil-service regulations governing appointments in that department. It was a great step in advance when even a part of the offices in the Indian service were put under the civil-service law, and, instead of asking for exemptions from the working of that law, the demand ought to be that it should be greatly extended. The Indian service has for years been the dumping-ground for all sorts of political refuse, and as it was only the Indians who had to suffer directly from it, the abuse was one of the most difficult to remedy in the whole public service. This is no time to let go a particle of the progress that has been made. Commissioner Browning's assertion that the civil-service examinations do not yield him candidates of "business capacity" has the true spoilsman's flavor about it, and is thoroughly disposed of by Mr. Herbert Welsh in a recent letter. The President has it in his power to put an immediate end to the whole disreputable business, and he cannot set about it too quickly.

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Senator Teller appears to have fully recovered from his terrible fit of the dumps. At a reception which was given him in Denver last week, he said that, while the State "will suffer somewhat by the repeal of the silver-purchase act, yet Colorado, thank God, is not destroyed, nor, even, is it in any way seriously injured." He characterized it as "a magnificent State," possessing "the natural wealth

that two States have," and, besides, "what is more important, a population of intelligent, aggressive, enterprising people." As for the future, he advised the people to address themselves to the task of making good the losses they had sustained by adverse legislation, and continued: "If we cannot mine silver at a profit—as I trust we may be able, to some extent, to do still—we can mine iron, coal, and gold, and we will have prosperity and riches; and we will maintain the intelligence and culture with which we have commenced in this State." This is a thousand times more sensible than making speeches days long, "with tears in his voice," to show that Colorado would be utterly ruined if the repeal bill were passed.

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The interest in the promised investigations by a committee of the new Legislature is increasing steadily, and may be said truthfully to be commanding absorbing attention in all political circles, especially those intimately or otherwise connected with Tammany Hall. It must be apparent to the Republicans that, the higher the character of the committee, the greater the possibility of securing revelations which will be of value both to the cause of good government and to the welfare of the Republican party. The selection of a committee which was even suspected of being dominated by "Tom" Platt would be fatal to the success of the inquiry. All Platt's intimates or favorites in the past should be kept off the committee, and should be permitted to have no part in its work. What is wanted is a fearless and honest investigation, and if such a one can be authorized, we shall see a flood of voluntary evidence appear before it that will cause a "yawning of penitentiary doors" for more than one eminent public character who is at present rolling in stolen riches obtained by blackmail and other forbidden practices.

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The differences between city and country ways have been illustrated in a curious manner by an experiment of the Post-office Department. Under the last Administration about fifty villages and small towns, ranging in population from 800 to 4,000 inhabitants, were picked out for a trial of the system of distributing mail matter by carrier, as in large cities. At first general satisfaction was manifested, and the receipts of many of the offices for a while showed an increase, indicating that the convenience stimulated correspondence; but, as the novelty wore off, the residents very generally tired of the change, and returned to the old practice of going to the office themselves for their mail. A majority of the people would apparently rather have their letters lie in the office until they call for them, and thus have an excuse for frequent visits to the centre of local activity, than have their mail delivered every day at their houses. The carrier in such places is really a foe to social activity, as "going to the post-office" has always been a recognized means of mixing with men, and its occasional inconvenience is preferable to the loss of what is often only a pretext for making a break in the monotony of a retired life. In view of the evidence that there is not "a long-felt want" to be met by this system of free delivery in small communities, and of the fact that its general adoption would involve an annual expense of at least $10,000,000, the first assistant postmaster-general wisely advises a suspension of the experiment.

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A graphic picture of football as a game for young gentlemen is drawn in a despatch from Philadelphia which gives an interview with the captain of the University of Pennsylvania team as to stories which have been current accusing them of "roughness" and "brutality." He declared that there was no foundation for the charges, and when asked about the treatment his own men had received, said that he had no complaint to make. To be sure, he himself had a bad contusion of the eye from a blow of an opponent's fist; every one on the field saw another opponent strike a Pennsylvania man with no provocation from the latter except that he had made a "touchdown," and jump with his knees on the neck of still another after the latter had called "down"; and in another case a member of one team "repeatedly struck a member of the other about the face and head, and pulled off deliberately the protecting bandage from his swollen and inflamed ear, although doing so caused agonizing pain." But the young gentlemen of the Pennsylvania university have "no complaint to make" of such performances, and of course the young gentlemen of the university at New Haven would take the same ground about similar performances by the other team.

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Another young man has lost his life from injuries suffered while playing a game of football. This makes the fourth case reported this autumn—one each in New Jersey, Indiana, Ohio, and Wisconsin. The latest is perhaps the most shocking of all. It occurred during a game between the elevens of the Toledo (O.) High School and the Adrian (Mich.) College, which was played at Adrian on Saturday. A Toledo player, Carew, says the report, "had the ball, and downed to save it. Three Toledo boys dropped to save him, and in an instant the Adrian team was upon them. When the struggle was over, Carew remained motionless upon the ground. The crowd cried, 'Fake!' but it was soon discovered that the young man's neck was dislocated." Upon examination it was found that his body was paralyzed from the chest down, and his spinal column injured, and he died the next morning without having recovered consciousness. Another member of the Toledo team was kicked in the groin, and injured so badly that he could not return to his home. A third player suffered serious injury to his right leg. English newspapers just received mention the death of a football player in West Hartlepool "from the effect of injuries received in a football match, when he was kicked severely in the stomach."

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Last week's extraordinary scandal in the Bank of England's management has happily "blown over," as the expression is, without serious effect on public confidence. The most remarkable, indeed, of all phases of the episode was the fact that the cashier's improper and dishonorable use of the bank's lending facilities, although made public in the very way suited to rouse uneasiness, had absolutely no effect upon the outside stock market. This may be called a proof of perfect confidence in the bank or of great stability in the market; in either case the result is reassuring, especially when it is recalled how vague and comparatively trivial were the rumors which upset prices in London last summer. The incident is certainly new in the Bank of England's history. "I do not know," says Walter Bagehot in his work on Lombard Street, "that its name has ever been connected with a single large and discreditable bad debt; there has never been a suspicion that it was 'worked' for the benefit of any one man or any combination of men." This reputation last week stood the institution in good stead; for though the fair name of its officers has now been in a measure blemished, the suspicion that the governors themselves were concerned in the transaction was instantly dismissed by all intelligent observers.

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The incident has, however, revived one criticism that has often in the past been raised against the bank. The management of this institution is unique. Its directors are continuous in office only during a limited official term; the governor of the bank, who stands responsible for its policy, is chosen in rotation according to seniority of service on the board, and, what to our ideas is still more singular, nobody whose private business is the same as that conducted by the bank is eligible to the director's office. These are three radical defects, according to the principles of modern banking. That the Bank of England's business should, under such a handicap, have been conducted so successfully and

wisely, is explained only by the very great conservatism exercised in the choice of city merchants to its membership. Bagehot himself admits that the bank has been at times a victim of bad policy, and that "at such times the defects of its government have aggravated if not caused its calamities." But to point out the defect is easier than to produce a remedy, and the remedy might be worse than the complaint.

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The defeat of the English ministry on a clause of the parish-councils bill is not serious, because it was agreed at the outset that it should be treated as a "non-contentious measure." In fact, this bill is drawn on the lines of one brought in by the Tories. The proposal was to admit to a vote for the council all women who, if men, would be entitled to vote for members of Parliament—a very wise and indeed almost necessary provision, considering the nature of the affairs with which parish councils are to be called on to deal. There is a general determination on all sides to push the bill through, in order if possible to keep the rural population in the country; the desertion of the villages by the able-bodied men having become a very serious phenomenon. The only active opposition comes from the clergy, whom the bill deprives of a good of deal the authority they formerly exercised in parish affairs, but even their opposition is offered with great caution. There is to-day in England a shrinking from anything like opposition to a democratic movement which ought to make "Bob" Lowe, the great opponent of the bill of 1867, turn in his grave. The explanation of the continued drift of population to the towns, and of the continued growth of the towns, is that the growth of towns is no longer, as in the days before railways and compound marine engines, regulated by the capacity of the country in their immediate neighborhood to feed them. Towns can now be fed from the uttermost ends of the earth. London grows on Chicago beef and Dakotan or Indian wheat, and therefore easily absorbs the English agriculturists who find village life dreary.

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France had her attempt to settle a strike of coal-miners by arbitration ten days before the determination of the English Government to seek to compose the differences between men and masters which have been paralyzing English coal-mining. It was not the French Government, however, that was to do the arbitrating, but the French press. It was an idea of Clémenceau's, who, since his defeat for reëlection to the Chamber, has been sorely put to it to keep himself properly in the public gaze. He took up the cry that it was the duty of the French press to interfere to put an end to the Pas-de-Calais troubles. The press had received the ambassadors of the Czar, it had secured the peace of Europe, why not go ahead and secure the industrial peace of France? What surer or simpler way could there be of bringing workingmen and employers into accord than to have "deux journalistes d'opinions opposées" go and listen to their complaints and deal out justice on the spot? With a deference to the wishes of a brother and a generous recognition of his "scoop" such as it would be hard to parallel in this country, the editors of Paris actually called a meeting on November 4 in furtherance of his suggestion. Nearly every prominent paper was represented, and Clémenceau was about to unfold his plan when a thoughtful editor interposed to observe that he had just received a despatch saying that the Pas-de-Calais strike was ended. Thereupon Clémenceau moved that the meeting adjourn, thus leaving the world in ignorance of the true method of journalistic arbitration. That there is something wonderful in it may be inferred from the fact that the strike was broken as soon as wind of the proposed arbitration reached the scene of strife.

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M. Leroy-Beaulieu has an unpleasant way, when the French are very much excited about something, of bringing them down to the hard facts of the case. He has been performing this office with regard to the recent wonderful "rapprochement" between the French people and the Russian navy, over which the Parisians seem to have gone nearly crazy. There is no religious sympathy between the French and Russians. There are few or no social relations. The French do not travel, and neither do the Russian people. There is no sort of resemblance between their political institutions. In order, therefore, to make the present *entente cordiale* at all lasting, there must be, M. Leroy-Beaulieu thinks, some closeness of commercial relations; but here the facts are very depressing. In 1891 Russia stood seventh in the list of countries exporting to France. She was surpassed by England, Belgium, the United States, Spain, Germany, and British India. In the five years from 1887 to 1891 she stood only in the sixth place. But, perhaps, if she does not export much to France, she imports a great deal from France. Error again, as the French say. In 1891 she stood twenty-fourth in the list of customers for French goods. In that year the 110,000,000 of Russians bought only $2,700,000 worth of French goods! That is, each Russian consumed French products to the value of 12 centimes, the centime being the hundredth part of a franc. In the five years from 1887 to 1891, the French exports to Russia once reached $3,700,000, but on the other hand in 1889 they fell to $2,000,000. Portugal, Greece, Denmark, the United States, Brazil, the Argentine Republic, Colombia, Mexico, Uruguay, and Chili all buy more French goods than Russia. It is true that a new commercial convention has been adopted between the two countries, by which some reductions in the duties were made on both sides, but not enough to encourage the hope of any great increase of commercial relations. What, then, is to keep up the present furious affection? The French papers are now raging fiercely against England, but in 1891 England bought $200,000,000 worth of French goods, to say nothing of the sums spent by English residents and travellers. Little Belgium bought $100,000,000 worth in the same year; Germany $70,000,000 worth; and poor Italy, whom they are loading with abuse, also $25,000,000 worth.

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It is evident that the measures taken for the suppression of the slave trade have brought about a crisis in Central Africa, and it is possible that we are on the eve of a general war between the Arabs and the Europeans. According to an exceptionally well-informed writer in the London *Times*, the immediate cause of the hostility which now prevails is the mysterious expedition of Mr. Van den Kerckhoven. Notwithstanding the secrecy maintained in regard to its movements, there can be little reason to doubt that, during the passage from the Congo to the Nile, several Arab settlements of the slave-hunters were attacked, numbers of the slavers were killed, and their property in slaves and ivory confiscated. From this resulted the hitherto unexplained massacre of M. Hodister and his companions on the upper Congo, and, in all probability, though the *Times* is silent on this point, the murder of Emin Pasha, who seems to have fallen into the hands of the Arabs when they were smarting under the injuries inflicted by Mr. Van den Kerckhoven. As soon as a sufficient force could be collected, Capt. Dhanis of the Free State routed an Arab army on a tributary of the Congo, and then, after a siege of six weeks, captured the important town of Nyangwe on the Lualaba on the 4th of March. At the end of April he had taken Kasongo, the station of Tippu Tib. It remains to be seen whether the Arab traders, many of whom are men of great intelligence, will band together for the purpose of driving the Europeans from Central Africa. This depends largely upon the action of Rumaliza, the Arab chief of Ujiji, and the most powerful in the country, with the possible exception of Tippu Tib. It is to be hoped that he will coöperate with the whites in developing a legitimate commerce. This is actually being done on Lake Nyassa, where Mr. Crawshay, a British official, is fighting the slave-traders at the north end of the lake with men lent him by the great Arab Sultan, Jumbe, on the west coast.

### *GENERAL HARRISON ON HAWAII.*

GREAT difficulty has been experienced in getting Gen. Harrison to talk about the Hawaiian matter, but a correspondent of the Cincinnati *Enquirer* did succeed in extracting one or two views from him on (we regret to say) Sunday afternoon (November 12). What he said was this :

"Then, speaking slowly and carefully, the General said: 'It has always seemed to me a grave misfortune that our diplomacy and the plan of our foreign relations should fluctuate with the change of parties and of administrations. Continuity is absolutely essential to success in that respect. What we need is continuity. We have had it with regard to Hawaii in the past. It is no new doctrine that the interests of the United States in those islands should be most jealously preserved. I remember myself, when I was in the Senate, taking that position in connection with Senator Edmunds and with many others. England is very apt in seizing strategic positions and "points of observation." ' This last phrase he dwelt upon several times. 'She holds the St. Lawrence, has the Azores, watches the Caribbean Sea from the Bermudas, and has one foot upon the Isthmus.' Then, looking toward our Pacific coast, he called attention to her hold upon the mouth of Puget Sound and her great navy-yard at Esquimault; spoke of her recent movement upon the Florida Islands, and then solemnly and impressively added: 'And if she gets Hawaii also, as another "point of observation," it seems to me that we shall be pretty much surrounded.' "

There are two points to be considered here. One is the absence of "continuity." Gen. Harrison prepared for this himself by his failure to collect the facts before acting, and above all by his failure to hear the Queen. His decision in the case, if he were a judge, would be set aside by any court of last resort for these two capital defects. He acted without evidence, and he heard only one party to the cause. We believe we are within the truth when we say that Queen Liliuokalani was the first monarch who was ever deposed by superior foreign force without being heard in her own defence, and America is the last country in the world to begin the practice.

Continuity in foreign policy is a good thing if it be continuity in justice and fair dealing, but continuity in crime and outrage, Gen. Harrison will himself admit, would be a mistake. If he will ask himself some Sunday afternoon why he was in such a hurry to get the treaty of annexation before the Senate, his conscience, we are sure, will throw much light on this very weighty problem. Moreover, we deny *in toto* that there has been any want of continuity in American foreign policy. On the contrary, we think it has been, from the foundation of the government down to 1880, the most continuous and consistent foreign policy in the world, partly owing to the strong traditions of good faith and good feeling left by the founders of the government, and partly to the fact that we had no conquests and no colonies. If we strike from our history the slaveholders' treatment of Mexico and Hayti, there was little in our foreign relations of which we could not be proud until Mr. Blaine appeared on the scene as foreign minister, and got up a rumpus with England about the Isthmus canal. Continuity was broken in that affair by the exposure of his ignorance by Lord Granville; and, soon after, his dealings with Chili were found by President Arthur to be marked by so much bad law and bad faith that they had in common decency to be cut short, and his envoy brought home. This Hawaiian trouble was also of Blaine's brewing. He undoubtedly knew the "revolution" was coming, and sent out his successor in the chair of the *Kennebec Journal* to hasten it, and his successor in the Department of State has again to break his continuity.

As regards England, we do not hesitate to say that it is to her failure to protest against President Harrison's doings that we owe President Cleveland's ability to undo them. We feel morally certain that such a protest was counted on by the conspirators as the main element in the success of their plans. Had it come simultaneously with the "revolution," we greatly fear the popular excitement would have been so great that the voice of reason and justice would have been drowned. The proof of this is that the very first thing done by their organs in the press was to announce despatches from Lord Rosebery and Sir Julian Pauncefote, asking us to withdraw from the Islands. Some of them kept the press ready for the "protest" for days, and, when nothing came, began to load these diplomatists with abuse. In fact, some of them would have justified President Harrison in sending Pauncefote home on account of his guilty silence. But the truth is that England cares nothing about the Islands, has never thought of protesting, and that the expectation of a protest causes unseemly mirth both in the embassy at Washington and in the Foreign Office in London.

Gen. Harrison's sea strategy is no better than his diplomacy. The reason why Great Britain has so many islands and foreign stations is that she has a great navy. As soon as she ceases to have a great navy, she will lose her islands and foreign stations, and lose her access to the Suez Canal. An island is of no use to any power which cannot approach it in time of war. A coaling station is of no use if the enemy will not let you coal at it. The whole apparatus of foreign islands, stations, and garrisons, in which England rejoices, is a concomitant of the mastery of the sea. Without the mastery of the sea it is of no use whatever. Whenever we have a navy large enough to destroy the navies of two other powers, we can have all the islands we want. Until then we are perfectly happy without any island at all. The notion that some other power can "surround" us 2,000 miles away over the ocean is one against which it is hardly worth while to argue. If there be any foundation for it, our case is hopeless, for England, France, and Portugal and Spain "surround" us only 2,800 miles away, and Japan is looming up dangerously on our right flank.

The history of this Hawaiian affair offers a good illustration of the danger to us of colonies and dependencies under our present form of government and with our present class of public men. Rome fell under the weight of her provinces, with a constitution ten times better fitted than ours for the management of distant conquests, for the Senate was filled with the ablest and most experienced men of the empire. But the Senate was gradually broken down by the intrigues and bribes of the generals and proconsuls. We, at the very outset of our career of annexation, in the very first case of it, start an intrigue in our own State Department for the overthrow of a friendly power, allow our minister on the spot to land troops to assist in what was really his personal conquest, annex the Islands without hearing the ruler in her own defence, and denounce everybody who objects to these proceedings as an enemy of the United States. If these things are done in the green tree, what would be done in the dry? Suppose we had half-a-dozen islands like Hawaii, and half-a-dozen States like Cuba, San Domingo, Costa Rica, and Guatemala to administer, with our Senators intriguing for proconsulships and the members of the House casting anchors to windward and seeking out channels of usefulness: how long would the government of Washington and Jefferson and Lincoln last?

### *TWO REMAINING POINTS.*

THE semi-humorous proposal of the *Tribune* that, if President Cleveland is undoing a wrong in Hawaii, he ought to undo another by restoring their lands to the North American Indians, shows that the discussion of the Hawaiian affair is practically closed. But there are two points on which there is still some trouble in the minds of some of those who approve of the President's policy, and about them we propose to say a few words. One is the fact that so much time has elapsed since the Queen's dethronement without any protest or resistance on her part, and the provisional government is so firmly established that it is not worth while, or not expedient, if worth while, to set her government up again. The answer to this is, that the existing government is in fact and in form "provisional"—that is, something of a temporary or interregnal character. It calls itself provisional, and formally announced in the beginning that it was to last only until Hawaii was annexed by treaty to the United States—a con-

summation of which the conspirators then felt quite sure. Hawaii has not been annexed by treaty and is not going to be. Consequently the present government continues to be "provisional," or, as Webster says, a "partial or temporary arrangement." Consequently, again, the Queen's rights would not have been extinguished even if President Cleveland had taken no action looking to her restoration. But he has taken such action. His withdrawal of the treaty from the Senate as soon as he got into power, and the despatch of Mr. Blount to Hawaii, and the recall of Mr. Stevens, would of themselves be a sufficient warrant to the Queen to wait patiently for the result. As long as the President had announced no decision and an inquiry was pending, the case was not closed.

The other point, to which we see Mr. Kasson has lent some semblance of authority, is that we have no right or authority to set up the Queen's government again; that all that we can or ought to do is to withdraw our troops and other representatives of our power, and let the Queen fight it out as best she can with the provisional government. To this some add that in any case we ought not to restore a monarchy, monarchy being especially objectionable to a large class of Americans.

Those who make these objections seem to forget what international law is. International law, according to all the books and according to the practice of all civilized nations, is simply the application of the Golden Rule to international relations—that is, the rule of doing to others as you would they should do to you. When Woolsey asks, "What are the rational and moral grounds of international law?" and answers, "They are the same in general with those on which the rights and obligations of individuals in the state, and of the single state towards the individual of which it consists, repose" (p. 14), he covers the whole ground. We grant that had the members of the provisional government risen against the Queen of their own motion, and in reliance on their own powers of either combat or persuasion, and succeeded in overthrowing her, it might well be argued that, in spite of our quasi-protectorate over the Islands, we must let her get back her throne in her own way. But the cardinal fact in the case is, that the conspiracy for her overthrow was in part, at least, organized by our minister, and was successfully carried out by the use of our ships and troops as a menacing force, and the new government was organized under our flag. This plainly fixes our responsibility and furnishes the rule of our conduct.

If an individual be wrongfully ejected from an estate, and the courts decree that his ejectment was wrongful, he is not left to get back again as best he can. The sheriff puts him back. He turns out the wrongdoer and puts the rightful owner again in possession. To expel a sovereign from his dominions and hand over all the instruments of government, the army, the navy, and the treasury, to his enemies, and then, after repenting of the wrong we had done him, bid him recover his throne as best he could, would be an extraordinary proceeding. Yet this is almost what we have done here—for we must admit that Stevens's unlawful use of the navy and President Harrison's stealthy treaty with the trespassers were the acts of our Government. International law, like municipal law, requires that when you have done a man a wrong, you must either restore him to the situation which you destroyed, or, if you cannot do that, pay him damages.

The plea that we ought not to restore a monarch is really a plea for taking possession of the island as United States territory. As a plea for the present "provisional government"—a small oligarchy composed almost entirely of foreigners—it is worthless. Such a government is as un-American, as much opposed to the spirit and purpose of our institutions, as any monarchy can possibly be, and one far more dangerous to our polity. Monarchy is everywhere a waning force, but little oligarchies of plutocrats and speculators seem to be the evil against which the world will, during the next hundred years at least, have most frequently to contend. Moreover, we are in this matter, as we understand it, acting under the rules of international law, and international law recognizes monarchy, whatever we may think of it, as a fit and proper form of government, and the only one adapted to peoples in certain stages of political growth. It would probably be as unfair to impose a republic on the Hawaiians as a monarchy on the French. We recognize monarchies in Europe without hesitation, and even pay royal honors to the members of royal families who visit us, and it would, therefore, never do, when we upset a monarchy, to refuse to set it on its legs again because monarchy was odious to us.

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### *THE CONSPIRACY PROVED.*

THE documentary evidence contained in Mr. Blount's report justifies to the full Secretary Gresham's assertion that the overthrow of the Hawaiian Government last January was the result of a conspiracy in which the American minister was a leading figure. Mr. Blount's testimony cannot be dismissed as "perjured affidavits" obtained from the "slums of Honolulu" at $2 each, as Mr. Stevens hastened to say it would be, in advance of publication. It consists largely of the evidence given by members of the committee of safety and of the provisional government, and by officers of the navy and other eye-witnesses whose character is vouched for by the annexationists themselves. Many of these men were unwilling witnesses, but their admissions put it beyond any question that the revolution would not even have been attempted but for the connivance of Mr. Stevens.

To go back to events prior to the actual landing of the troops, we find the American minister unwarrantably interfering in a matter of purely domestic legislation on Saturday, January 14. Informed that the Queen had signed the lottery bill, in the presence of two of her cabinet and other witnesses, he exclaimed again and again: "Gentlemen, this is a direct attack on the United States Government." What possible right he had to say this, or what possible object he had, except to show that he was prepared to pledge the aid of his Government to the revolutionary movement already talked of, but not yet on foot, does not appear. That he had, in fact, secretly assured the revolutionary agitators, in advance of any overt action on their part, that he would support them, is proved by the testimony of a member of the Queen's cabinet, who made oath that

> "On Sunday morning, January 15, Mr. Thurston, the head of the revolutionary party, called upon my colleagues, Ministers Colburn and Patterson, and asked them to join with himself and others in deposing the Queen, assuring them that such movement would be perfectly safe, as Minister Stevens had promised them the support of the United States forces, and also that he would recognize and support a provisional government as soon as such a step could be taken."

The American minister's conduct on Monday, January 16, was in perfect keeping with this. According to the testimony of Mr. Wunderberg, whom the annexationist papers declare to be a man "of strict integrity and high reputation," the committee of safety, of which Mr. Wunderberg was himself a member, tried to get Stevens to delay landing the *Boston's* troops until their plans were in better shape. They sent a delegation to him, headed by Mr. Thurston, for that purpose, but it soon brought back Stevens's Napoleonic answer: "Gentlemen, the troops of the *Boston* will land at five o'clock this afternoon, whether you are ready or not." The same evening there was a meeting of the committee to talk over plans for a provisional government, and it was thought necessary to have a "commander-in-chief of the forces." The position was offered to Mr. Soper, an American citizen, but he declined it until assured that he would be supported by the troops of the *Boston*.

> "Mr. Soper still doubted, so a couple of the committee escorted him over to the legation, which, by the way, was in the adjoining premises, and the three came back after a time, reporting that Mr. Stevens had given them full assurance that any proclamation of the Government put forward at the Government Building, or any other building at Honolulu, for that matter, would receive his immediate recognition and the support of the forces of the *Boston*."

The next day the provisional government was proclaimed, and how it was

done is well described by one of the members of it, Mr. S. A. Damon. "About eighteen men" started out from "Smith's office" to do the work. They divided into two parties on the way to the Government House, for fear of "being interfered with by the police." Then they read their proclamation, in the presence of "the porters and officials employed there," and began to look about for the American troops. Mr. Damon says he was "perfectly nonplussed" because the troops were not forthcoming according to promise. The Government House, the station-house, and the barracks were all in peaceable possession of the Queen. The conspirators had let off their proclamation into the empty air, but were not in possession of any Government building, or in control of more than a handful of men "running in with rifles" in their hands. But Stevens promptly recognized them as the Hawaiian Government.

Here comes in what Stevens considers a petty "dispute as to the hour by the clock at which I gave recognition." But as it happens that the hour by the clock makes all the difference between a government on paper and a *de facto* government, the point is, after all, of some importance. Mr. Blount has conclusive testimony that Stevens recognized the provisional government very early in the afternoon, before the Queen or any of her ministers had heard that there was such a thing, and that this recognition was the only thing which prevented the Queen from calling upon her troops to put the revolutionists under arrest, as it is admitted by all that she might easily have done. In fact, Mr. Blount says that Stevens admitted to him personally that he had recognized the new government before the barracks and station-house had been surrendered; "that he did not consider their surrender of any importance." When the Queen's ministers were called upon to surrender, they refused to do so, asserting that they had ample force to deal with the disaffection, and it was only when they were told that the American minister had recognized the revolutionists, and would support them, that they said, as Mr. Damon testifies hearing one of them say: "We are all prepared to resist, but I will never fight against the American flag."

These are the main points in the evidence thus far made public, showing the "force and fraud" employed by an American minister to overthrow the government to which he was accredited. That this great wrong ought to be righted, all honest men will agree. Just how it is to be done the Administration has not yet shown; but, from the tenor of Minister Willis's speech, it would seem that those who have been anxious to see the Queen restored to her rights through a sea of blood are likely to be disappointed. The conspiracy was executed by force, but there is every reason to think the crime of it may be rebuked and frustrated by the peaceful methods of diplomacy.

## *SPRINGER ON BANKING.*

When the silver question was disposed of, it became inevitable that the banking question should be the uppermost of all financial topics in the national councils. Silver purchases had been favored in the West and South by reason of a supposed shortage of currency. People thought that they could see an increase of money if the mints were at work coining dollars on Government account, or if the Treasury was printing legal-tender notes based upon silver bullion. They did not see that the silver so purchased merely displaced gold, leaving the total amount of circulation unchanged except as we parted with a superior kind of money to make room for an inferior kind.

The idea that we must have additional supplies of money remains as potent as ever, and this idea is founded in reason. We must have additional supplies of money *when* they are wanted. We must have them *as* they are wanted. Moreover, we *shall* have them when and as they are wanted. If nothing else is offered, we shall take gold. We have imported $61,000,000 of that metal during the present year. It is true that we had previously exported $70,000,000. Both movements are copious illustrations of the fact that a nation can get all the money it needs, even if it has a stiff, inflexible, antiquated banking system. Therefore we need not be alarmed if Congress does not favor us with an improved banking system in a hurry. We shall still have the world's gold reservoir to draw from—the same from which England draws her supplies. But the demand for something different, the demand for a paper currency at par with gold, which shall accommodate itself to the wants of the business community, will continue and will become more and more urgent until it is complied with.

In a recent interview Mr. Springer of Illinois, the chairman of the House committee on banking and currency, gave his views of what ought to be done in order to secure for the country an elastic and abundant currency. It is perhaps not surprising that Mr. Springer should have completely missed the thing he was searching for, viz., elasticity. The present national banking system is not elastic. Its currency does not expand when expansion is needed. On the contrary, it shrinks when expansion is needed. Now, Mr. Springer thinks that the system is non-elastic because the national bonds are a diminishing quantity and because they are at a high premium in the market—the rate of interest which they pay being accordingly very low. So he proposes to take as a basis of circulation an inferior kind of bonds, such as those of counties and municipalities. This change, he thinks, would bring into existence an elastic currency.

Mr. Springer has missed the point completely in this, that it is bond security, and not the *kind* of bond security, that makes the bank currency stiff and inflexible. The testimony of bank officers and experts on this point is now almost unanimous. We take the first which comes to hand. In the current number of *Rhodes's Journal of Banking* is a thoroughly good discussion of this question by the Hon. A. B. Hepburn, ex-comptroller of the currency. The article is entitled "Substitutes for Money." Touching the matter of elasticity Mr. Hepburn says:

> "But no currency can be elastic which is based upon stocks or bonds. If, before issuing notes, a bank is compelled to invest *as much or more money* in the purchase of securities, as a basis for its note issue, as the bank-notes which it is in turn authorized to issue amount to, then elasticity is destroyed. In order to respond to the increased demands of the people, banks should be allowed to create money—to issue notes against credit," etc.

There is the whole question in a nutshell. A bank is started to lend money to the public. Bond security implies that this money shall be locked up in permanence by the purchase of stock-exchange securities. Elasticity is destroyed *ipso facto*. But, says somebody, bonds are necessary as security for the notes. Ah, it is a question of security, is it? Then we have to choose between one kind of security and another kind; and if we can somewhere find security plus elasticity, we should give it the preference over security joined to stiffness and inflexibility. Now, Mr. Hepburn, in the article from which we have quoted, adds his testimony to that of many other authorities by advocating the safety-fund plan. "An annual tax," he says, "of one-half of one per cent. imposed on the outstanding circulation of the national banks from the time of their organization would have redeemed every note of every failed bank and paid the entire cost of the national banking system during a period of thirty years, with something of a margin over. The experience of thirty years ought to be, and is, a safe criterion on which to base legislation as to the future."

At the recent bankers' convention at Chicago the opinion was nearly unanimous that the safety-fund plan was the right way to supply a currency which should be both flexible and secure. We are not by any means sure that Congress will agree to the views of experts, or even think it necessary to inquire what they are. The doctrine is pretty well fixed in the heads of politicians that financial science comes by nature, just as reading and writing did to *Dogberry*. This conceit was the cause of the fifteen years' wrangle over the silver question. Perhaps we shall have as much over the banking question. We have little fear, however, that Con-

gress will adopt the ideas sketched by Mr. Springer. We even doubt whether his own committee will adopt them. Mr. Springer is opposed to State bank-notes. If he succeeds in neutralizing those who favor that system, and if they succeed in neutralizing him, that is perhaps as much as we can expect at the present time.

## A MOUNTAIN PARADISE.

VENICE, October 31, 1893.

THIS morning, as I took my early walk to the Fondamenta Nuova, and looked northwards across the lagoons, there stood out in the distance a clear, marble-like parapet, extending from east to west for forty miles. The sight recalled the pallid peaks in the background of Titian's "Presentation of the Virgin"; it brought back also a recent delightful month spent in the midst of those magnificent and little visited mountains, among which Titian was born. The Dolomite Alps were before me. That there should be anything left to say in praise of that magnificent region is a proof of the existence of great currents of travel. The Gulf Stream of Americans flows across England to Belgium and France, up the Rhine or the Rhone to Switzerland, into certain valleys, such as Interlaken, Chamounix, and Zermatt, and thence southward across three or four passes—the Simplon, Gotthard, or Brenner—into Italy. Sometimes a traveller is caught by an eddy and drawn into the Vosges, or the Black Forest, or the Engadine; a few drift into a region only sixty miles or so from Innsbruck or Verona or Venice, yet still not unaptly described by the title of Miss Edwards's well-known book, 'Untrodden Peaks and Unfrequented Valleys.' That book, written twenty-five years ago, called the attention of English travellers to the Dolomites; Ball's and Tuckett's guides drew the climbers; Gilbert and Churchill's beautifully illustrated volume attracted artists; the Germans descend upon it; the Austrians are proud of it; but if the testimony of inn registers and of personal experience in five journeys at different times may be accepted, the even monotony of the American cadence is almost unheard in the land. The few compatriots whom one meets are nearly all either artists or members of the American colony in Florence or Rome, who come up rather as Italians in *villeggiatura* than as Americans. Even our geologists have neglected a region in which both mountain-building and erosion have most significant illustration, and in which the modern "base-level" theory might be applied to the confutation of the old belief that the Dolomites are the ruins of a prodigious coral reef.

Without going into the question of the precise extent of the "true dolomitic" or magnesian limestone formation, the term Dolomites is by residents and travellers applied to a part of the southern slope of the Eastern Alps, occupying about sixty miles square, not far from the size of the Adirondacks. This region is cut off from the neighboring mountains by the deep valleys of the Eisack and Adige, the Drave and the Piave, on the west, north, and east respectively, and breaks off on the south into the lowlands of Venetia. Its mountains are visible from the usual highways only on the line from Verona to Venice and Pontebba, and at Botzen on the Brenner route; from the latter place one gets a view of the beautiful Rosengarten and the sister peaks. The Dolomite region is drained by a system of south-flowing rivers, in form not unlike the extended right hand: the thumb and forefinger are the Piave valley, with its main branches leading up to Cortina and Auronzo; the three other fingers are the Caprile, Primiero, and Sugana valleys. Between and beyond these streams and their affluents rise the mighty Dolomites.

The inexperienced traveller who supposes that a mountain is a mountain, learns his mistake as soon as he enters the Dolomites. In many respects they are unlike any of the other European or American groups. In the first place, they rise from a lower base than most of the high Alps; the valleys are cut deep, yet are seldom mere clefts in the rock, like the gorges of Switzerland; they are wide enough to furnish a contrast to their walls. Hence it is not uncommon to find what appear to be perpendicular peaks rising five, six, or seven thousand feet above their bases. In the second place, there are usually low taluses, clad with beautiful dense forest, sweeping up both sides of the valley. Above them shoot up mountains so strange, so fantastic, and so beautiful that the most blasé Alpinist is refreshed by them. Instead of the mighty sloping shoulders of the Swiss giants, rising like the roofs of a crystal city, we have here the perpendicular and horizontal elements, mountains built up in terraces, counterscarps, and towers. Almost every one of them, when seen at the proper angle, looks like a great organ, with pipes arranged in balanced wings, the longer in the centre. Unfortunately, few of them carry considerable glaciers; but one hardly misses the ice because of the splendid colors. Orange, red, golden yellow, creamy white, pink, and a soft gray are the prevailing colors—but each large group has its characteristic tint. The effect of the clusters of pinnacles soaring up out of the woods which hide their bases, is much enhanced by the separation of the great mountains from each other; they do not run into ranges, but stand each for itself. There is not one of them which a first-rate walker might not "circumnavigate" between sunrise and sunset; they stand as the Matterhorn stands, each one a monument. Hence, an individuality which makes them seem quite like friends as soon as one gets acquainted with them. Their very names are strange and imposing. Where else could one find such lofty titles as Duron, Cornon, Antelao, Sorapiss, Tofana, Nuvolau, Pomogagnon, Marmolada, Popena, or Cridola?

The people well correspond to the strength and picturesqueness of their surroundings. The Dolomite region has for centuries been a borderland in race, language, and government; and on each side something has been gained from the other. The boundary between Austria-Hungary and Italy zigzags through the mountains, although Italian is the language of most of the Tyrolese Dolomites. As elsewhere within the borders of the old Venetian Republic, the people are by tradition accustomed to peace and good order. Although the Italians have lately fortified nearly every pass on their side, and the Austrians are following their example, there are in the region over which the Lion of Saint Mark looked from his pillars only three or four castles or ruins of castles. Everybody knows that a mountain people is passionately devoted to liberty, tends to democracy and toleration, and is attached to the soil, but not to a dynasty. Has it not been so with the Greeks, the Welsh, and the Swiss? In the Austrian Dolomites, as in other parts of the Tyrol, we find an annoying disproof of these commonplaces. Here is a country very like Switzerland in topography, like Switzerland thrust between northern and southern civilizations, having an early history much like that of Switzerland; yet the Tyrol is the most monarchical country in Europe, and the most sternly Catholic. Even the Sette Communi, a little further to the south, a German-speaking republic for centuries, has lost both its language and its individuality; and when I visited it in 1885, it had become a matter-of-fact and loyal part of the kingdom of Italy. The contrast between the mountain Swiss and the mountain Tyrolese is shown also in the superior thrift and cleanliness of the latter. No Tyrolese village that I have ever visited shows the filth, squalor, and discomfort of the houses in Zermatt or Visp; and the detached peasants' farmsteads are larger, better, cleaner, and freer from intimate association with the cattle. In manners and appearance there is also an advantage: the Tyrolese are comfortably dressed, civil and genial; they have taken some good qualities from their southern neighbors.

Across the Italian border, the people seem to have borrowed less from the Tyrolese. Perhaps to an infusion of northern blood is due the remarkable beauty of many of the people; rosy children, comely maidens, even lithe and handsome old men and women may be found everywhere. But the Italian villages are dark and dirty; the old timber houses, however attractive to the photographer or artist, are dens of filth, blackened by the smoke of unchimneyed hearths. There are more people in the high valleys than the land can well support; hence emigration to America has set in. (This efflux is taking away the last remnants of a once thriving and still artistic industry. The gondola prows and fire-dogs and cranes of bright hammered iron continue to be made in Dont di Zoldo.) Even in remote and dirty villages one meets everywhere with civility and often with cordiality. Strangers are too few to be looked upon (as they are in Switzerland) as a kind of money on deposit for the benefit of the natives.

If travellers eventually destroy this seclusion, the increasing ease of access to the Dolomites will be a misfortune. From Toblach on the Pusterthalbahn, between Franzensfeste and Villach, it is three hours' easy driving to Cortina; from Feltre to Primiero, or from Belluno to Pieve di Cadoro, is but four or five hours, and a railroad to Cortina and another into the Val Sugana from Trent are now projected. Into the Dolomites one ought only to drive or walk. The few chaussées are well kept, and while nowhere, except just below Primiero, equalling the Swiss passes in grandeur, they all command superb views. As one drives, the great individual mountains rise, change, and fall behind, each as distinct as the Rock of Gibraltar. The few cross-roads penetrate up to the faces of the finest mountains, but they are uncomfortable for driving.

Roads are less necessary in a country in which nature so encourages the pedestrian. Between any two adjacent mountains is always a pass, sometimes steep, but seldom difficult; the views are but little inferior to those from the summits; and it is easy to arrange "round trips" ending at the point of departure. Sometimes the inns are unattractive; at Auronzo the cattle had the lower story, the kitchen and dining-room were above them, and the guests lodged still one story higher. Indeed, in all the Dolomites there are but three places—Landro, San Martino, and Cortina—in which there are comfortable hotels suitable for a long stay. But the traveller, even in remote valleys, usually finds plain but kindly inns.

Such was that at Fusine, in the Zoldo valley, to which I came one night in September, tired with a long tramp round about Pelmo, and where I found a large, reasonably clean building, provided with the delightful chimney-corner common on the Italian border. Around three sides of a hearth six feet square were benches; a hood caught the smoke from the fire of long sticks and conducted it into the chimney. In the middle stood a great pair of those splendid hammered iron fire-dogs which I had come into the valley to seek, tall, gracefully formed, and hung with a panoply of fire-tools. In a few minutes my supper was cooking in a pot hanging over the fire, aided by the hostess and her family of ten handsome children. The Juno-like eldest daughter brought the coals to a flame with the blow-pipe, the usual substitute for the bellows; the older children furnished wood; the younger ones gazed; the stately mother tasted; the host amiably conversed with the guest, and, finding him deficient in Italian, sent for the village doctor, who could talk German. Agreeable warmth, the smell of *pollo con riso*, and conversation with an educated and genial man combined to make it a place of grateful memory. For supper, lodging, and breakfast, each as good as the house could afford, the host thought three lire a sufficient charge. It was no more reasonable in proportion than the rates at some of the more pretentious houses. Three gulden a day—about eight dollars and a half a week—is the rate at the best houses in the region, for guests who spend some time.

Even for mountain-climbers the Dolomites have many attractions. The ascents are not very long and rarely lead over snow; but the rock work is "interesting"—that is, dangerous. A noted Alpinist told us that it was "shocking" to see the precipices up which the leading guide made his way; and the Kleine Zinne is said to be more difficult than the Matterhorn. Perhaps, after all, those get almost as much enjoyment who simply sit upon their terraces and watch the lights shift along the cliffs. From Cortina one sees grouped about him eight of the greatest Dolomites, and even thence there is no view of Pelmo, Civetta, and Marmolada, king, queen, and prime minister of the realm. Whoever once gets within the magic region as geologist, tourist, pedestrian, climber, or simple lover of nature will surely come again. ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

## PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.—IV.

PARIS, November 7, 1893.

IT is a bad habit of publishers to issue historical memoirs in separate volumes at different dates. It will be time enough to return to General Thiébault's Memoirs when the second volume makes its appearance. I have now before me the second volume of the Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier, a volume full of interest, as it covers the extraordinary, I might almost say the epic, period of the Russian war and the first invasion of France in 1814. During this period, from 1812 to 1814, Pasquier was prefect of police; he had, therefore, the best means of information, and he became one of the most important witnesses and actors in a great historic drama.

The second volume opens with the account of the conspiracy of Gen. Malet, an event which showed to the astonished world on what a shallow basis the power of Napoleon rested. The Emperor was in Russia, and the French heard of his operations only through the rare and brief bulletins which he sent from time to time. Paris was uneasy; the ministers were tormented with fears, and one of them, Decrès, Minister of the Navy, said one day to Pasquier: "The Emperor doesn't see what everybody sees. . . . Marmont has been beaten in Spain by Wellington; Spain will be lost in six months. . . . All this will have no effect; the Emperor will merely ask for new conscripts. The Senate has just given him 140,000; that makes 440,000 for this year. Do you think the cord will long resist? . . . No; I tell you, he is a lost man." Pasquier adds, with some simplicity: "My position was difficult on hearing such words from the mouth of a personage with whom I had no real intimacy; I offered some objections *pro forma*."

Gen. Malet had served first in the mousquetaires. During the Revolution he showed himself an ardent revolutionist; none of the horrors of the Revolution had discouraged him; he was one of the Terrorists of the army. He had seen with much displeasure the substitution of the Empire for the Republic, and had entered into various plots against the Emperor. He was a member of a secret society, the "Philadelphes," composed of republicans and of Chouans. In 1812 he was imprisoned, but, on pretext of his health, was allowed to go from the prison of La Force to a *maison de santé* in the Faubourg St.-Antoine. He found there M. de Polignac, and several royalists, among whom were a certain Abbé Lafon and M. de Puyvert.

Malet's plot was as audacious as it was simple—to put on his uniform of general, to present himself at the door of two barracks, to announce the death of Napoleon in Russia, to read a supposed senatus-consultum abolishing the Empire, establishing a provisional government, giving full powers to Gen. Malet, and placing all the troops at his disposition. Such were the main features of a plan conceived by Malet and M. Lafon, and executed by them, with the help of two or three persons, for there were only five persons in the secret.

In the middle of the night Malet succeeded in forming a force of 1,200 men, and marched on La Force, where he delivered some political prisoners, among whom was a Gen. Lahorie. He then proceeded to the Place Vendôme, and, finding that Gen. Hulin would not believe him, he fired a pistol shot at him with his own hand. He was on the point of firing at another general, the chief of staff, when he was arrested by the guard of the hôtel. Meanwhile Lahorie had arrested Pasquier and the Duke of Rovigo; a detachment had gone to the Prefect of the Seine, Frochot, who for a moment was completely taken in and offered no resistance whatever. A military commission was appointed. Pasquier confesses that all the researches made in order to find accomplices among republicans or royalists were vain. Five men were condemned and executed, as well as eight officers or non-commissioned officers who had followed Malet too readily. Malet and Lahorie both died with the greatest courage.

The impression made on Napoleon by this unexpected event was very great. It was not easy to persuade him that the imperial police was not at fault, but Malet had really taken very few people into his confidence. Napoleon returned from Russia, after the evacuation of Moscow, and arrived on the 18th of December, 1812; he received the next day the Senate and the Council of State. He appeared greatly incensed at the idea that when the rumors of his own death had been spread abroad, the rights of his infant child, the King of Rome, had been forgotten. "Our fathers," said he, "had for their cry: 'Le Roi est mort, vive le Roi!' In these few words were contained the chief advantages of monarchy." M. Frochot, who had not made even a show of resistance to the conspirators, lost his office of Councillor of State and of Prefect of the Seine. Napoleon manifested no severity towards Pasquier; he merely remarked to him, "Well, Mr. Prefect, you, too, have had your bad day; there are such days in life."

The coalition was forming after the disasters of the Russian campaign. Napoleon had to create new armies.

"In this year, 1813, from the 11th of January to the 7th of October, 840,000 men had been drafted in France. I have already told of the sacrifice of the preceding year, which was enormous. Never, I believe, in any country was the like ever seen; never had a nation been asked in this way to be led to butchery. France could do it no more; that is the truth, and therein is the secret and the explanation of what happened afterwards. With these successive appeals to conscription, past, present, and future, with these brevets of lieutenants imposed on the young men of the best families, even when they had escaped conscription or bought substitutes in accordance with the law, there was not a family left which was not in alarm when it was not in tears."

"What happened afterwards," to use Pasquier's words, was the invasion of France. When the Corps Législatif met on the 19th of December, 1813, a new decree was made, organizing 160,000 men of the national guard in cohorts; in that year as many as 1,300,000 men had been called under arms. Pasquier tells us that inscriptions were beginning to appear on the walls of Paris of "À bas le tyran!" When Napoleon left the Tuileries, a man said, "Will nobody deliver us from this rascal?" The man was arrested; his name was Bassompierre, an historical name. There was but one witness, a gendarme, to testify against him. Bassompierre denied having said anything, and pretended that the gendarme had made a mistake. Pasquier put the case before Napoleon, who contented himself with sending Bassompierre to Tours, where he was to remain free, but under the eye of the police.

On the 3d of January, 1814, Pasquier was alone with the Emperor.

"Well, what do they say in Paris? Do they know that the enemy's armies have positively crossed the Rhine?" "Yes, Sire; they learned it yesterday." "How numerous do people suppose that they are?" "They speak of 200,000 men." "They are many more—from three to four hundred thousand, and they have crossed the Rhine at seven or eight different points. What do people expect of me?" "They do not doubt that your Majesty will at once put yourself at the head of the troops and march against the enemy." "My troops! my troops! Do they think that I still have an army? Almost all the men whom I brought from Germany have fallen victims to this terrible disease which has been the culmination of my disasters. An army! I shall be very fortunate if, three weeks hence, I succeed in bringing thirty to forty thousand men together."

Napoleon, in the midst of all his cares, was haunted with the idea that the return of the house of Bourbon had become a possibility: "I am not far," says Pasquier, "from believing that his pride was flattered by the thought that he could be displaced only by this ancient dynasty. This preoccupation must have been very strong, for twice he spoke of them to me. 'You are too young to have really known the house of Bourbon; you had hardly come into the world when the Revolution began.' I answered him that three years ago I was already a councillor in the Parlement of Paris." At another time Napoleon put him questions about the princes, especially about Monsieur. Napoleon

often put such questions to the Duc de Vicence (Caulaincourt), who had been in the household of the Condés. The Emperor had given to Talleyrand a place in the Council of Regency which he instituted when he took the field. He had lost confidence in him, but he dreaded him; he had thought for a moment of shutting him up in the prison of Vincennes before leaving Paris. M. de Talleyrand had been preserved from this danger by the representations which were made to Napoleon by M. de Cambacérès, the Duc de Vicence, and even the Duc de Rovigo. Napoleon's instinct was right, for Talleyrand became the chief instrument in the restoration of the Bourbons. The princes entered France; the royalist party in Paris sent M. de Vitrolles to the headquarters of the Allies. Bordeaux opened its doors to the Duc d'Angoulême. All these events are well known, as well as the incidents of the short campaign, during which Napoleon showed himself the greatest strategist of his time. All was vain; the Allies marched on Paris, and the battle before the capital ended in its capitulation.

At this critical moment Pasquier becomes very interesting, almost dramatic. As prefect of police, he had to go to the Russian headquarters, in order to settle a number of details connected with the entrance of Alexander and his army into Paris. Alexander was at the château of Bondy.

"This château was occupied by my grandfather at the time of my early infancy. . . . I was brought back to it by one of the greatest events which had taken place since the beginning of the monarchy. I brought the submission of the city of Paris to a sovereign whose states a century ago were hardly known to our fathers, and who, advancing from the borders of Asia, dragging the whole of Germany after him, came to impose his law on the France of Clovis, of Charlemagne, of Henri IV., of Louis XIV., of Napoleon! And we had ourselves gone to seek him in his cold domain; we had brought him and his Tartars on our tracks by the light of his burning capital and cities."

It is not often that the generally prosaic Pasquier becomes grandiloquent, but the circumstances were such as would have moved even a colder heart.

Nesselrode showed Pasquier a proclamation of Schwarzenberg, in which it was said that "the allied sovereigns were looking in good faith for a salutary authority in France which could unite itself with all nations and governments." The city of Paris was expected to express what it meant by a "salutary authority." Alexander was waiting only for the expression of the wishes of Paris. Napoleon, however, was excluded. When Alexander received Pasquier and the representatives of the Municipal Council who accompanied him, he did not conceal his sentiments with regard to Napoleon. "I have," said he, "but one enemy in France; it is the man who has unworthily deceived me, who has violated all his oaths to me, who has waged in my states the most unjust and impious war. All reconciliation between him and me is impossible." This was repeated in twenty different ways. The Emperor, in order to enforce his views, granted to Pasquier all he asked; the national guard of Paris was to keep its arms and to continue its service; all public and private properties were to be respected.

The Emperor Alexander entered Paris the next day. He heard some royalist acclamations, "Vivent les Bourbons," but only in the quarter of the Boulevard de la Madeleine; the great majority of the Parisians remained silent. A council was held at Talleyrand's hôtel, where Alexander took up his quarters. Talleyrand used his persuasive powers and his influence in order that in a new proclamation the allied sovereigns should declare that they would not treat with Napoleon nor with any member of his family. "This was easily accepted; in great affairs, when a certain point is gained, nobody cares to discuss the rest." The great point was Napoleon's exclusion; his family was the rest. "Prince Schwarzenberg and Prince Lichtenstein thus formally consented to exclude from the throne of France the son of the Archduchess Marie Louise. . . . Most certainly they had no authorization from their sovereign for entering into such an engagement." The crisis was now coming to its end. The Allies were in Paris; they refused to treat with Napoleon, and Napoleon was in the rear of their armies and approaching Fontainebleau.

# Correspondence.

## THE AMERICAN PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION AND McKINLEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My former letter, published in your issue of November 9, called attention to the American Protective Association. There can be little doubt that this movement contributed not a little to the phenomenal majority of McKinley in the campaign just closed—how much, of course, cannot be told. We have to deal with the often intangible influence of a secret society, and he would be a daring man who should endeavor to discover the exact number of votes lost to Neal and gained to McKinley by it. The principal reason for McKinley's great triumph was doubtless the prevailing hard times and lack of employment. The Governor conducted a splendid campaign. Almost every part of the State was visited, and he made sometimes three or four speeches a day. He remembered, no doubt, that at his door had been laid the responsibility for the two most crushing defeats ever sustained by his party, and he determined to retrieve his political fortunes. His knock-down argument was: "These are Democratic times; how do you like them?" The party in power was blamed for the distress. Then there was the usual apathy following a Presidential election, with its horde of disappointed office-seekers. Neal's following is hardly in entire sympathy with Cleveland's administration. Many felt a desire to rebuke the party for the long and shameful obstruction in the Senate on the repeal of the silver-purchase clause of the Sherman law.

In addition to all this I am persuaded that the anti-Catholic movement had a weighty influence. This county (Franklin) is usually Democratic, but this year the Republicans carried all the offices but one. It is said that most of the Republican candidates are members of the A. P. A. Quite a number of Democrats are members of this secret organization, and have therefore taken an oath not to countenance the nomination or election of any Roman Catholic. Their votes were in all probability cast for McKinley. I am informed that representatives of that society approached one of the Democratic candidates for reëlection with the promise of the support of the order if he would agree to join it, and to discharge his Roman Catholic clerks. He refused and was beaten. The one Democrat elected is reported to have joined the A. P. A. This is certainly true, that, a few days before election, the Columbus *Record*, the organ of the anti-Catholic movement, came out advising support of him.

At the beginning of the campaign, the *Catholic Telegraph*, published in Cincinnati, in an editorial asked both McKinley and Neal where they stood as regards the attempt of the A. P. A. "to abridge and destroy their civil and religious liberties." Copies of the paper were sent to both candidates. McKinley's private secretary acknowledged receiving it, and promised to bring the matter to the Governor's attention when he returned home. Nothing further was heard from Mr. McKinley. The Governor evidently knew on which side his bread was buttered, and, like a long-headed politician, kept a judicious silence. Mr. Neal responded at once, that he had no sympathy with any organization that sought to restrict the civil and religious liberties of the Catholic citizens of Ohio. Doubtless this courageous answer cost Mr. Neal many votes. Gov. McKinley led the ticket, receiving a total of 15,960 votes, being 1,089 more than the least number received by a winning candidate, and 225 more than the one who stood next to him. There was but one Roman Catholic in the field, the Democratic nominee for auditor. His competitor came next to McKinley in the number of votes received. There can be little doubt that a goodly number of otherwise Republican voters scratched the county ticket in opposition to the A. P. A. I heard several declare their intention so to do, and one paper on election day reported that business men were doing it to some extent. This accounts for McKinley's lead. He received the total vote of his party and, in addition, all Democrats members of, or in sympathy with, the A. P. A.

Respectfully yours, Alexander Milne.

Columbus, O., November 14, 1893.

## PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S COMPLICITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Before acceding to the request of Mr. "H." of the University Club at Boston to acquit President Cleveland of responsibility for the axe-swinging performances of Messrs. Quincy and Maxwell at Washington, I would ask you to investigate and consider the question of his complicity in similar but more aggravated performances still going on at the capital, particularly in the Departments of the Interior and the Treasury. The field is too broad a one to be surveyed in full within the compass of this letter, but I will confine myself to the single class of men, or the widows or daughters of men, who, having served their country honorably on its battlefields, are daily being turned out of their little places in the public offices here, in their declining years, on the verge of a distressful winter, without impeachment of their character or capacity or of their political inoffensiveness.

I suspect there are many readers of the *Nation* besides myself who would be glad to know, or believe, that President Cleveland is in blissful ignorance of the stain that some of the men he has chosen to be heads of departments and bureaus at Washington are putting on their and our country's name, by practices that no civilized people could honestly sanction or defend. C. F. B.

Washington, D. C., November 17, 1893.

## HIGHFALUTIN IN THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One of the curiosities displayed by the State of New York at the World's Fair was a pamphlet entitled 'The Schools of New York,'

and professing to be a portion of the "New York State Educational Exhibit." It bears the arms of the State on the cover, and is prepared by the "Department of Public Instruction." Your readers, I am sure, will be interested in a specimen of this document, and I shall ask space for only one "elegant extract," which represents very fairly the purpose, the taste, and the rhetoric of the modest anonymous writer. I quote from page 70:

"The sunrise of education in this State, over two centuries ago, was full of cloud and doubt and uncertain presages. But the glorious orb has now mounted to the top of its noonday tower, and all clouds are melted away into the blue, while in every part of this broad land, from Lake Erie to Montauk, from the North woods to the Pennsylvania line, the light of education falls on thousands of schoolhouses with their million pupils. But wonderful as the advance in New York in two centuries and a half has been in all educational departments, the exceptional productive and vivifying power that seems to permeate this State in everything it essays in the line of progress, cannot fail to bring forth, ere the twentieth century is well advanced, such results in public instruction as will make the ignorant man in New York as extinct as the dodo. The wonderful possibilities of education and the far-distant heights yet unclimbed by our educators, are mirrored with faithful distinctness in the translucent lake of our common-school system. We look forward confidently to the day when the system shall pervade every part of the State, *as the sole representative of the intellectual needs of the people, controlling colleges as well as country schools*, inspiring all within the commonwealth, gathering in all the children of school age, filling the entire territory of the State with schools—to which, as architectural features alone, each locality will point with pride to the inquiring stranger—supplying even the humblest country schools with a corps of trained, zealous teachers, who will look upon teaching as a noble profession, not as a makeshift or stepping-stone to something else, filling the land with normal schools, teachers' institutes, training classes, and educational conventions and societies, and acting as an invigorating elixir to every branch of industrial development within the State. Grand as the present prospect is, when we look around the educational horizon, it is but a small area compared with that which the schools of the future in the Empire State will occupy."

This dithyrambic peroration requires very little commentary. The lines I have underscored allude to a favorite scheme of the author, that all the departments of education in the State should be merged into one, viz., "the Department of Public Instruction," for which he apparently speaks. By this process, of course, the "Board of Regents" would be abolished; though, curiously enough, almost every distinguished man whom the author mentions as connected with the advancement of education in the State was a member of this Board. As to the present methods of the Department of Public Instruction, your readers may be glad to know (page 47) that "no military system of supervision, even in the Napoleonic era, was more complete and more readily managed by an individual head than is the Department of Public Instruction of the State of New York."

As to the present attitude of this Department—"which is to control colleges as well as country schools"—towards the higher university education, the author quotes with approval the Chadbandish declaration of a former superintendent, "Advanced study is not to be despised, *when well grounded*." (The italics are mine.) He also speaks of "the impuberal [*sic*] condition of the common schools," and remarks that "the policy of the Stuarts, and their successors, the Guelphs, was to discourage popular education, etc."

These excerpts suggest the general tone of a pamphlet which was circulated widely at the Exposition. I offer them practically without comment, because they have a natural eloquence which I cannot improve. But I wonder how the document struck the people at Chicago. I wonder how it struck M. Gabriel Compayré, for instance, and the other distinguished gentlemen who assembled there to investigate our system of education. The Chicago people are proverbially sanguine, but I believe that even they will shake their heads sceptically over the date assigned for the extinction of the dodo-ignoramus in the State of New York. They may ask us, "How are you going to do it? Will you rely exclusively upon the Napoleonic aid of the Department of Public Instruction? And if so, does this pamphlet represent, or does it misrepresent, the culture and the spirit of the administration which supervises your common schools?" A TEACHER.

NOVEMBER 13, 1893.

## WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is with some misgiving that I send this letter lest I write myself down a hopeless reactionist; yet it is because I would fain *not* be such a reactionist that I venture this prayer for light, and modestly ask the question: What is the real difference between a prize-fight and a game of football? I have been interested in the noble ardor of the Brooklyn clergy in their attempt to stay proceedings in the meeting between Mr. Mitchell and Mr. Corbett, and I understand that the objections to a prize-fight are three in number: (*a*) It is brutal; men are injured and blood is spilled. (*b*) It encourages gambling. (*c*) It tends to over-much hilarity and disorderly conduct. During this season I have kept a list of some of the results of football as follows: Under head (*a*): The team of ——— College so disabled that only two men were able to appear for some days. A man so injured in his side that he was obliged to play in a steel corset or cuirass. Three broken legs. Two broken arms. Man carried from the field with a terrible cut in his head and blood running profusely over his clothing. One nose broken. One man now hanging between life and death. One man killed. Under (*b*): One needs only to talk with men interested in such matters to learn, and even see for himself if he cares to, that large sums of money change hands with every important game. The irresistible desire which college men have to see a good game leads many to wager money in hopes of paying their expenses to the grounds. If they lose—what new moral complications are introduced into their lives? Under (*c*): We remember when, at the last Yale-Princeton game, New York was "painted red." The same thing happened with possibly a somewhat subdued color in other cities. We read in our papers yesterday that some disorderly students were arrested after last Saturday's game. The faculty of a certain college have been obliged to order their men after the next great game to be at home before midnight, lest disorderly conduct be repeated. Possibly some of us have seen this disorder and know what it means.

Now, in a prize-fight, the people injured are those whom society can manage to do without. Our football players, on the contrary, are fine educated young fellows, on whom the country is to depend. The crowd who bet and carouse at a prize-fight belong to a set who gamble and drink on every occasion, and the fight is simply an opportunity, not a temptation. The men (and women too) who lose control of themselves during and after a football game are accustomed to lead reasonably respectable lives, and find in the wild excitement of the time a temptation as well as an occasion for sin. Why is one so disreputable, the other permitted if not encouraged by the leading institutions of the land? If it be said that men fight for money and kick football for fun, it might be replied that the gate receipts of a game bring thousands of dollars to the competing teams, and I am informed that any first-rate baseball or football player can have all his college expenses paid. This, however, may be a "campaign lie."

I am not writing as a judge, nor that I may condemn what public sentiment seems to condone. I am simply curious to know what subtle distinction exists which makes Mitchell's cake vicious and Princeton's ale virtuous. Let there be light. E. L. STODDARD.

ST. JOHN'S RECTORY,
JERSEY CITY HEIGHTS, Nov. 13, 1893.

## DILÎP SINH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the obituary notice of this erratic person just published in the London *Times* there are two points which seem to deserve brief comment. We there read:

"Doubts have been raised as to Dhuleep Singh's parentage; but it is needless to consider the question. First Runjeet Singh, and then the British Government, recognized him as legitimate; and, for all practical purposes, that decides the matter."

In the article *Sikhs*, in the first edition of 'Chambers's Enclopædia,' we read, also:

"Every loyal Sikh is still confident that his people is suffering but a transitory depression, and that it is destined to retrieve, and even to surpass, its bygone glory. In the meantime, the reputed son of a wife or concubine of Ranjît Sinh, Dilîp Sinh, is a pensioner of the British Government, has professed Christianity, and has taken up his abode in England."

After a good deal of research, it was found impossible to arrive at any other conclusion than that which I thus expressed. The fact is, that, as regards Dilîp Sinh's father and mother, there is not the slightest evidence who or what they were. Presumably, one or other of them was dark-skinned; and that is about all that we can even conjecture about them.

"Of his own free will," the *Times* further states, Dilîp Sinh "came to reside in England, and adopted the Christian religion." This will certainly be taken to mean that first he came to England, and embraced Christianity subsequently. It so happens that I had a slight acquaintance with him in India, shortly after he had been baptized by an American missionary in the Panjâb. The name of the missionary I have forgotten; but some one of your readers can, I have no doubt, furnish it.

Of Dilîp Sinh the *Times* says: "Even after the folly of the rulers and the military ardour of the Sikhs had brought about the loss of his crown, he might, with ordinary prudence, have procured, for himself and his family, a prominent and permanent position among the British aristocracy." To old-fashioned Englishmen this must suggest an admirable method of reinforcing, at need, the ranks of those who would check the pestilent progress of liberalism. The method may be formulated as follows: "Catch a semi-barbarian of large possessions and influence, who passes for a Christian; relieve him of the burden of his patrimonial wealth and power; pretend that he once had a title, the very memory of which is venerable, to the sacred attribute of regality; pension

him liberally out of the spoils of unscrupulously selfish conquest; and accept him as pretty much on an equality with the notabilities who stand nearest to the throne." The effect of such a device on the swinish democracy can be safely predicted.

In the third volume of the *Missionary*, published at Calcutta in 1853, appeared an enthusiastic article, by its editor, the Rev. Dr. William Kay, on "The Baptism of Maharaja Dulleep Singh." It begins: "The baptism of an Indian prince may be celebrated as a new era in the annals of the church. There are but few instances, in the whole history of Christianity, of crowned heads' being washed by the waters of regeneration, after the deliberate renouncement of paganism and conviction of evangelical truth." Mention being premised of Alfred and Guthrum, Clovis of France, and Ethelbert of Kent, the learned and hopeful divine continues:

"We venture, however, to think that the case of the convert Dulleep Singh contains in it elements of greater interest than any of these. . . . The veneration naturally due to the memory of an illustrious father, whose greatness, as a king, was consistent with his antipathy to Christianity, had to be corrected. . . . Man had deprived him of his *Koh-i-noor;* God has given him 'the pearl of great price,' the *true mountain of Light*. . . . He was placed under circumstances which were sanctified by Divine grace to lead to his conversion. . . . Such an event is, no doubt, intended, in the counsels of God, to give a more than ordinary impulse to the progress of the Gospel in India. But it is not in man to lift up the veil which shrouds the future."

And, if it could have been lifted up, Dilip Sinh would have been revealed as abjuring, in his ignorant maturity, for Sikhism, the Christian profession of his ignorant boyhood; for he was baptized at the age of fifteen. That he abjured his abjuration is, however, to be presumed, seeing that, when he was buried, two days ago, in the Elveden churchyard, the local clergy officiated at his funeral. The occasion was signalized by wreaths and deputy mourners sent by the Queen and the Prince of Wales, and what not. And so ended the career of a man who, for all his £40,000 a year, existed to no discoverable good purpose whatever.

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, October 30, 1893.

# Notes.

FLEMING H. REVELL CO. will issue on December 1 'Reality versus Romance in South Central Africa,' an account by Dr. James Johnston of his west-east transcontinental journey from Benguela to the mouth of the Zambesi three years ago. Its large and numerous photographic illustrations promise to be highly valuable.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert have nearly ready 'Two German Giants: Frederic the Great and Bismarck,' by John Lord, D.D., and 'The Sistine Madonna: A Christmas Meditation,' by Amory H. Bradford.

Prof. Ely's new book on 'Socialism' is in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co., for publication in the spring.

Merrill & Baker announce 'Apprentices to Destiny,' a novel of the cultured West, by Lily A. Long.

J. Selwin Tait & Sons have in press Memoirs of the late Mrs. Botta, edited by Prof. Vincenzo Botta, with a portrait; and a story of the Lincolnshire fens, 'Cheap-Jack Zita,' by S. Baring-Gould.

Three books announced in London by Mr. Elliot Stock are likely to be interesting to lovers of books as books. One is an English translation of M. Octave Uzanne's belated volume on the Parisian book-stalls, with an introduction by Mr. Birrell. Another is a 'History of the Art of Book-Binding,' by Mr. W. Salt Brassington, to be elaborately illustrated. The third is 'Book-Song: An Anthology of Poems of Books and Bookmen,' which seems to be an attempt to do over again the American selection known as 'Ballads of Books.'

Estes & Lauriat issue, in the style of 'The Lily of the Arno' and of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s 'Marble Faun,' Mrs. Clement's 'Queen of the Adriatic.' The text is a rambling mixture of compilation and impressions, and the photogravures give as good an idea of Venice as photographs can, which is not very good. Venice without color is not Venice.

Some of Walter Crane's illustrative designs for Mrs. Deland's 'Old Garden' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) are fanciful and graceful, but all together they do not reach his highest level. They are printed in colors on one side only of the paper, which is folded in the Japanese way. The old-English type may be in harmony with the designs, but is cruel to the eyes, and makes it certain that the book will be looked at, not read.

To a large proportion of the readers of Mr. Barrett Wendell's 'Stelligeri, and Other Essays concerning America' (Charles Scribner's Sons) the first part of the title will not be enlightening. According to the old nomenclature of the Harvard quinquennial catalogue, the *stelligeri* were, it seems, those members of each class who were reported as dead. Their names were marked with an asterisk, and a comment at the end of the roll stated in regard to them: *E vivis cesserunt.* Star-bearers, indeed, by right of death or fame, are those of whom Mr. Wendell's essays treat, for two are on Lowell and Whittier, and almost all of the others have to do with the emotional and spiritual life of the Puritans. The latter, Mr. Wendell asserts, were men of more imagination than they are credited with, in that their test of election, the power of exerting the will in harmony with that of God, forced on them a life of passionate idealism. In another essay he ingeniously suggests that some of the Salem witches were, after all, guilty, not of the crimes of which they were accused, but of habitually exercising, for evil purposes, an hypnotic influence over weak creatures about them. The longest essay in the volume is that on American literature, which the author finds non-existent; the best is a vivid portrait of Lowell as he seemed to one of his pupils. Throughout the book Mr. Wendell has much to say that is worth listening to about the permanent and impermanent elements of Puritanism, and the degree to which both should contribute to our treatment of the new problems which America has now to solve.

Dr. Albert Palmberg's 'Treatise on Public Health and its Applications in Different Countries' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan) is a unique and valuable collection of facts, comparisons, and commentaries. This edition is a translation from the French, the original work being in Swedish; and the translator, Dr. Arthur Newsholme, is also the editor, and has made it complete so far as English legislation and comment thereon are concerned. The author is the medical officer of health for Helsingfors, Finland. He starts with the fundamental idea that public hygiene is the most empirical of sciences, and that a competent knowledge of sanitary arrangements is best acquired by studying the practical working of those that have been enforced by statute or regulation. For this purpose Great Britain, Belgium, France, Germany, Austria, Sweden, and Finland have been drawn upon, and the result might well be called Commentaries on Comparative Sanitary Law. England confessedly leads in general practical sanitation, and it is therefore satisfactory to find about two-fifths of the book to be given up to that kingdom and Scotland, and the editor's comments to be uniformly intelligent and practical. A great deal of the English law is of no importance to us in its municipal dress, but nearly the whole of the results that bear on public health is of value. Detailed criticism properly belongs to the technical periodicals, but the general character of the work is good. We may express our surprise, however, that, with London's superb ambulance service for its infectious hospitals, it should rest content with the meagre transportation by stretcher for its sudden casualties by injury or disease.

"In 1892 occurred the publication and sale of the first edition of 10,000 copies of 'King's Handbook of New York City.'" This entry we find among the notable events of the past year as recorded in the second edition of the above work, which has been enlarged by one-tenth as to pages and one-quarter as to cuts, and now offers a very solid mass of information well-arranged and well-indexed (Boston: Moses King). It is without a rival.

The Western eagle screams aloud in 'Shepp's World's Fair Photographed' (Chicago: Globe Publishing Co.) This is a stout album of plates commemorating the main aspects of the Fair, without and within, and, incomplete as it is, probably containing views of some objects overlooked by almost any visitor. The process prints are rather dead, but they serve their purpose; the text, as we have intimated, abounds in superlative laudation and glorification. It repeats the old fable as to the original of the New York State Building.

Profs. Williams and Clark of Johns Hopkins University have shown their usual enterprise and public spirit in the preparation of an excellent account of the Geology and Physical Features of Maryland for the 'World's Fair Book' of that State. It includes chapters on the topography, climate, and geology; this last divided under the Piedmont plateau, the Appalachian mountain region, and the coastal plain. There are several climatic charts, an excellent geological map, and a number of views of characteristic scenery. Among the latter, the beautiful view looking west over the Cumberland valley from the crest of the Blue Ridge deserves especial mention. These chapters have been separately reprinted, and are for sale by the university at the very moderate price of a dollar.

Among the many other World's Fair books, mention may be made of an attractive little pamphlet distributed from the North Dakota State Building. It presents some admirable views of the great wheat fields of the Red River valley, the cattle ranges of the uplands, and the dairy farms of the Missouri valley. The changes wrought in ten years of our rapid civilization are shown by views of the shanties in which the "early settlers" of 1882 first made their homes, and of the comfortable modern houses and commodious barns which now succeed them.

The approaching close of the year is attended with the usual crop of calendars. The largest and most showy yet to hand is the "Times and Seasons Calendar for 1894," from E. P.

Dutton & Co. These hinged sheets are decorated in quiet good taste if without any originality of design, the color printing having been done in Bavaria. The drawings and the text have a religious motive. Mary A. Lathbury's "Good Cheer Calendar" (Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.) makes child-life the subject of its colored vignettes, and offers extracts from the greater and the minor poets along with Miss Lathbury's own verse, all with a view to the infant mind. In book form, and very dainty in every way, is the 'Calendar of Verse' (Thos. Whittaker), to which Mr. George Saintsbury furnishes an introduction that, in spite of some affectation and exaggeration, may be read with profit. The novelty of the selections, which are decidedly to be praised in point of taste, lies in the assigning of each month to a separate poet, beginning with Shakspere. William Morris is the only living poet admitted. Last of all we mention here a second collection by Mr. Horace P. Chandler under the title of 'The Lover's Year-Book of Poetry,' in two volumes (Boston: Roberts Bros.). "Married Life and Child-Life" is the principle of selection, and American minor poetry the most noticeable source. The standard is not high, if the cultivation of anything but sentiment is in view.

We have received from the *Librairie de l'Art* (Paris: G. Pierson & Cie.) a fresh budget of collected material for art study. Two folio brochures embrace respectively examples of the work of sculptors and animal-painters of many schools, the French preponderating, especially in the former. We miss here altogether any hint of the American school which the World's Fair proved must hereafter be reckoned with. Perhaps the most striking piece is Deloye's grim bust of Littré. The sketchy character of these memoranda lends itself better to the animal designs than to the statuary. Another and smaller series is called "Bibliothèque d'Éducation Artistique," in six-penny numbers. One section is devoted to alphabets, a second to decorative *motifs*. Three of the alphabets are from pen-drawings by Jules Habert-Dys, and are useful as warning examples; so are his three "motives." In both lots the exemplary designs are very few in number. Finally there is *L'Imagerie d'Art*, a Sunday penny "journal of popular instruction," without text save the legends of the heterogeneous plates and a line of biography of the artist in each case. The press-work in all these issues corresponds to the low price.

Lecène, Oudin & Cie. have added two more volumes to their collection of "Classiques Populaires," both excellent and full of matter and both written by men well acquainted with their subject. M. Léon Clédat's 'La Poésie au Moyen-Âge' will be consulted by others than the lovers of popularized literature. It is a clear exposition of that interesting literature, so long unknown and so ignorantly disdained, which is adorned by many a name now well known to every student of French letters. Systematically planned and intelligently wrought out, fully illustrated with specimens of mediæval poetry, modernized merely enough to make the meaning plain, M. Clédat's book gives the right kind of information which the well-bred man desires to possess without having to make a special study of the subject. The preliminary chapter on French versification and poetic forms, especially in the middle ages, is a fit preface to the review of the southern and northern poets which follows. To those who have read the monograph on Rutebeuf in Hachette's collection, M. Clédat's name will be sufficient warrant for the excellence of this latest work of his.

The other volume, on 'Chateaubriand,' is from the pen of M. Agénor Bardoux, whose name is familiar to readers of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The book is opportune, Chateaubriand's name and influence having come to the front again of late in the discussions aroused by M. de Vogüé's writings. Chateaubriand has suffered from the unduly severe judgment of Ste.-Beuve, too often quoted and relied on, and from the reaction against the exaggerations of the Romantic school of which he was the founder and Rousseau the precursor. M. Bardoux's work is that of a lifelong admirer of the great writer, and it is well done. Written in most captivating style, it sets Chateaubriand before the reader not in one aspect only, but in all phases of his character. M. Bardoux renders an especial service by showing how urgent was the need for the change which Chateaubriand wrought in French letters, how logical was the outburst of lyric passion he gave voice to, and how valuable to the full development of the language and the literature. The book is serious, not flimsy, but it will be popular as it deserves to be.

It is a good sign for the future of the drama that it is again becoming fashionable to publish plays. In France the habit has always obtained. In England Mr. Pinero, Mr. Gilbert, Mr. Jones, and Mr. O. Wilde are now publishing their plays, and in Germany the dramatic section of the catalogue of the marvellously cheap "Universal-Bibliothek" of Reclam is large and growing larger. It contains, besides the dramatic masterpieces of all nations, by Augier, Björnsen, Calderon, Corneille, Goldoni, Goethe, Hugo, Ibsen, etc., many plays by contemporary German dramatists such as Blumenthal, Fulda, Schönthan, Strindberg, and Voss.

*L'Art* for October 1 (Macmillan) opens with the first of a series of letters on the American painters at the Columbian Exposition by Léopold Lefebvre. It is unillustrated save by a poor cut after a portrait exhibited at the Salon of 1882 by Kenyon Cox, and by views of some of the Fair buildings.

Three women, two Americans and one Englishwoman, have been, "by way of exception," fully admitted into the University of Göttingen, by the authority of the Prussian Minister of Education. Two of them are in Mathematics, pupils of Prof. Klein, and one is in Physics. It is fitting that the first official recognition of the presence of women in a Prussian university in recent times should occur at Göttingen, which gave the degree of Doctor of Philosophy to Sophie Kovalevski some twenty years ago.

Another manifestation of interest, on the part of the Göttingen faculty, in the advancement of women's education is furnished by the special courses for women given outside the university by university professors. This year, as last, a considerable number of such courses has been offered, and the work already done by those attending them has received hearty commendation from the instructors.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. write to us as follows:

"We notice that in your last number you spoke of Mr. Aldrich's 'Old Town by the Sea' as a reissue, thereby, of course, giving the impression that it is merely a new edition of a book previously published. The book is wholly new as a book, and indeed a considerable portion of it is entirely new, some portions of it which have appeared in periodicals having been very considerably enlarged and to no small extent rewritten. It will gratify Mr. Aldrich, and be an act of justice, if you will kindly correct the impression given by your remark."

—Seven years ago we noticed the seventh edition of the Fiction Catalogue of the Boston Public Library, and we now have the pleasure of calling our readers' attention to the eighth issue of this work, which must prove of great use everywhere, since the collection to which it is an index contains nearly all the books which any of our popular libraries are likely to have. We are pleased, also, to notice that the cataloguer has come round to our view of the futility of placing George Sand's books elsewhere than under the name by which this author is universally known, and that, in a few cases where we pointed out that names assumed to be genuine were really pseudonyms, the cataloguer has made the needed corrections. We regret, however, to see that many old errors are reproduced; and as the work serves as a bibliography as well as model catalogue to innumerable smaller libraries, we think it worth while to mention some of them. The error most likely to cause confusion arises from an author's works being separated under two or more names (without cross-reference), or entered under their title only, not with his other works under his name. Of this we have marked several instances. Thus, under "Alcott, Harriet H.," is found 'Isora's Child,' while under "Olcott, Harriet A." (the correct spelling), appears 'The Torchlight.' Two stories by Elizabeth W. Bellamy are divided between herself and an imaginary Emily W. Bellamy; of three by J. B. Gilman one falls to his name, while two are entered only under "Walter Wentworth," and Mrs. Lincoln likewise appears as the author of only one work, though the library has another, catalogued under "Gould, Jeanie T." Two of Eleanor C. Price's books are found under her name, but not her 'French Heiress.' Mrs. MacDonnell's 'Martin's Vineyard' appears only under her maiden name. Mrs. F. A. Humphrey's three volumes are denied the companionship of 'A New England Cactus'; Henry Jackson is allowed to be the author of 'A First Friendship,' but his 'Gilbert Rugge' is treated as anonymous. Mme. Reybaud is deprived of 'The Portrait in My Uncle's Dining-room' and 'The Old M'sieur's Secret' (both translations of her 'Mlle. de Malepeire'). Mrs. Marie Field, who was only the translator, is said to be the author of George Sand's 'Wings of Courage.' Mrs. Mary [Lowell] Putnam—who ought to receive honor in her own city if anywhere—is credited with only one of two books. 'Thornicroft's Model' should be restored to Mrs. Margaret Hunt, 'Diane Coryval' to the late Kathleen O'Meara. Under Linda Villari we find no mention of 'European Relations,' though it is entered under its title, nor under Souvestre do we find 'The Slave, the Serf, and the Freeman.'

—A similar class of errors is exemplified by the occurrence under Prof. Hardy's name of two novels written by the late Mrs. Sophy Weitzel; and, again, under that of Ellen *Olney* Kirk of a novel by Mary *Olney*, an Englishwoman. Still stranger is the entering of a single book under "Paul, Margaret A[gnes]," followed, after intervening titles, by "Paull, Margaret A.," with eleven books, of which five belong to Mrs. Paull and six to Mary Anna (Paull) Ripley, who is not mentioned. Miss Lucretia Hale's 'The Spider's Eye' is said to be by Fitz-James O'Brien. Miss Yonge's long list is swelled by one title ('The Gain of a Loss') which belongs to Rose Piddington. 'Gemini' is ascribed to a Mrs. Fox, though its publishers

have repeatedly denied that it was written by her. The author of 'The Rectory of Moreland' is correctly given as Clara M. Thompson, but 'The Chapel of St. Mary,' "by the author of 'The Rectory of Moreland,'" is put down to Mary Evans. 'Mary Evans' is elsewhere entered as a book by C. M. Thompson, though 'Evans, Mary,' is an author. Isabella Harwood, who died in 1883, after writing two novels which had a great run, is not mentioned, though her books are entered by title. The catalogue is further defective in omitting cross-references to works like 'Gil Blas,' 'David Grieve,' 'Huckleberry Finn,' 'Joseph Andrews,' 'Verdant Green,' etc., which are universally known by these abbreviated titles. In this respect it might profitably have imitated the practice of the excellent fiction catalogue of the San Francisco Free Public Library, published in 1891.

—'Field-Marshal Count Helmuth von Moltke as a Correspondent' (Harpers) is a second instalment of the letters of the Prussian general, and is a translation of the first 225 pages of the fifth volume of his collected works, the remainder of that volume consisting of personal recollections contributed by various friends. The letters to his mother and to two of his brothers, which make up the fourth volume of the German edition, were published in English last year and noticed in these columns. The present collection has a more varied interest, in so far as it covers a greater number of topics, and will serve to deepen the impression that Moltke, quite apart from his greatness as a warrior, was a man worthy of admiration for the sterling qualities of head and heart which are unconsciously betrayed in letters never intended for print. If the letters which he wrote to his wife before and after their marriage, and which fill the sixth and largest volume of his works, are ever translated, English readers will have such a picture of the man as will show that his rise in the world was but the natural product of the faithful employment of unusual intellectual and moral gifts. The translation of the present volume is by a new hand. It reads smoothly enough, and, while it renders the sense of the original fairly well, is not always as close as it might have been. The translator appears to have lightened her task a little by skipping the hard words or going around them. The outward dress of the book is very attractive in the matter of print, paper, and binding.

—'Dante's Comedy in English Prose—*Hell*,' by Sir Edward Sullivan, Bart. (London: Elliot Stock), requires no detailed criticism. It reads fluently, and is nearly always intelligible, but when we compare any passage with the original, we find that Sir E. Sullivan is never very exact. The inaccurate temperament which led him to call his translation Dante's "Comedy" instead of "Divine Comedy" shows itself throughout. No one who understood the deep significance of Dante's epic would omit the epithet "Divine" from the title; such an omission is as unjustifiable as would be that of the qualifying adjective "Lost" from Milton's 'Paradise Lost.' So far as we have observed, the translator throws no new light on and gives no felicitous renderings of the many test words and phrases of the text. Often he misses the meaning, as in the lines

> "Quando leggemmo, il disiato riso
> Esser baciato da cotanto amante," (v, 133-4);

which he translates, "When that we came to read of how the smiling lips he loved were kissed by lover such as he." "The smiling lips he loved" is certainly a poor paraphrase of "il disiato riso," and "cotanto amante" does not represent "by lover such as he." We have noted many instances similar to this, but it is not necessary to discuss these. In no sense can Sullivan's version compete with that of John Carlyle or of Prof. Norton. Only readers who wish to get a blurred reproduction of Dante's vivid pictures will be satisfied with this translation; others will object not only to the inaccuracy, but to affectations wholly contrary to Dante's genius. At times, Sir E. Sullivan seems to choose a poor word because he fears that by choosing a good one he might be charged with borrowing from previous translators who have already used it. His translation has no explanatory notes.

—Though privately printed (by A. S. McClurg & Co., Chicago), and not, therefore, seeking criticism or public scrutiny, we cannot let pass without notice an attractive and informing pamphlet, of one hundred and fifty-nine pages, entitled "Japanese Women." It has been compiled by the Japanese Woman's Commission for the World's Columbian Exposition. The aim has been "to present to the World's [World's Fair?] public, however briefly, the true condition of the Japanese woman, ancient and modern." The eight chapters are the work of native authoresses, "each chapter being undertaken by a different lady who is especially interested in and perfectly informed of the subject assigned her." While bearing unmistakable marks both of the presence of the native censor and of the absence of purists in English, the discussion and presentation of the Japanese woman in politics, literature, religion, domestic life, industrial occupations, accomplishments, and in the charities and education of the present, or Meiji era, are highly creditable to the editor and contributors. The illustrations are simple but accurate. Biographical outlines and details of famous women are numerous. One sees clearly how much higher, in ancient Japan of the pre-Confucian ages, was the position of woman than after the dominance of Chinese ethics and philosophy. Yet it must not be forgotten that, while ten empresses have sat on the throne, while the early national literature is almost wholly the creation of Japanese women, and while female exemplars of courage, ability, and devotion, as pictured in tradition, art, literature, and sober history, are numerous, yet these were almost wholly within the court circle. The ultra-patriotic devotee of "Japan for the Japanese," or the radical Shintōist, would have hard work, we imagine, to prove that the introduction of Chinese ethics did not greatly improve the status of Japanese women in general. Most frankly, the authoresses acknowledge the good influence in every walk of life of Buddhism. Christianity, though still the religion of only a small minority, is treated as one of the settled faiths of the people. The chapters on domestic life and industrial occupations are of especial value for their contemporaneous interest. Since by the Constitution of 1889 the imperial succession is in the male line only, the words by which it is signified that Japanese women will not henceforth, as so frequently in centuries past, be publicly active in matters of state, are of interest. They show, what other parts of the work abundantly prove, that female energies are to have all the greater outlet in the new life of the nation. Resisting the temptation to quote or hint further, we can only add that the pamphlet, despite its interest, does but reflect credit indirectly upon the foreign scholars who, years ago, set forth so much of the substance of these chapters. On the final page, it is shown in the tabulated statistics, that in 1891 there were, besides the great number of private technical, professional, language, and ordinary schools, the kindergartens, and the higher normal and female schools, 917,270 female students and 4,149 female teachers in the public or common schools.

—Apropos of our note, in No. 1480, that, according to the last report of the Japanese Department for Education, the city library of Tokyo contains 2,332 foreign works in a total of 31,629 volumes, a traveller writes:

"Visiting the Tokyo public library on September 29, 1890, although the entirest stranger and ignorant of the Japanese tongue, I was readily allowed by officials almost as ignorant of mine to wander among the stacks. What I understood to be the American quarter consisted of seven rather long shelves. On these I observed the works of Irving, Webster, Bancroft, Prescott, Motley, some of the Abbott histories, etc. What I especially noted was two copies of Milton and six editions of Shakspere. Probably there were other shelves which escaped my eye. One of the first books I opened was an English Bible published by the American Bible Society, on the first fly-leaf of which I read, written in a fair hand, these words, 'Presented to St. Nicholas Hotel, New York City.' Was it an American or a Japanese guest who held it for a pious fraud to steal the Holy Book? or did the proprietor of the hotel think that he placed it where it would do the most good by sending it to the heathen? The library building, said to have once been a temple of Confucius, is spacious and well-lighted, with trees and an open space around it. Some readers were seated at the tables, but the books, as I understood, were mostly taken out for perusal at home."

## RITCHIE'S DARWIN AND HEGEL.

*Darwin and Hegel*, with Other Philosophical Studies. By David G. Ritchie, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Jesus College, Oxford. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1893.

AN undeniable knack for clear analysis of questions has Mr. Ritchie. He shows symptoms, too, of a power of grasping and handling very broad philosophical arguments, without which power it would be useless to attack such a problem as he has set himself. His greatest fault is no doubt plain to himself, and should correct itself with time: it is that he has not thought enough. His own suggestions are not thoroughly worked out; and there are very pertinent questions that do not seem to have occurred to him.

The object of Mr. Ritchie's studies has been to determine how far the conceptions of Hegel can advantageously be applied in Darwinian speculation. But he does not pretend to offer any definite answer to the question, speaking, indeed, of his "philosophic creed" as "but partially formulated." Everybody qualified to form even a rudimentary judgment upon Hegel has long ago recognized in his 'Phenomenology' and 'Logic' rich mines of philosophic thought, whose ore, however, is intimately combined with the gangue of error—some say with more, some with less—from which we hardly know how to separate it. Germany, after following with docility the Hegelian method, was certainly in the best possible situation to judge it by its fruits. The outcome, as all the world knows, was an overpowering disgust; so much so that not the slightest attention is any longer paid in Germany to any of the Hegelian ideas. But by this revolution the Germans unconsciously confess their own weakness in logic—a weakness that has always

been evident enough to foreigners. Even without that awful warning, American and English thought could never have been caught in Hegel's too easily detected traps. Not going in so blindly as did German thought, it will be able to derive more good from Hegel's endeavors. However, the world still awaits a satisfactory criticism of Hegel; and towards that Mr. Ritchie helps us little.

The author adopts provisionally the hypothesis of materialism. He speaks of "that materialistic monism which is nowadays the working hypothesis of every scientific explorer in every department." This attitude is certainly very much more moderate than that of the ardent Büchnerites and Haeckelites with whom Germany and the German parts of this country swarm, who inscribe Materialistic Monism upon their banners. Yet Mr. Ritchie unquestionably goes too far in saying that materialism is the working hypothesis of all explorers. For what is a working hypothesis? It is a problematic proposition that touches a question of fact, and from which can be deduced definite consequences which the inquirer is engaged in testing by comparing them with observations. Now it would be absurd to say that an astronomer, a physicist, or a chemist is engaged in testing the consequences of materialism; for even if materialism be false, nobody doubts that the phenomena with which those men deal are the same as if it were true. Equally ridiculous would it be to say that a geometrician, or an historian, or an economist, or a student of jurisprudence is engaged in testing the consequences of materialism. Indeed, the only inquirers whom the question of materialism at all concerns are a certain class of biologists and a certain class of psychologists. Now there cannot be the slightest question that the initial working hypothesis of these inquirers must be the hypothesis of materialism. *Entia non sunt multiplicanda*, etc.; and their first business must be to see whether they can get along without supposing a second kind of substance and a second order of laws, or not. Therefore, to say that materialism remains the working hypothesis of those whom the question concerns is, after all, merely to say that nothing decisively fatal to that hypothesis has yet been brought to light. Even now, there are eminent biologists who hold that the hypothesis is refuted, and at least half the psychologists are of the same opinion—and this, although the question is whether the facts *can be made to fit* that hypothesis. Were the question simply whether the facts seem on the whole to be favorable or unfavorable to materialism, the vote against it would, of course, be larger.

Wherein do materialistic monism and idealistic monism differ? Only in this, that the former makes the laws of mind a special result of the laws of matter, while the latter makes the laws of matter a special result of the laws of mind. Now, one of the Hegelian ideas that Mr. Ritchie wishes to introduce (though it would be needless to raise the ghost of Hegel merely for this suggestion) is that of teleology —that states of things are to be explained, not by instantaneous conditions, nor by what went before, but by what is to result later. Indeed, Hegel or no Hegel, the materialist is plainly confronted with the following problem: The laws of matter are entirely blind, or non-teleological, only prescribing that in given relative positions the motions of particles shall have given accelerations: now, mind does not act blindly, but pursues purposes; therefore the problem is how teleological or purposed action can be a secondary effect of non-teleological action. This problem, says Mr. Ritchie, Darwinism solves. The tendency to an end, according to generalized Darwinism, or the tendency towards the production of definite forms of phenomena, is due to the combination of two agencies, the first being fortuitous insensible variation, or the gradual diversification of forms, and the second the destruction of forms whose modification shall have carried them over certain limits. This second agency may undoubtedly be supposed to be of the nature of mechanical law; but whether the phenomenon of diversification can be explained by the action of unyielding law is a question which Mr. Ritchie has yet to consider.

That which conferred upon the Darwinian hypothesis its sovereignty over subsequent thought was its power of explaining what seemed so mysterious by conceptions mathematically definite. The conception of fortuitous variation is so exact that it can be expressed by a mathematical equation. In fact, it is expressed by the formula which expresses the conduction of heat, the action of viscosity, and the diffusion of gases. All these phenomena are explained by physicists as results of Bernouilli's law of high numbers, where the same idea of multitude reappears which is directly involved in the Darwinian hypothesis. The same formula shows itself in the doctrine of chances, in the theory of errors of observation, and in the logic of inductive reasoning. As well as we can make it out, the law of mental association, which is at least strongly analogous to induction, is probably of the same form. All these things seem to be connected. These considerations serve to illustrate, what can be shown in many ways, how the perfect definiteness of the conceptions which enter into a theory contribute to its fruitfulness. One of the worst faults of the Hegelian philosophy is that its conceptions are wanting in this definiteness, and that its consequences are not unmistakable. When Mr. Ritchie undertakes to "Hegelianize natural selection" by the remark that "Heredity and Variation are just particular forms of the categories of Identity and Difference, whose union and interaction produce the actually existing kinds of living beings," he makes us think that Hegelianism needs to be Darwinized much more than Darwinism needs to be Hegelianized.

The first essay in the book is entitled "Origin and Validity." Its purpose is to show that it is one thing to ask how a belief has arisen and another to ask how it is justified. Surely, we are not justified in believing a proposition not yet sufficiently proved. But no doubt that which suggests a proposition is one thing and that which proves it is another; and the formula of generalized Darwinianism would make this to be so. A theory arises by some slight original modification of an idea already in our possession. It is not yet justified, but it is provisionally allowed a place among the possibilities as a "working hypothesis." After that it has to fight its way, and it is by its results that it is destined sooner or later to be condemned or modified. But whether this is a complete and accurate formulation of the universal history of science is a question that it were best to be in no haste to answer.

But no sooner have we made the innocent admission that the question of origin is one thing and the question of validity another, than we find Mr. Ritchie purposes to use our concession as a gate at which Kant's transcendental proof and Hegel's idealism may gain entrance. If we wish to avoid the terrible loss of time from which Germany suffered during the Hegelian period, we shall do well to be very cautious here. A metaphysical philosophy, in the sense of that which is to be definitively accepted in advance of scientific inquiry, is, or should be, a system of pigeon-holes in which facts are to be filed away. Its first merit is to give a place to every possible fact. Whatever could conceivably be settled by experiment, metaphysics should abstain from settling in advance. Mr. Ritchie professes a readiness to admit all that Auguste Comte said in condemnation of what he called "metaphysics." What Comte called "metaphysics" was unverifiable hypothesis—unverifiable, not in the sense of supposing a fact not capable of being directly observed, for many indispensable hypotheses do that, but unverifiable in the sense of leading to no unmistakable consequences capable of being put to the test of comparison with observation. An a-priori philosophy ought not to pronounce in advance upon the truth of anything which is capable of verification or refutation by subsequent experience. But beyond the realm of verification truth and falsity lose their meanings. Hence the moment a philosopher, upon a-priori or epistemological grounds, enunciates any proposition whatever as true, we are warned to be upon our guard against some jugglery. Where we have no scientifically observed facts to go upon, the prudent thing is to confess our downright ignorance. Even where we have such facts, we are subject to a probable error. From this pregnant fact, if one only takes it to heart, can be developed a whole Darwinianized Hegelism, having fruitful suggestions and indications for the prosecution of science and for the conduct of life.

## MORE FICTION.

*The Coast of Bohemia.* By William Dean Howells. Harpers.

*Duffels.* By Edward Eggleston. D. Appleton & Co.

*The One I Knew the Best of All.* By Frances Hodgson Burnett. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*A Liberal Education.* By Mrs. George Martyn. Frederick Warne & Co.

*Seraph:* A Tale of Hungary. By Sacher-Masoch. Translated by Emma M. Phelps. Geo. M. Allen Co.

"If people only kept to what they knew," says one of the characters in Mr. Howells's latest novel, "and didn't do what they divined, there would be very little art or literature left, it seems to me." And the hero answers, with the true realistic doctrine, "Perhaps the less the better. What was left would certainly be the best." This is the condemnation of the book. It is only the *coast* of Bohemia that our author pretends to visit, but one feels that even the coast has been seen only from the decks of an excursion steamer, and that the observer never really landed on the shores of that, for him, still undiscovered country. In a word, Mr. Howells blunders constantly as to the facts of the life of an art-student in New York. His mistakes are both general and particular, and we shall take the pains to point out a few of each.

In the first place, he shares with the romantic novelist the peculiarity of making his hero and heroine preposterously young. There are exceptions to all rules, but the artist who should return to this country, after years of study abroad, and take a position as a man of some importance and an exhibitor at the Academy and the Society of American Artists at the ripe age of twenty-two, would be little less than an infant prodigy. After that, the fact

that he should be courted by lion-hunters and called, if only by an enthusiastic young lady, "the greatest artist in New York" at twenty-seven, ceases to be astonishing. That "art is long" Mr. Howells does indeed seem to recognize in a passage in which one student tells another that ten years of school is needed; but apparently he thinks it is different with "geniuses," and he does not hesitate to make a young girl from the country who has had no previous training whatever, and who is drawing "block-hands" at "the Synthesis," paint, before the end of her first season, a portrait so good that two eminent painters discuss it gravely, and are indignant with the blundering Jury of the Academy for refusing it! Could the most arrant of romancers be more inconsequent?

To come to particulars, it is evident that "the Synthesis" is intended for the Art Students' League, though what is the humor of calling such a practical and business-like association by such a high-sounding name we cannot see. After one week in the Preparatory, Cornelia, the heroine, is taken to lunch with the girls of the Life Class, and Charmian, another Preparatory student, having "reported everywhere that she had genius," the Life Class accepts her as if she had, and makes her at home among them. Now, if Mr. Howells did not know, we are surprised that he did not "divine," that this is quite impossible. He surely has heard of the sophomore's contempt for a freshman, and this is as nothing to the old student's contempt for a "nouveau" in a foreign studio or a "Prep" in the League. But still ranker impossibilities are to follow. Charmian is shown to us a little later organizing the masquerade of the Synthesis, and heading a party and gravely debating the policy to be adopted. Now these questions are decided in the League, as in other bodies, by the members, and no student is eligible for membership without having studied in the Life Class for a certain length of time. Then the student's name must be duly proposed, his drawings must be examined by the Board of Control and his candidacy approved, and finally he must be elected at a general meeting of the League. A student not yet a member has nothing to do with the policy of the League, and would be tolerated at one of its costume parties (they are not "masquerades," and are never called so) only as the personal guest of a member. Thus it is with Mr. Howells's realism throughout. The book does not deal at all with the real life of the real art student, and the scene is either "society" or the sham studio of a sham Bohemian who poses as an artist for her own amusement. This romantic and silly young woman is cleverly drawn. For the rest, there is love-making that might take place anywhere, and an artist who might be anything else, and there is a good deal of rather bright talk. Finally, there is a rather coarse sketch of one of those disgusting insects whom Mr. Howells describes so well, and who this time is called Mr. J. B. Dickerson, traveller in art goods

There is small danger that Dr. Eggleston's stories will ever prove caviare to the general. He keeps his eye continually on the reader, and seems, as it were, to come forward to meet him rubbing his hands and wearing the jovial air of good-fellowship that makes no mystery of his art, but promises a full and frank confession of all there is about it. That both his manner and matter will prove as popular in this volume as they have in his others need not be doubted. We should not, for our own part, have considered it entirely fair to form from it an opinion of Dr. Eggleston's powers, but he himself states in the preface his willingness to be judged by the later-written of the eleven stories that compose it. One of these, "Huldah the Help," is the first story, worthy of a name as such, ever written by Dr. Eggleston. It is democratic in spirit and not exciting in substance. Others of the eleven were written in the next succeeding year, 1871. The first in order in the volume, "Sister Tabea," seems to us far and away the most attractive of them all. It has not, perhaps, the hearty familiarity that characterizes the others, but this breach of custom is more than atoned for by an attractive mingling of subdued humor and unusual delicacy of sentiment. Like two or three more of the collection, it deals with a phase of early American settlement, while "The Christmas Club" is noteworthy as setting forth the most advanced ideas of present-day workers and settlers in slums. Most readers, except those who are familiar with the vernacular of Adirondack guides, will, we fancy, find their vocabularies increased by a word after learning from Dr. Eggleston's preface the meaning and etymology of the name "Duffels."

The tissue of Mrs. Burnett's autobiographical sketch has seemed from its first appearance in periodical instalments to be woven of the opposing strands first intermingled in the classic 'Dichtung und Wahrheit.' This impression is confirmed by her own suggestion, in the preface, of "The Story of *any* Child with an Imagination" as a possible sub-title for the volume. Naturally the world at large is ready enough to be taken into Mrs. Burnett's confidence to any degree, or on any terms on which she is willing to admit it. Moreover, the story of the small Manchester girl who grew old enough to have an experience of a cotton famine, and who came finally to live among the mountains of Tennessee and North Carolina because there were openings in the New World for big brothers, contains many pretty episodes gayly and fluently told. The narrative, too, rises to a climax at its close in nothing less than the acceptance by an editor of two stories by a girl of fifteen, a more juvenile success than even Miss Alcott could boast. But books follow close upon the heels of one another nowadays; and when the echo of one has hardly had time to die away from the mind before another comes, it is almost impossible to avoid comparisons. Thus, this volume inevitably recalls another composed in much the same vein, and forces the admission that of the exquisite charm of the story of childhood in 'Peter Ibbetson' it falls far short. The history of Gogo Pasquier is contained in as few as eighty pages, while Mrs. Burnett allows herself no less than three hundred and twenty-five. Expansiveness, here as elsewhere, is seriously akin to diluteness, and both are, it must be admitted, too apt to distinguish the work of the sex to which Mrs. Burnett belongs. A very easy and quite sufficient explanation of the frequency of this association of qualities and sex may be found in the record of the typical girl's education enjoyed in Manchester, and afterwards, by the very talented "Small Person," as she here dubs herself, who lived to become the author of 'That Lass o' Lowrie's' and 'Little Lord Fauntleroy.'

It seems not unlikely that if Mr. Ruskin had ever read 'A Liberal Education,' he might have found for it some of the praise he once dealt with such lavish hand to "Francesca's" sketches of Italian peasants. Not that this story has to do with either Italy or *contadini*. Its scenes shift from Aldershot to the downs of the lovely English west country, thence to India, and back again to the downs. But the unity of atmosphere is well kept up, notwithstanding the "large leagues of land" traversed, and the artlessness of the presentment of persons and incidents leaves nothing to be desired by the most confirmed pre-Raphaelite in literature. A goodish lad, so the story runs, becomes by stages a good, a better, and at last an altogether exemplary young man. He gets the sweetest of all possible girls for his sweetheart; his trials melt away one by one, and in the end all goes merry as his marriage bell. Only one dash of sadness is left to cloud the blue. That such a story is not mawkish is merely another proof of the lasting power of simplicity, sincerity, and directness of expression. The descriptions of nature are delicate in feeling and charming, and one puts down the little volume with the unapt title rather surprised at not having been bored by so much naturalness and naïveté, but with a pleasant sense, on the contrary, of having been not unprofitably entertained.

Once in a while one comes across that rare thing, a happily inspired novel which seems to give a new reading of life. Then a corner of the dark curtain is pulled back, and the end whither instincts and dispositions are drifting or driving their possessors is made clear to the inner vision. By the light thus flashed into the obscure places of character it even becomes possible to pick one's way for a time more safely among the gins and snares of the spoiler. But such is precisely the effect that the story of 'Seraph,' a young man unkindly destined by his mother to be the Nemesis of her wrongs, has not. In these pages persons are jerked hither and thither after the fashion of puppets in a show. Between themselves and their actions there is none of that obvious intimacy that strikes even the tyro in observation. Grapes, they seem to imply, *are* gathered of thorns and figs of thistles. This is all the more a pity because the material for a good story is at hand, and the promise of the spirited opening scene is for one. The Carpathian mountains, too, are, together with their traditions, terra incognita to most readers, and the dark waif Magdalina, who flashes like a will-o'-the-wisp about the castle of Honoriec, seemed at first glance a creature formed to make situations. But, with the best will in the world to be entertained by an old-world romance, it is not easy work to make either rhyme or reason out of this chapter of Hungarian domestic tragedy.

## COLLEGE SPORTS.

*University Football:* The Play of each Position Treated by a College Expert. Edited by James R. Church. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

*Walter Camp's Book of College Sports.* The Century Co. 1893.

MR. CHURCH'S little book is intended more especially for the use of players, and gives very little information available for the general reader. It is a series of short essays, each treating of some special feature of the game or the play of some position on the team. The papers in the main are well written, and the book will, no doubt, serve the purpose for which it was intended. One must not turn to it for answers to the many grave questions which old lovers of the game as well as anxious parents are asking themselves. The latter, indeed, will meet with statements calculated to confirm their worst fears. They are told "that the shoving wedge 'broke up' too many men, and its use was discontinued" until

Yale revived it in 1888 "and used it with telling effect, especially against Harvard" (p. 18). The University of Pennsylvania, "by constantly bumping the centre men of the opposite line, destroyed the wedge. The only other way to stop the pushing wedge was to lie down in front of it" (p. 21). Further on we find set forth, as one of the duties of the end-rusher, that "when he thinks his opponents are going to kick, . . . he follows down after his opposing end and bunts him over as he slows up to tackle the full-back" (p. 40). In fact, the work of the end-rusher "is all fast, hard, and rough." Of the tackle we read (p. 44) that "the chief feature of this [play], however, is the very slight attention given to the elbows, or the places they may strike; except in extreme cases it is hardly to be resorted to." We find, also, that "one of the best ways to make a hole in the line is to play very low and slightly back from the line, jumping forward quickly, getting the opponent a little below the hip with the shoulder. It is seldom that an adequate opening cannot be made in this manner" (p. 47). We are told that "in tackling, a guard, as well as all players, should tackle low wherever it is possible; but there are many times in the guard's position when a low tackle is impossible on account of close quarters, and he should never hesitate to tackle his man wherever he can take him" (p. 55). It is interesting in this connection to read in rule 27 that, "for the offence of intentional tackling below the knees," there shall be a forfeit of twenty-five yards or a free kick to the opponents. Apropos of another clause in the same rule, which says that "a player shall be disqualified for unnecessary roughness," we read (p. 76): "In fact, nothing affords greater pleasure on the football field than bowling over some big opponent just as he is bracing himself for a tackle." In view of statements like these from professed champions of the game, is it to be wondered at that anxious parents dread the return of autumn?

It is true that football is, has always been, and of necessity must always be, a rough game. There is a line, however, which separates roughness from brutality, and there are many lovers of the game who, after watching its recent developments with grave concern, believe that that line has been crossed. It is to them a matter of regret that the objections which have been urged against the game from the outset, have now such a solid foundation that they cannot be overlooked. In fact, we find in this very book (p. 29) the following frank admission that football has deteriorated:

> "With the introduction of the wedge much of the picturesqueness of football passed away. Many a regret is heard because the days of long passes, open play, free running, and repeated kicking are gone. The wedge contracts the play; it huddles the players; it removes the brilliancy and effect of individual effort; it injures too many players, a dozen ankles and knees being sprained to-day to one ten years ago. These disadvantages have called forth adverse criticism relative to the wedge."

Now the wedge is the great feature of the present game, and, although it is undoubtedly a very interesting feature, it ought to be eliminated as dangerous to life and limb. Moreover, while the "science" of the game has been developed in a way which would not have been thought possible ten years ago, yet had that development been along slightly different lines, it would have been quite as interesting to the players, far more interesting to the spectators, and much more satisfactory to parents and guardians. This might have been brought about if an intelligent and effective body of graduate opinion could have been brought directly to bear upon the game. Hearty praise is certainly due to Mr. Walter Camp for the interest he has shown in football and the care and study he has bestowed upon it; but it is not good for such a game to owe too much to any one man. The absolute control of one man over legislation of any kind is not salutary, as it is apt to take the color of his defects as well as his virtues; and "in a multitude of counsellors there is wisdom." Mr. Camp would probably be the first to welcome the suggestions and advice of such a body as has been suggested.

The weakness or inefficiency of umpires and referees has been a crying evil from the first. It is a very difficult task to umpire a game of football properly, and the lack of care in selecting these important officers has led directly to those developments of the game most open to criticism. In old days when a man was ahead of the ball, he was, for the time being, out of the game. His duty was to move towards the ball without interfering in any way with the other players. Offside play was unfair play. It was manifestly difficult to enforce this rule—difficult, but not impossible. Undergraduate public opinion unfortunately allowed the college elevens to adopt offside play, on the principle that anything was fair that the umpire could not or would not see. It was natural that a college team, after trying to play fairly and according to rule, on finding itself beaten by continued unfair play and a careless umpire, should decide that it was better to recognize offside play frankly and squarely so that both sides should be on an even footing. So the rule forbidding offside play was altered, thereby changing the whole game, and changing it for the worse. From this has followed the whole system of interference and wedge playing, which is so characteristic of the modern game and which arouses such severe and just criticism. The game has almost ceased to be *foot*ball. It is far less interesting to watch; it is far more dangerous to play. The old rule against offside play must be put in force again before the game can recover the confidence of those who have the right to be the judges, regain its interest and its brilliancy, and be relieved of its brutality. But even then it must be supported by the feeling among all undergraduates that rules are made to be obeyed and not to be broken, and that a man who is not honest enough to play strictly within the rules is not fit to represent his college.

Mr. Camp is probably the best-known authority on college sports in this country, and, taking for his text track athletics, rowing, baseball, and football, he gives us in the handsome volume issued by the Century Company not only a full account of these sports, but a wealth of anecdote connected with remarkable and historical games that makes his book a new departure and is sure to delight his readers. It is often and truly said that young people take very little interest in the achievements of earlier generations, but, while this may be true of poetry or politics or philanthropy, it is not true of athletics. Success in public life or in literature may entirely fail to arouse the enthusiasm of the young, but it is safe to say that no college man of to-day can read unmoved Mr. Camp's description of Lamar's run in 1885, Bull's goals from the field in 1888, or the Yale-Atalanta boat-race in 1890.

Owing to the season of the year, the athletic reader, whose name is legion, will probably turn first to Mr. Camp's remarks on football. Apart from the admirable accounts of particular games that have passed into football history, these eager readers will find Mr. Camp's pages somewhat barren of novelty. This is due in part to the fact that he has already covered the ground pretty thoroughly in a previous volume, and partly also to the frequent changes that are being introduced into the game. Mr. Camp very truly remarks that it is further from the limit of its development than any other college sport. He is popularly supposed to preside over the birth of certain improvements each year at New Haven, while Mr. Deland is similarly employed behind a high fence at Cambridge. And so, while the game is theoretically like a somewhat violent form of chess, the "openings" have not yet assumed definite shape, and therefore the writer on football treats last season's novelties with a certain reserve, feeling sure that they will be supplanted by others before the great games are over. In the other branches of college sport there is no such difficulty. In track athletics, for instance, the only changes from year to year are the steady cutting down of records, due to improved methods of training and practice, and the most important point that Mr. Camp insists upon is, that no man knows what he can do until he tries. The least promising material sometimes finds its natural development in one of the many branches of this division of sport, and excellent general results may be attained by young men who could never expect to reach championship form.

To baseball Mr. Camp devotes a large part of his space, and he seems to have left nothing needful unsaid in regard to the theory and practice of this excellent game. Moreover, this part of the book is especially rich in anecdotes that recall the stirring struggles of the past. On the whole, Mr. Camp has produced a book that will certainly take high rank, and the manly tone of his introductory remarks on professionalism and kindred subjects cannot be too highly commended at the present time.

## BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

*Life and Art of Edwin Booth.* By William Winter. Macmillan & Co.

*Leaves from the Autobiography of Tommaso Salvini.* The Century Co.

*Songs of a Strolling Player.* By Robert George Legge. London: A. D. Innes & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

EVER since there have been any books about the stage, a very large proportion of them have been biographies, and, as Lowell declared four or five years ago, "biography in these communicative days has become so voluminous that it might seem calculated rather for the ninefold vitality of another domestic animal than for the less lavish allotment of man." It is with pleasure, therefore, that the reader takes up the single volume in which Mr. Winter has told the story of the life of the greatest actor yet born in America; and the pleasure is enhanced by the directness with which Mr. Winter gets to work, and by the sincerity of his handling of difficult topics. Booth has indeed been fortunate in his biographers and in his critics. Even his death did not call forth a single one of the catchpenny compilations, compounded of myth and malignity, of which there are so many on the shelves of the theatrical collector. Two of the many magazine articles (which in the nineteenth century have taken the place held in the eighteenth century by the occasional pamphlets) were of unusual value. One, in the *Forum*, by Mr. John Malone, formerly an actor in Booth's company, gave a most welcome glimpse into his work-

shop on the stage itself, and the other, in the *Atlantic*, by Mr. Clapp, was one of the best pieces of theatrical criticism ever written in this country. Then came Mr. Laurence Hutton's simple and sympathetic sketch, and now we have this memorial of Mr. Winter's.

Mr. Winter tells the story of Booth's life succinctly and yet with sufficient fulness. His frankness in regard to the tendency towards intemperance which Booth inherited from his father, and which he did not wholly overcome until after the death of his first wife, will help to kill the exaggerated tales still current to Booth's disadvantage. And equally frank is Mr. Winter's discussion of the causes of the failure of Booth's Theatre, which was not because the public would not support a playhouse devoted to the higher drama, but because Booth had not the firmness and the skill which the management of such a theatre demanded. Mr. Winter quotes a letter in which Booth frankly acknowledges this (p. 80). Yet it was a noble effort. "Booth's Theatre," said Mr. Jefferson, "is conducted as a theatre should be—like a church behind the curtain and like a counting-house in front of it." There is in Mr. Alger's elaborate biography of Edwin Forrest an account of the dignified rebuke that actor administered to a clergyman who wished to see a performance in the theatre, himself unseen; and Mr. Winter records here the lofty reply of Edwin Booth to a clergyman who desired to be admitted privately to the playhouse that his parishioners might not see him —"There is no door in my theatre through which God cannot see." Booth twice made an attempt to confer substantial benefit on the art he loved. The first time was when he built Booth's Theatre; the second time was when he founded The Players, and in this second attempt he was abundantly successful. Despite pain and failing memory, the last years of the tragedian were happy, and to this happiness the success of The Players contributed much. Mr. Winter's account of this club (p. 134) is not quite accurate. He notes Booth's wish that at least 10 per cent. of the members should be actors, and it might therefore have been well to record that about two hundred and fifty of the eight hundred members to-day are actors, managers, or dramatists. As a whole, Mr. Winter's book is most accurate; it abounds in facts which it was desirable to have preserved, and it is rich in the sympathy which understands and explains.

Satisfactory and delightful as it is, however, it is to be regretted that Booth did not write his autobiography. He told a story admirably, with a keen sense of humor; and when he wrote he had command of a very Shaksperian vocabulary. The brief papers on his father and on Edmund Kean, as well as the pregnant notes written for Mr. Furness, remain to suggest to us what Booth might have written had he chosen. As Longfellow declared, "autobiography is what biography ought to be"; and if Booth did not take this to heart, the great Italian actor to whose *Othello* he once played *Iago* has done so. We understand that this English translation contains but a selection from the much longer Italian original still unpublished; it embraces the incidents and criticisms of other performers most likely to interest readers of English. It enables us to become acquainted with a character almost as transparent as Booth's, although far from being as simple. Booth was singularly modest, while Signor Salvini avails himself fully of the privileges of egotism and garrulity allowed to every autobiographer. In fact, the frankness of Signor Salvini's interest in himself is its own excuse; he is right in believing himself so great an actor that what interests him shall interest us also. So we are not offended when we read that the performance of "La Morte Civile" in Paris in 1877 was "a real revelation to the Parisians. It would be tedious to repeat all that the greatest artistic and literary luminaries wrote of it. Victor Hugo, La Pommeraye, Zola, Gautier, Vitu, elevated to the stars both composition and interpretation." Gautier's opinion it would be curious to have, as he died five years before this performance took place in Paris. Signor Salvini tells us of his youth, of his first humble appearance on the stage, of his early successes, of his later triumphs, and of his stellar wanderings. He gives us his impressions, not only of his compatriots, Modena, Rossi, and Ristori, but also of Rachel, Sarah Bernhardt, Coquelin, Mounet-Sully, Edwin Booth, and Henry Irving. In none of these valuable appreciations is there anything niggardly; Signor Salvini praises like a sovereign secure on his throne, and like an artist from whom no secret of his art is hidden. Entertaining, also, is his account of his service with Garibaldi and of his relations with Dom Pedro. The book contains eight illustrations, of which the most striking is "Ristori as *Mary Stuart*"; but it has no index—a deficiency to be noted also in Mr. Winter's volume.

There are many poems upon the great players of the past, but there are very few verses by the players of the present. The latest book of stage stanzas before Mr. Legge's is a dozen years old at least; it was the 'Sous les Frises' of M. Jules Truffier of the Comédie Française—more polished than these 'Songs of a Strolling Player,' and more literary. But Mr. Legge has caught the flavor of the playhouse better than his French predecessor. The 'Ballad of the Low Comedian' is perhaps a little obvious and commonplace, yet the incident on which it is based is common enough. "Retired," with its nostalgia for the abandoned stage, is true to the facts of life, and so are "Art" and "Our Amateur."

## FIVE BOOKS ON THE PIANO.

*A Pedal Method for the Piano.* By A. F. Venino. E. Schuberth.

*A History of Pianoforte Playing and Pianoforte Literature.* By C. Weitzmann. G. Schirmer.

*The Æsthetics of Pianoforte Playing.* By A. Kullak. G. Schirmer.

*The Pianist's Art.* By A. Carpé. Chicago: Lyon & Healy.

*The Steinert Collection of Keyed and Stringed Instruments.* C. F. Tretbar.

LAST year Messrs. Scribner issued a 'Musical Literature List' of 64 pages, cataloguing not only their own publications in this line, but other important works. This year a new edition has been issued, enlarged to 104 pages. This does not indicate that musical literature has almost doubled in volume since last year, but merely that the collection has been made more complete. Nevertheless, there is a remarkable activity in the publishing of books on musical topics. Scribner's list contains nineteen books relating to the pianoforte and its literature, and to-day we have before us for review five more in this one branch.

When he was engaged in revising his transcriptions of Beethoven's symphonies, Liszt wrote to his publisher that there was one point on which he would insist, to the verge of rebellion, namely, on his numerous pedal marks. Strict attention to the pedal and persistent use of it formed one of the chief distinctions between the Chopin-Liszt method of playing and that of their predecessors. We know, too, that Rubinstein and Paderewski, the greatest of living pianists, not only have followed in the footsteps of Chopin and Liszt, but have revealed still more subtle and varied charms obtainable by a skilful use of the pedal. Strange to say, the piano teachers have hitherto been so busy with their scales and arpeggios and five-finger exercises that they have found little or no time to attend to the pedalling, leaving their pupils to find out its secrets for themselves. Composers, too, have been careless in their pedal marks, and editors have often made confusion worse confounded. It may be truly said, therefore, that the greatest desideratum in piano literature has been a treatise on the use of the pedal, thoroughly up to date. Such a book is Mr. Venino's 'Pedal Method,' which no student of the piano should fail to procure, and which will prove suggestive to teachers and even to professional concert pianists, many of whom (including such an eminent man as D'Albert) often use the pedal incorrectly or carelessly.

Mr. Venino's book contains many illustrations in musical type, in which the superiority of his new method of indicating the use and cessation of the pedal over the one now in vogue is so obvious at a glance that it is to be hoped it will be at once adopted in all printed music. It will complicate the notation somewhat, but the gain will more than compensate for that, since the pedal regulates not only the loudness and softness of tone, but the duration, and, above all, enriches and beautifies the tone, thus constituting two-thirds of what is commonly called a pianist's "touch," which is to him what the natural quality of the voice is to a singer. The same piano sounds very differently under different hands, and this is very largely a matter of pedalling. The author considers the pedal from every point of view, as governed by tempo, duration, the harmonic and melodic elements, and the pitch. He is a pupil of Leschetizky (Paderewski's teacher), and introduces some useful hints by his master, with others by Paderewski and Dr. William Mason. There are remarks, too, on the danger of using the pedal too constantly; on the "half-pedal"; and on the modern middle pedal, which Paderewski, strange to say, does not use, but which is extremely valuable for sustaining special tones, and which, as the author remarks, will doubtless suggest special effects to future composers.

Weitzmann's history of pianoforte-playing and pianoforte literature has long been esteemed an indispensable handbook by all students who can read German. Those who cannot do so will be extremely indebted to Dr. Th. Baker for making it accessible to them in an excellent English version. We have in this book a series of clear and concise sketches of the earliest clavier-playing in Italy, France, and Germany; the lyrical style, the dramatic, the brilliant, and the romantic styles. If this classification is somewhat artificial and arbitrary, it serves perhaps as well as any other as a string to collect the facts upon. Weitzmann is just to all schools, and touches rather upon the virtues of the masters than on their shortcomings. He is thoroughly in sympathy with the modern schools of music, is a great champion of Liszt and Wagner, and is also the author of two books on harmony in which he treats that science from the modern point of view, to the great disgust of the pedants. Several chapters

have been added by Otto Lessman, who also supplies a biographical sketch. The plan followed by Weitzmann is to give a few biographic facts in the case of each composer, followed by a critical estimate, and a complete list of his works. These lists are very useful as a compendium of piano-literature, but they should have been printed apart from the text, in smaller type. The second half of the book contains an elaborate history of the pianoforte, and there is an appendix with a copious selection of clavier compositions of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries.

Another well-known German treatise translated by Dr. Baker is Kullak's 'Æsthetics of Pianoforte Playing.' The name of Kullak is household in Germany, and the fact that his book has reached its third edition there argues its utility. Its value to serious students must be conceded; in its practical parts it contains many useful hints regarding touch and execution, and the important matter of expression is ponderously dealt with in the second part. But the style is too dry, abstruse, Hegelian, and tiresome to commend it very highly to American readers, who usually have not the patience of Germans in putting up with arduous and transcendental writing. However, we would not discourage serious students from reading this book, which, we repeat, is a useful one, and often suggestive.

Adolp Karpé's work is divided into five sections, headed Technic, Fingering, Expression, Character, Outline of Piano Literature. It is a compilation of no particular value or originality, its chief merit being its brevity, which may commend it to those who want a mere bird's-eye view of the subject.

Morris Steinert's account of his rare and unique collection of keyed and stringed instruments appeals, of course, to but a limited class. It contains brief histories of the pianoforte and the violin, and there are many valuable illustrations of instruments of former eras, the comparison of which serves as a lesson in Darwinian development as applied to music. Mr. Steinert is a thorough Bach scholar, and his remarks on that master's instruments and style are worth reading.

## CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

As of books in general, so of translations of Hans Christian Andersen in particular, there is no end to their making, and while generations of children exist it is safe to assert that they will still continue to be made. The multiplicity of translations, however, is possibly at bottom to no small extent owing to an inherent characteristic of the tales themselves, rather than to an inordinate demand for new renditions. They belong, in short, to that class of literature apparently so simple that, if it is in the vernacular, it is a matter of wonder that one has not written it one's self, or, if in a foreign language, that one should not sit down immediately and translate it off-hand. There is scarcely a schoolboy or a schoolgirl who has read Andersen in the smooth German versions, as many do, who has not felt this almost uncontrollable desire to put the easy sentences into fluent English. Where, in later life, there is the reasonable hope of a publisher at the end of one's labors, the desire becomes irresistible, and another translation is added to the already long list.

The very simplicity, however, of the tales is their principal difficulty. Their latest translator, Mr. R. Nisbet Bain, notes, in his preface to 'The Little Mermaid, and Other Stories' (Putnams), the transparency of meaning and the unaffectedness and straightforwardness of Andersen's language. If it be true, as is asserted, that nobody but a poet can translate a poet, it may be equally well maintained that nobody who is not at heart a child can translate Andersen. Of all the versions, good, bad, and indifferent, we are inclined to think with the author of this, that the ten tales translated by Mary Howitt in 1846 are to be considered as having best caught the spirit of the original. Mr. Bain's translation is, however, to be commended. If it is not better than the best of its predecessors, it very far surpasses most of them, and well deserves a place in the front rank of English versions of the tales. Occasionally we are conscious that we are reading a translation, and sometimes, as when the little tin soldier exclaims of the pretty little dancer, "But she's a swell!" we know that the translator is not quite in touch with his original; but in most places it is really Andersen who speaks.

The illustrations of the book are very uneven, but many of them are excellent. The broad margins and typography leave nothing to be desired. The selection of stories is sufficiently varied to give the author in most of his many moods. All are of that perennial kind that never grows old-fashioned, and the tales in the present volume might have been written yesterday, although some of them first saw the light more than fifty years ago. The new Andersen should be one of the favorite children's books of the season.

"Uncle Remus" appears in a new rôle in his 'Evening Tales done into English from the French of Frédéric Ortoli' (Scribners). What attracted Mr. Harris to this collection, whose affinity is mostly to Grimm, was the Frenchman's independent version of his own negro story of the Tar-Baby; Brer Goat replacing Brer Fox. As this interesting variant was illustrated in Ortoli's 'Contes de la Veillée,' we should have been tempted to borrow the cut as a vignette for the title-page of this pretty volume. Perhaps the publishers can manage it for a second edition, when certain usurping *wills* for *shalls* on pages 62, 81, 119, 129, and 140 might well be deposed, and "thou who *gave*," on page 66, be mended. For the rest, the literary skill for which Mr. Harris is famous has enabled him to adapt the original with great success. Incidentally, too, he gives his child readers an inkling of comparative folk-lore.

The story told by Blanche Willis Howard in 'No Heroes' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) of a boy's unconscious but none the less very real piece of heroism, raises again the question which books written for the express delectation of boys and girls have so often raised before. It is happily not a question of morals, for the moral of this chapter out of a boy's life is the wholly admirable one that not even the opportunity of fulfilling the fondest of one's dreams (in this case a voyage to foreign parts) is worth seizing if it involves the sacrifice of an obvious and immediate duty—here coming to the assistance of a father (unsuspectedly a hero) in a sudden outbreak of smallpox. No less unexceptionable in sentiment is the discovery Bob Rea—an unwitting disciple of Dickens in this respect—makes for himself that the glaring and eccentric features of a character are seen first, and the softer traits found out only on closer acquaintance. This disclosure Miss Howard (Frau von Teuffel) has made for Bob's patient, old Jerry, with delicate and tender feeling. The query as to the entire fitness of her book for young hands is one of diction merely. Because boys, especially our own embryo citizens, are supposed to be of necessity clumsy, uncouth, and inelegant in speech, does it therefore follow that those who write for them must fall into the same strain? Miss Howard, even when pursuing the thread of her narrative, does so to the following extent: "Not another boy of Bob's acquaintance had ever nursed a miser, and in all Dole's Mills not a mother's son of them had been polished off in the tiptop style with which he had distinguished Jerry." This is a fairly representative specimen of the sort of hap-hazard writing that disfigures every page of an attractive and thoroughly readable story. To be vivid at the expense of deference to one's mother-tongue hardly seems an admissible way to set about winning the juvenile mind.

The French author, at least, of 'The History of a Bearskin' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) does not share the indifference to standard of expression shown by so many of our own writers for youth. His style, seen even through the medium of a translation, has not only sprightliness, it has distinction also. And if any one is inclined to argue that this latter quality is wasted, on the ground that lads and lasses are impervious to niceties of language no less than of appearance, he needs but to be reminded of some of the criticisms on person and manner with which they now and then astound their unguarded elders. The title of M. de Marthold's artistically managed story is a trifle misleading, a sort of *jeu d'esprit* which the reader is, however, not displeased at being made partner to. The real history is that of a bumpkin conscript in the Napoleonic wars, who presently won his grenadier's bearskin, and who lived to see his son win other coveted honors at which he himself never arrived. The young mind most obstinately opposed to receiving information can hardly resent the historical outline so delightfully and insidiously infused with the adventures of this Norman Tartarin, who, in spite of his gasconading, was also a good enough fellow at bottom. The overflowing measure of freakish and fascinating illustrations are enough in themselves to put any boy into a good humor with the author and his volume. As for moral, there is none in particular, unless it be that of excellent and skilful workmanship, which is perhaps as desirable a one in this day and generation as any the severest preacher could find to dilate on.

To make a really agreeable harmony, Mrs. Laura E. Richards's 'Melody' (Estes & Lauriat) should have an accompaniment borrowed from some meridional country, instead of from New England, where her highly emotional personages seem misplaced and sometimes ridiculous. How the blind little singer, Melody, came by her too appropriate name is not explained, but this is, after all, only in keeping with much else that is unreal and exotic in the book.

A pair of indistinguishable twins, such as Mary Lee Etheridge's 'Dick and Joe' (Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.), could give rise to enough confusion, one would think, without the admixture of a third boy not to be told from them even by his own father. It will require unexacting children, however, to be amused with *Dromio*-work of this kind when so tiresomely executed.

The evolution of the Rollo books is a curious study. The enormous increase in pictorial resources and the advance in fine typography have not been attended by improvement in the art of writing simply and naturally of "personally conducted" young people. The author's old single-mindedness is gone, and the desire to amuse has betrayed him into playing to the gallery of elders. Mr. Tudor Jenks's smart and punning conversations in 'The

World's Fair Book for Boys and Girls' (The Century Company) are an instance in point. In the more serious portions his language is often above the heads of his proper audience, as when, referring to a painting of Christ talking to the woman at the well, he says: "Philip felt that this picture had put him in a receptive frame of mind, such as one should have when listening to a sermon." Still, Mr. Jenks's style is generally that of a cultivated writer, and the rest must be pardoned or overlooked by one who buys this pretty volume, full of interesting illustrations of Fair and city.

For much smaller people the same firm has taken over Mr. Palmer Cox's 'The Brownies at Home,' to keep company with two similar books by this artist-rhymester; and it also issues an ingenious set of reversible plates in color, 'Topsys and Turvys,' in which, within a narrow range, there is a considerable variety of metamorphoses, which will tickle the childish mind that has the least ray of humor in it.

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*Thomas Chalmers*, Preacher, Philosopher, and Statesman. By Mrs. Oliphant. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

THE title of Mrs. Oliphant's sketch of Dr. Chalmers prepares the reader for the looseness of her narrative throughout; for that he was either a philosopher or a statesman there is nothing in her book to show, and nothing in Hanna's 'Life of Chalmers,' on which she has so liberally drawn. Her literary productiveness is so great that perhaps the wonder is that she has written so good a book. But if her easy writing has not made hard reading in this instance, it has made reading that is much less instructive than it should have been. Even if the series of which this biography is the latest issue is intended to be more a series of studies than one of detailed accounts of the different subjects, yet should there have been no difficulty consistently with this idea in giving much more of a definite framework than we have here, and a good many more facts and dates. To dates Mrs. Oliphant would seem to have a particular aversion, and the effect is to give her narrative an appearance of inaccuracy which does not actually belong to it. For example, when Chalmers left Glasgow to take a professor's chair in Edinburgh, one of the reasons that he gave for his strange course was his desire to write a work on political economy. Once in Edinburgh, he thought no more about it, we are told, and yet a few paragraphs or pages further on we find him putting out the promised book. The apparent inconsistency is owing to the fact that Mrs. Oliphant has left his Edinburgh professorship a void, and suddenly advanced a dozen years or more in her recital of events.

Something is clearly gained by having a writer of Mrs. Oliphant's skill produce a sketch of Chalmers's life, but it may be questioned if more is not lost by her lack of large acquaintance with her subject and her lack of sympathy with Chalmers's character and aims. Had she been frankly critical, that would have been another matter. But there is a damning with faint praise, and an insinuation of doubts as to his motives and his aims, that constitute a serious drawback to one's enjoyment of the book. Chalmers was especially entitled to have his part in the great Free Kirk secession of 1843 treated with sympathy, but it is evident that Mrs. Oliphant has none to give. *Cui bono?* is her epitaph for the whole of that business. She has no appreciation of its magnitude and importance. Because twenty years later the Established Church of Scotland arrived at the same principle of non-intrusion of the local patron in the settlement of ministers, she seems to question whether the protest and secession of 1843 were not unfortunate events—as if their object-lesson did not furnish the Established Church with the best reason for the course which it refused in 1843 and accepted long afterwards.

It is evident that, from a very early age, Chalmers's ideas rushed into expression with a remarkable spontaneity and force. It is also evident that he was a protestant, a protester, from his youth up. His sense of personal importance was at first extreme, and afterwards the complete identification of himself with whatever cause he took up gave volume and momentum to his conduct and his speech. He was for demolishing the aristocracy when he failed to get a certain living. To such extent was the child father of the man that it would not be irrational to look for something of that early disappointment in the vehemence of his assault upon the principle of aristocratic patronage in the Free Kirk movement. There was ever something hasty, unexpected, in his course of life. To his first parish work he joined that of a mathematical tutor in St. Andrews University. At the public examination he made an assault on his professor and was forthwith dismissed. He came back and set up his private classes under the shadow of the University, still keeping up his parish work. Then he went to Glasgow and made his great reputation as a pulpit orator, and became a tremendous social force as the organizer of a system of parochial charity and education, with a parish of 11,000 souls. At the climax of his influence and reputation he broke away to be a professor of moral philosophy at St. Andrews. The consternation of Beecher's people and the community could not have been greater if, at the height of his success in Brooklyn, he had taken a professorship in Amherst College, than was the consternation of Chalmers's people and the community in Glasgow. The psychology of such a course of action might have afforded

> "Robert Browning, you writer of plays,
> A subject made to your hand."

But Mrs. Oliphant is needlessly mystified about it, for she herself offers the most obvious solution. It is that in a professor's chair he was again at work upon "the plan that pleased his boyish thought" when he added the labors of a mathematical tutor to those of a parish minister. It is still sufficiently remarkable that the splendor of his oratorical success did not wean him from his youthful passion. Afterwards he was made professor of theology, and found himself much more at home. Mrs. Oliphant makes no attempt to set forth the significance of his religious teaching. When it is remembered that his astronomical discourses were the most famous that he ever preached, it would appear that he was among the first of those who found in scientific truth some confirmation of their religious hopes and aspirations. If he endeavored to subject that truth to the exigencies of an inherited creed, he was not alone in this respect.

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*American Big Game Hunting.* The Book of the Boone and Crockett Club: Edited by Theodore Roosevelt and George Bird Grinnell. New York: *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.

IF the visitor at the World's Fair crossed one of the great bridges from the wonderful white buildings to the Wooded Island, and wandered down a little shady path, he came to what one might call the foundation-stone of all the magnificence just across the lagoon—a log cabin, the "Hunter's Cabin." What one first noticed was the peculiar and characteristic smell of the place. The old "prairie-schooner" outside, the bleached elk-horns over the door, the hunting trophies and evidences of free out-door life littering the interior, all brought to mind the woods and plains, but the smell was the genuine article. It was a combination of the odors of skins, old saddles, guns, blended by the scent arising from the bright wood-fire. This cabin, erected by the Boone and Crockett Club, was the proper forerunner of the book which the club has lately published.

'American Big Game Hunting' is a collection of articles by different members of the club, not only on hunting big game, but on the associated subjects of habits and preservation, and is an interesting exposition of the club's aims, which are "to promote manly sport with the rifle," "to promote travel and exploration in the wild and unknown or but partially known portions of the country," "to work for the preservation of the large game of this country, etc.," "to promote inquiry into and to record observations on the habits and natural history of the various wild animals," and finally "to bring about among the members the interchange of opinions and ideas on hunting, travel, exploration, etc." No one is eligible for membership who has not "killed with the rifle in fair chase . . . at least one individual of one of the various kinds of American large game," and the Constitution further explains that "the term 'fair chase' shall not be held to include killing bear, wolf, or cougar in traps, nor 'fire-hunting,' nor crusting moose, elk, or deer in deep snow, nor killing game from a boat while it is swimming in the water" (*i. e.*, the game swimming, not the boat). These various objects and qualifications the book sets forth, first in a straightforward and manly preface by the editors, perhaps the most pleasing thing in the volume, and second by a number of short articles, ranging in subject from bear and buffalo-hunting to photography of game, and in authors from the veterans of all the dangers and excitements of early Western life to those who have some items of interest to detail gleaned from a few short trips to the "happy hunting-grounds" of the West. This diversity of subject and authorship gives to the book a welcome variety of style, relieves it from the danger of prolixity, and affords an opportunity for personal narration of hunting scenes covering widely separated times, places, and species of game.

Some idea of the articles composing the volume may be gained from their titles. Commencing with "A Buffalo Story," which aptly illustrates one purpose of the club, story-telling, the author describes a buffalo hunt in his back yard, where he killed the quarry through his window without rising from bed. Next comes "The White Goat and his Country," written half successfully in a humorous style, followed by "A Day with the Elk," "After Wapiti in Wyoming," and "Blacktails in the Bad Lands." "Old Times in the Black Hills," "Big Game in the Rockies," and "Nights with the Grizzlies" bear the stamp of veteran hunters. Mr. Roosevelt has contented himself with a short sketch entitled, "Coursing the Prong-buck," which is rather unsatisfactory, as it bears too close a resemblance to remarks made by him on the same subject in his latest book; but his associate, Mr. Grinnell, contributes a much longer article, "In Buffalo Days," full of

the melancholy interest attaching to the extermination of what was once the most numerous and distinctive of our wild animals. "A Mountain Fraud" is largely devoted to the description of a character showing his birth by his name, Lanahan, who proves that not all mountain men are fearless and truthful, as is generally supposed; but his figure is hardly central enough to justify the title of the article. "The Yellowstone Park" treats of the adaptability of this domain for game and forest preservation. "Photographing Wild Game" shows that quite as much skill is needed in stalking game for this purpose as for a more bloody one, and opens up a field of sport in which the results will be more pleasing than the most magnificent of hunting trophies. The book closes with chapters on "Literature of American Big Game Hunting" and "Our Forest Reservations," with a short description of the exhibit at the World's Fair.

As will be seen, this is not in any way a great book. Few of the articles rise to any degree of literary excellence, and neither in paper, illustration, nor general make-up is the publication the work of art it might have been. But it is calculated to subserve its worthy purpose.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adequate Travel-Atlas of the United States. Buffalo: Matthews-Northrup Co.
Bangs, J. K. Half-Hours with Jimmieboy. R. H. Russell & Son.
Bede, Cuthbert. The Adventures of Mr. Verdant Green, an Oxford Freshman. 3 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $5.
Bell, Mackenzie. Spring's Immortality, and Other Poems. London: Ward, Lock & Bowden.
Bergerat, Emile. A Wild Sheep Chase: Notes of a Little Philosophic Journey in Corsica. Macmillan. $1.75.
Bois, H. P. du. Love in Letters. Brentano's. $1.50.
Brooks, Phillips. Letters of Travel. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Browne, E. G. A Year amongst the Persians. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Carhart, Prof. Daniel. A Field Book for Civil Engineers. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.50.
Coleridge, E. P. The Tragedies of Sophocles Translated into English Prose. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Coleridge, S. T. The Rime of the Ancient Mariner. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Collingwood, Harry. The Doctor of the "Juliet." Whittaker. $1.50.
Diebitsch-Peary, Mrs. Josephine. My Arctic Journal: A Year among Ice-Fields and Eskimos. Contemporary Publishing Co.
D'Orsey, Rev. A. J. D. Portuguese Discoveries, Dependencies and Missions in Asia and Africa. London: W. H. Allen & Co.
Dorr, Mrs. Julia C. R. Periwinkle. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $3.
Drake, S. A. Our Colonial Homes. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.50.
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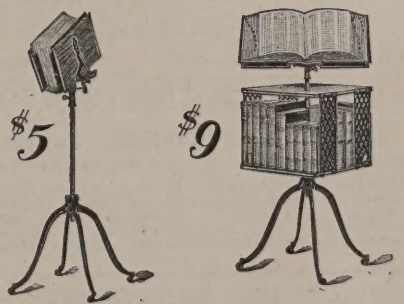


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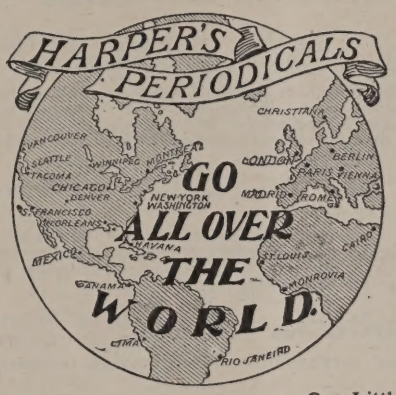


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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 30, 1893.

## The Week.

WE were glad to see signs of returning reason in the religious press last week touching the Hawaiian business. The week before, they were nearly all giving tongue in the most disgraceful manner, but now they have the grace to admit that it would be as well to wait until they know the facts, and meanwhile "suspend judgment." We except the *Independent*, which nobly maintains its reputation for knowing things that are not so, and advocating in the name of religion courses of action that are clearly immoral. If ever there was a question on which the religious press could not afford to be wrong, even for one week, the Hawaiian affair is such a question. To have the best foreign opinion united in admiration of an act of international justice and high-mindedness by the Government of the United States, at the same time that the religious press of the United States is denouncing it, is something, as the religious editors say, to make angels weep.

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Even the Hawaiian *Furiosos* have given up defending Stevens. They admit, with the *Tribune*, that his attitude was "partial," but are tearful over the peril to missions and civilization which would be involved in undoing his work. Stevens himself, in his lecture last week, made no reference to the evidence which shows that he was a conspirator and a falsifier, but was very strong on "what is most sacred in Christian civilization." Now, the first thing to be said to old-time friends and supporters of foreign missions, like the *Sun*, is to remind them that all the wonderful triumphs of the Gospel in the Sandwich Islands were won under a monarchical form of government. How, then, can it be fatal to Christianity in Hawaii to restore the monarchy? In the second place, it is to be said that the most sacred things in Christian civilization are not churches and preaching or singing hymns, but justice and truth and honesty. A long line of prophets and apostles and church fathers could be cited in favor of the opinion that these virtues are the indispensable basis of Christian civilization, and the necessary preliminary to missionary operations in any heathen country. To try to steal Hawaii, and to lie about the way you got the stolen goods in your possession, and to refuse to give them up when cornered, may be done, as Stevens says it was, "in the name of Christian civilization," but it is not fitted to make that name attractive to the victims. We are firm in the belief that the act of simple justice which the American Government now proposes, will do more to advance true religion in Hawaii than the most pathetic missionary address which Mr. Stevens or the editor of the *Sun* ever delivered.

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Ex-Secretary Tracy has solemnly said to a reporter that Minister Stevens's Hawaiian revolution "came like a thunder-clap to the Administration." But it was only stage thunder, and all the supernumeraries producing it were in plain sight of the audience. Stevens himself, in his *Kennebec Journal*, and the editor of the *Tribune* were both caught in their shirt-sleeves, a full year ago, letting off the first rumblings of the thunder. In Stevens's despatch of November 20, 1892, he gave another Jove-like crash with his plea for "bold and vigorous measures for annexation," as to which, he said, "our statesmen and our Government must decide." What decision they reached was made clear in Secretary Tracy's interview with Admiral Skerrett on the 30th of the following month, when he said: "Commodore, the wishes of the Government have changed. They will be very glad to annex Hawaii." This shows the kind of "continuity" in foreign policy which President Harrison thinks so vital. It is nothing for the wishes of the Government to "change" in the interest of filibusters, but when it is a question of making them disgorge, then all patriots must grieve over the lack of "continuity." But in view of all these elaborate preparations for the "thunder-clap," the startled air of the members of the Administration when it actually came is a high tribute to their histrionic powers.

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The unhappiness caused to Mr. Thurston and his organs by the failure of the Administration to dismiss him, or "send him his passports," or remonstrate with him, or in any way treat him as a naughty envoy or "persona non grata," because he has talked freely in the newspapers, is very amusing. The fact is, that he has done the right thing in carrying his complaints to the newspapers. That is the place for them. Such stuff as he furnished them for publication would be very odd in a diplomatic paper. Moreover, his character as an envoy extraordinary is not worth the consideration of a serious man in the State Department. The ambassador of a "free people" who muster only 600 strong, is not treated with much respect in any court, and of course ought to receive less from us, who think so much of numbers, than from any other power. He, however, has compensation in freedom of speech. A man in Mr. Thurston's position cannot commit an "indiscretion." He might write an article in the *Tribune*, and nobody would blame him. "Passports" would be wasted on him, and so would "belligerent rights." He might even "declare war" against the Administration, and the wretched Gresham would simply smile that deadly smile of his to which the *Tribune* has already called attention as a *monstrum horrendum*.

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Secretary Morton's report does not move to tears as those of his predecessor in the Department of Agriculture used to do, but it makes a great rattling among the dry bones. He exposes the happy-go-lucky nature of the organization of the department, showing how he has been able to reduce the number of employees by more than one-fifth without any injury to the service, and also pointing out that the amounts appropriated for the use of State experiment-stations are entirely beyond the power of any officer of the United States to limit or control or audit. He thinks the meat-inspection laws ought to be repealed. They have resulted in no increase in the export of meat products, and, on the other hand, have cost the Government 6½ per cent. of the value of all meat sold to countries demanding the inspection. In the place of "Uncle Jerry's" eloquent appeals for more Government help, Morton declares that the thing which "ought to be engraved upon the memory and reflected in the judgment and the plans of every farmer in the Union," is the fact that "the relation of supply and demand is the sole regulator of value." The Secretary also takes a notably firm and advanced stand for civil-service reform principles.

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There are signs that Secretary Herbert is preparing for himself the mortification of restoring Commodore Stanton, just as he felt obliged to restore Commander Higginson. It was given out from Washington on Thursday that "a revulsion of feeling" had set in at the Navy Department touching the Commodore's action at Rio, and that "the persons who were quick to condemn him are now disposed to withhold judgment until he has an opportunity to make his defence." On top of this came a *World* despatch on Friday saying that President Peixoto has stated to the Washington authorities that he did not consider Stanton's action in saluting Mello any real disrespect to his own Government. However the affair turns out, it is a melancholy example of the demoralization of the naval service. This peremptory removing of

officers at long range, and calling them home in disgrace, only to find that they have a perfectly good defence for their conduct, is a stone over which one would think the secretary would not break his leg a second time. Why not use the cable for calling for the defence before using it for summary removal? The only astonishing thing is that our naval officers do not blunder, in the sense of going counter to the occult wishes of the Department, oftener than they do. We believe the feeling is general in the service that, since the Barrundia decision, no naval commander knows what he is expected to do anywhere. The common rules of international law are no longer a safe guide to him, and he has to make the best guess he can at what the secretary would like him to do, and thank his stars if he gets off without a reprimand.

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For the third time the ways and means committee of the House has granted the demands of American artists and placed works of art on the free list of a general tariff bill. The Mills bill so placed them, but they were stricken from the list in Democratic caucus. The McKinley bill also placed works of art on the free list, but the Senate did not concur, and the net result was a reduction of the tax from 30 per cent. to 15 per cent. It is to be hoped that the third time may prove "the charm." The fact that Presidents Arthur, Cleveland, and Harrison all recommended the abolition of this tax, and that Mills and McKinley both included its repeal in their tariff measures, shows how entirely non-partisan the movement is. The domestic producers of art are practically unanimous in declaring the tax a hindrance rather than a help to them. Moreover, art is valuable to a country, not merely as an element of general culture, but as a stimulus to the element of design in manufactures, which, even more than cheapness, conquers the markets of the world. In the manufacture of wall-papers, dress-goods, silks, china, and pottery, carpets, etc., design decides national superiority, and to encourage art is to encourage the artistic education of artisans and to secure the widest market for our manufactures.

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The Lawrence (Kan.) *Journal* has some very encouraging news about the business situation in the rural districts of that State. It says that the farmers are now paying their taxes promptly, and that "a large amount of the payments is made in gold." It is surmised, says the *Journal*, that this gold has been hoarded for some time back, and is now coming out of its hiding-places because confidence has been restored. The possessors of this hidden treasure no longer have any apprehensions of the silver basis. Very wonderful that this should be true in Kansas, which cast its Presidential vote for Weaver, and which has a Peffer and a Martin in the United States Senate and an Ingalls for ex-Senator. Here is a fresh text for Ingalls to preach a new sermon on—a sermon on the cowardice of gold. We all remember his discourse on that theme, which was quoted three times in one week during the recent session by admiring Congressmen of the school of Bland. Gold, said Ingalls, ran away at the beginning of the war and took refuge with our enemies, but, after the victory was won, it swaggered to the front and claimed all the honors. Here is a fresh illustration of the skulking nature of gold in Mr. Ingalls's own neighborhood, right under his nose, we might say. The cowardly metal has been hiding behind the chimneys in Kansas farm-houses, perhaps ever since Ingalls made his great speech, and now it swaggers to the front and pays taxes with all the airs of a conqueror. If Ingalls cannot do justice to the subject, it will be of no use for Peffer to try.

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A committee of the Legislature of Georgia has taken up the question of State-bank notes, and has commenced work on a bill in anticipation of the repeal of the 10 per cent. tax. Like most of the State legislatures which have turned their attention to this subject, this one, or this committee, begins by tying up the bank's money in securities of one kind or another—this by way of making money abundant in the neighborhood. The bill proposes that one-half of the capital of each bank shall be kept on hand in coin or legal tenders as a redemption fund, and that the other half shall be invested in bonds of the United States or of the State of Georgia, or of counties or municipalities in the State, which shall be deposited with the State treasurer as security for the circulating notes. Then the State treasurer may issue to the bank three dollars of circulating notes for every dollar of the coin or legal tenders which the bank has on deposit with itself. The security which the State would hold for the circulating notes, supposing all the bonds to be good, would be 33 per cent. of them, instead of being 110 per cent., as it is under the national banking system, since the cash redemption fund is to be under the control of the bank. But if this redemption fund were religiously kept by the bank for its special purpose, and if the deposited bonds were always worth par, the security would be only at the rate of $1,000 for each $1,500 of circulating notes, the bank's capital being wholly impounded and locked up at the start. The national system furnishes security for circulating notes, but it is wanting in elasticity. The proposed Georgia system would furnish neither security nor elasticity. It is very strange that the South, which for the most part had good banks before the war, cannot take a leaf out of its own experience, but must needs copy an inferior system, diluting even that. There is not much danger of harm, however, from these attempts, since they all depend upon a repeal of the 10 per cent. tax. The chances of repeal are lessened by every State-bank act like that of North Carolina and like that which Georgia is now mulling over.

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The suggestion of the *Tribune* that Mr. Schieren should "conduct a business administration" over in Brooklyn by "giving preference to Republicans without exception" in making his appointments to office, and by "appointing reputable Republicans of recognized business capacity and training," and "*then* keeping the Fire, Police, and Public Works and other departments out of politics altogether," is as good an illustration as one could desire of the reason why no reform movement in New York or Brooklyn is ever steady or continuous. We have "popular risings" every twenty years or so, when the boldness of the Ring becomes intolerable, but we never have a steady and continuous resistance to it from year to year. It has been demonstrated over and over again in both cities that neither party can of itself give good municipal government. Whenever one party determines to oust its thieves, it has to have the assistance of the other party. The Republicans in Brooklyn could not of themselves have overthrown McLaughlin. They had to have the assistance of the Democratic mugwumps. The Democrats of themselves could not keep him out of power. They would have to have the assistance of the Republicans. In other words, party government in American cities is a failure. To be well governed the decent people in both parties must unite. But, as a rule, any tendency towards this desirable combination is nipped in the bud by just such suggestions as the *Tribune's*—that the offices should be all given to the members of one party, and "then" taken out of politics. This always exasperates the other side, making them feel themselves the victims of a fraud of which they will not allow a repetition, and at the next election the old order is restored.

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Mr. William Walter Phelps, in his speech at the Chamber of Commerce dinner last week, made some very just remarks upon the changes for the worse in the press, which he found upon returning to this country from a four years' absence as minister in Germany. It is quite true that, with rare exceptions, the journalist no longer seeks

to lead and instruct public opinion, but "uses his best gifts to amuse and attract"; and that "our great journals to-day build their circulation on the weakness and vanity of mankind, and vie with each other as to which paper shall make the most personal mentions." The only hopeful feature of the situation is the evidence afforded by such a movement as that of the San Francisco women against sensational journalism that a large proportion of the people are utterly disgusted with the papers now served them. This movement seems to be gaining strength week by week, and has now reached quite remarkable proportions. So general is the interest, and so profound the feeling that the morality of the community is involved, that sermons on the subject have lately been preached in a score of pulpits on Sunday. The most effective work that is being done in this crusade is the exposure of the sensational newspaper publisher in his true light as an enemy of society, who deserves no more respect than the man who should sow seeds of physical, instead of moral, disease.

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"The butcher's bill" of the last football season in England has been compiled by a gentleman in that country who kept as close a record as possible by reading the newspapers, and it foots up a total of twenty-three, not counting three other cases where death was ascribed to illness incurred on the football field. Among the causes of death are these: "Spine fractured while tackling a rival player"; "struck violently in the abdomen and died two days later, after suffering terrible agony"; "kicked in the stomach"; "injured internally while being tackled"; "killed by a kick in the stomach, received in a scrimmage"; "so severely trodden upon after falling upon the ball that he never recovered consciousness." The *Lancet*, the chief medical journal of England, calls, like the *Medical News* in this country, for a radical reform. Moreover, the officers of the law in England seem disposed to interfere if the atrocities cannot be stopped in any other way. Two pugilists, who had engaged in an unusually severe contest, were recently brought before the recorder of Manchester, and pleaded guilty. The recorder laid down the law in the case, and proceeded to say that it was equally applicable to football. He pointed out that violence on the football field, where an attempt was made to counteract skill by brute force, was just as much a criminal offence as a bare-knuckle fight.

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The fact is, that every defence of football we have seen would cover prize-fighting. The risks from prize-fighting are very small. The training for it is good for health and strength, the prize-fighters themselves like it, and so do the spectators. What, then, is the objection to it? Both prize-fighting and football as now played permit almost any degree of violence to the person above the waist. Here is the rub. You must not "tackle" a man below the belt either in the football field or in the prize ring, but above the belt you may do anything you please to him but "slug" him at football, and in the prize ring you may do anything to him you please and "slug" him besides. It is this exposure of the person to every kind of violence which puts football, under the present rules, into the same category with the prize-fight, and makes it unlike all other games played by civilized man—cricket, tennis, baseball, golf, polo. Some of these—polo for instance—are dangerous, but in it your person is not kicked, cuffed, pounded by your fellow-man, nor are you trampled under the feet of a rattling, roaring throng. There is talk of amending the rules, but slight amendment will not do. So long as a man can be treated as a simple package, to be removed by pushing, pulling, rolling, kicking, or "slugging," there will always be great danger of his being in some way maimed. The plea set up, that youths *in statu pupillari* have a right to expose themselves, if they please, to soldiers' risks at seats of learning, strikes us as exceedingly droll. Moreover, that somewhat apocryphal saying of Wellington's, that Waterloo was won on the Eton football field, would be of more value if any but a very small percentage of his army ever went near Eton, and if ring-fights were not common at Eton in his day, and if the men who won Jena and Austerlitz and stormed Ratisbon had had the advantages of public-school games.

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The English Radicals, who have for some time been showing signs of mutiny against Gladstone, are disgusted with the slowness with which the lord chancellor is adding Liberals to the magisterial bench in accordance with the policy traced out last winter, and went to that functionary in a large body a fortnight ago to blow him up. They informed him that he was not going fast enough, and they rated him for not being satisfied with the recommendations of the member of Parliament for the county or borough in which the appointment was to be made. He turned on them, however, in a long speech, and had execution of them, as Cromwell used to say, for nearly an hour. He showed that the reason he went slowly was because he had not time to go fast; that if he depended on the recommendations of the members of Parliament, he would frequently appoint bad characters to the bench, that having happened already, and that nothing could be more unfortunate for the whole English community than any decided lowering in the quality of the unpaid magistracy. It was necessary not only that its members should all be men of good social standing, whatever their social grade, but that they should not be of a kind to drive the present members off the bench. Of course a good many good Radicals might be appointed with whom the present magistrates would not serve, and whom they would not consent to meet anywhere. An injection of "Barney" Martins or "Paddy" Divvers, for instance, would clear any English bench of its other occupants in five minutes. This is of course an extreme illustration, because the appearance in a judicial position in England of anything corresponding to these two worthies is impossible.

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The Tories, who are, or pretend to be, most shocked by the large additions the Liberals are making to the magistracy, have only themselves to thank for it. There is hardly a doubt that had they not taken home rule so much to heart, the enormous preponderance of Tories or Unionists on the bench would have passed unnoticed, and the bench would never have got into politics. But when the Unionists took to boycotting and "cutting" people for supporting Gladstone, and denouncing them as traitors, it was inevitable that the Gladstonians should be unwilling to have them sit on their quarrels and controversies and delinquencies. The Unionists plead that the magistrates were formerly largely Liberal, but that the Liberals have gone over to the Unionists because of Gladstone's bad behavior; but the concern of people who come before them, or are likely to come before them, is not how they came to be Tories, but the fact that they are Tories.

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Affairs in Italy have not been in a state so confused and critical since 1859. Never since then have we needed so much to be represented at Rome by a first-class man of ripe experience. Sending a mere man of fashion there is, under the circumstances, something worse than a blunder. The state of Italy attracts public attention, too, once more to the circumstances of Mr. Van Alen's appointment, and sets people asking whether something cannot still be done to keep him at home, and send some one better fitted for the emergency in his place. The English have just filled a similar vacancy at the same post. The history of the official career of their appointee, contrasted with Mr. Van Alen's, is enough to make an American hang his head for shame. On this subject our correspondent at Rome has some pertinent remarks on another page.

### THE TARIFF BILL.

THE Wilson tariff bill has caused a decline of a few points on the stock market in the group known as the industrials, and the groans from that quarter are quite shocking to hear. These are the concerns more familiarly known as Trusts. They blossomed out in great luxuriousness after the passage of the McKinley bill and became the subject of great popular odium. Republican newspapers attacked them with great bitterness, and declared that they were bringing the whole doctrine of protection into disrepute. Some of the high priests of protection in Philadelphia, notably Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson, took strong ground in favor of abolishing the duties on all articles that had been made the subject of artificial monopoly. It is very certain that if the Democratic party had had the power then which it exercises to-day, it would have followed this sound advice. To-day, however, it restricts itself to the reduction, not the abolition, of the duties under which these oppressive concerns have sheltered themselves. Sugar, Lead, Cordage are not visited with the punishment they deserve. The character of these combines is well established in the country at large as monopolies intended to deprive the public of the benefit of competition, and in Wall Street as lures for the unwary and as games played with loaded dice. So far are they from any just claim to mercy that the more crushing the blow dealt them the better for the community.

The Republican party, it should be observed, is ready to deal this blow in any way except by abolishing or reducing the duties under which the Trusts fleece the public. The party, under the lead of Senator Sherman, has passed an anti-Trust law, under which, if it could be enforced, all of them would be passed into the hands of receivers and put in liquidation. But when it is proposed to attack them in a perfectly feasible and practicable way, there is an instant outpouring of crocodile tears, almost in proportion to the amount of water in their stock. The truth is that the committee has been altogether too merciful to this brood of octopuses. It ought to have swept away every vestige of protection to every one of them; and if it had done so, no Republican Congress would ever have dared to renew it.

As to the bill in general, we think that the only fair criticism to be made is that it is too conservative and too lenient to the protected classes. Take pig-iron for example. We select this article because it lies at the foundation of all industries, and also because the treatment of pig-iron is characteristic of the bill as a whole. Any duty at all on pig-iron is now prohibitory. The price of the cheapest grade in England is now $8.01 gold per ton. A better brand of pig-iron is selling in Alabama to-day at $7.25, and the current number of *Dun's Review* tells us that a British purchase of 5,000 tons has been made there at that price. Nevertheless, the bill retains a duty of 22½ per cent. on pig-iron. Take steel billets. These are selling in England at $17.61 and at Pittsburgh at $17.50. These quotations, both foreign and domestic, are taken from the *American Manufacturer* of Pittsburgh of November 17. Obviously any duty, even one per cent., would be prohibitory, when we take into account the freight, insurance, and other charges. Well, the committee's bill gives the producers of steel billets a protection of 25 per cent. Certainly nobody has a right to complain of this except the purchasers and consumers of the article. Yet we presume that the makers of steel billets will declare that a duty of 25 per cent. is ruinous, and will make the bill an excuse for reducing wages.

This conservative spirit runs through the bill and leads our reforming contemporary, the *Sun*, to declare that the measure is "a sound protectionist document from one end to the other." It would certainly have been called such by Henry Clay or by Justin S. Morrill at any time prior to 1870. It certainly is not open to the charge of hostility to manufacturers. Its enlargement of the free list is entirely in their interest, and it has not reduced the duties on goods in the same ratio as the reduction on materials. This is especially true of the wool and woollens schedule. That the duty on wool is to come off this time, there can be no doubt. It does not follow, however, that the price of domestic wool will decline. It may even advance, and this is the belief of many manufacturers, based upon the experience of former years when the duties on wool were merely nominal.

Republican comments on the tariff bill are very far from coming up to Browning's twenty-nine distinct damnations, one sure if the other fails. Gov. McKinley, it is true, considered the bill "a very sweeping one," and one which paid "no heed to the pleas and necessities of domestic industries"; but then, he confessed that he had not read it, and for a damning on general principles his remarks certainly lack vigor. Ex-Speaker Reed started out with the view that "the bill is about as bad as could be reasonably imagined," but roared most gently in the rest of his observations. This was no doubt owing to his having made the slip of confining himself to what could "reasonably" be imagined. He could have been much fiercer if not restrained in that way. Ex-Gov. Ames thought the bill "ridiculous," though he had to admit that it contained two excellent features —excellent because he had long contended for them—free coal and free iron ore. Ex-Gov. Long thought the changes would be "a direct benefit to New England," but deplored the breaking down of the "system," which, it would seem, must be maintained even if it wipes out all New England industries.

This restrained Republican indignation is no doubt due, in part, to the reflection that the Wilson bill is only a carrying out of the professed Republican policy on the tariff, of ten years ago, before McKinley and Reed and Dolan and the Trusts ran away with the party. In fact, the future historian, picking up the new tariff bill and not closely observing its date, might be excused for thinking it a Republican measure proposed in pursuance of the recommendations of the party leaders in 1882 and 1883. In the former year the Republican tariff commission said: "Early in its deliberations the commission became convinced that a substantial reduction of tariff duties is demanded, not by a mere indiscriminate popular clamor, but by the best conservative opinion of the country." President Arthur, in his message of December 4, 1882, recommended "an enlargement of the free list, . . . a simplification of the complex and inconsistent schedule of duties upon certain manufactures, particularly those of cotton, iron, and steel, and a substantial reduction of the duties upon those articles, and upon sugar, molasses, silk, wool, and woollen goods." In Secretary McCulloch's report for 1884, he wrote: "The existing duties upon raw materials which are to be used in manufactures, should be removed. . . . The duties upon the articles used or consumed by those who are least able to bear the burden of taxation should be reduced." No wonder that the Republicans are finding it rather hard to pronounce a good thumping anathema in 1893 upon doctrines which were a part of their own orthodoxy in 1883.

### THE PROPOSED INCOME TAX.

AMONG the various plans on foot for increasing the national revenue, an income tax has been advocated by an influential group of Democratic politicians. Naturally, too, it has aroused strong and even bitter opposition in another influential group in the same party. As for the Republicans, they are privileged, as the minority party, to oppose everything, and they are very sure to make the most of any division in the Democratic ranks on any question of taxation. It seems necessary, therefore, to discuss this question somewhat before the reassembling of Congress.

In the first place, it cannot be said that the people have laid any commands upon Congress in respect of an income tax. The subject is entirely new to the present generation. Such a tax was imposed during the war, and it was continued some years after the war, while the national finances were in an unsettled and strained condition. As soon as it

was found that the tax could be spared without danger to the public credit, it was repealed, but this proves nothing as to the rightfulness or the fiscal expediency of the tax. The repeal may have been due to the fact that the classes who had to pay it were the most influential at Washington, while those who did not have to pay it cared nothing about it one way or the other. Governments generally yield to the strongest pressure, and this may have been the case with regard to the income tax. The idealogues offered little resistance to the repeal at that time. In fact, the amendments that had been engrafted on the tax from time to time had left it in such a tattered condition in 1872 that it yielded little more than the cost of collection. Its history may be briefly recited.

It was first enacted in 1861, and the rate was fixed at 3 per cent. on all incomes over $800. No machinery existed for collecting it, and before any had been provided Congress changed it. Under the act of 1862, all incomes over $600 and under $5,000 were taxed 5 per cent., over $5,000 and under $10,000 7½ per cent., over $10,000 10 per cent. Certain deductions were allowed in estimating income, such as house rent actually paid and other taxes actually paid, whether national, State, or local. In 1864 a special tax of 5 per cent. was levied for one year, this being additional to the regular income tax. In the same year the rate was raised so that all incomes above $5,000 paid 10 per cent. In 1865 the first change was made in the direction of lowering the tax. This was done by raising the exemption from $600 to $1,000, and making the tax uniform at 5 per cent. In 1870 the exemption was raised to $2,000 and the rate reduced to 2½ per cent. In addition to this change it was provided that all business losses sustained during the year, and all interest paid on loans, and all money paid for labor to cultivate land and for rent and repairs of premises actually occupied might be deducted in estimating incomes. Under these sweeping changes the revenue derived from the tax fell to $19,000,000 in 1871 and to $14,000,000 in 1872. The maximum reached in any single year ($73,000,000) was in 1866. This was the year of the "double income tax"—the year in which the bulk of the special tax enacted in 1864 was collected. When the proceeds of the tax had fallen below $20,000,000, it was deemed useless to continue it longer. It expired in 1872, and it was believed then that no occasion short of a war of great magnitude would ever justify its reënactment.

The justice of an income tax if it could be fairly and honestly collected does not admit of doubt, but the objections to it are the same in kind as those which lie against the personal-property tax. It cannot be collected with fairness and equality. The taxpayer must coöperate with the collector in order to ascertain the income. Consequently only the very conscientious people pay their rightful share. The practical attempts to collect a personal-property tax in the several States have been uniformly futile—the amounts realized being ever on a dwindling scale. There is no reason to suppose that the results of an income tax would be in any wise different. The revenue derived during the war is no criterion whatever. At that time the taxpayers generally coöperated with the collector zealously. Public opinion compelled them to do so. The nation's life was at stake. Those who were not in the field felt a double obligation to supply the means to support those who were there.

No such conditions exist now. Hence there is every probability that the taxpayers would adopt the same means to avoid the impost that they employ in avoiding the personal-property tax levied by the States. In other words, the tax would be a vastly unequal one in practice, its burden falling chiefly on those who are too honest to shirk it. It would be well for Congressmen also to ask themselves the question whether the number of votes to be gained among those who are in the exempted class will overbalance the losses among those who are called upon to pay the tax. This question is not to be answered by footing up the opinions of voters in a particular district or any number of districts. The question is, whether votes are to be drawn from the Republican party by the imposition of an income tax in sufficient numbers to overbalance the resentment which will certainly be stirred up by it.

## *MR. CARLISLE'S SPEECH.*

THE speech of Secretary Carlisle at the Chamber of Commerce dinner last week was fully up to the expectations that had been formed beforehand. In some respects it was perhaps in advance of such expectations, for the secretary declared that the single gold standard was *de facto* the standard of the civilized world, and hence it ought to be and must be our standard. He said that the Government was bound to keep every kind of money that bore its stamp at par with gold, and that he, as secretary, would perform this duty as long as he had any gold to do it with. These sentiments and promises were vociferously applauded by the gentlemen to whom they were addressed. It seemed as though the millennium of finance had come when the foremost statesman of the South gave utterance to opinions which were repudiated by two-thirds of Congress when the Bland-Allison act was passed over the veto of President Hayes. The fact that Mr. Carlisle has not always been of this way of thinking has been commented on both in the press and in the Senate. Quite true; but how many of his accusers are qualified to throw stones? Where were Sherman, Allison, McKinley, Charles Foster, and a host of Republican leaders in the bygone times? As for backbiting newspapers, perhaps the less said of them the better. They as well as Senators and secretaries have learned by experience, and it is much to their credit, all around, if they tell the truth when they have learned it.

What the public are concerned with is the statesmanship of to-day, not that of 1878 or that of 1890. Times have changed, and we have changed with them. Mr. Carlisle's positions are not only sound *per se*, but they are stated in a way to carry conviction to others. He has rare gifts as a public speaker, and the most important of these is earnestness. He has no tricks of speech. He does not raise a laugh or waste any words. All that he says is serious, and it carries the conviction to the hearer that the speaker believes what he says. His manner is that of the constitutional lawyer. His training has been in the law almost exclusively, and it is much more to his credit that he has acquired the principles of finance by study and experience than it is to his discredit that he once stumbled in an unknown field where two-thirds of his contemporaries in Congress stumbled likewise.

Perhaps the most impressive single paragraph in the secretary's speech was the following:

> "Gentlemen, the question whether the obligations of the United States will be paid in coin current in all the markets in the world has already been settled, and it has, in my opinion, been settled for all time to come. It has been settled, not by any specific act of Congress prescribing the exact mode of payment, but by the spirit and obvious purpose of the whole body of existing legislation upon the subject, and by the deliberate judgment of the American people and the declared purpose of those who have been intrusted with the execution of the laws. The disposition and ability of the Government to maintain its own credit at the highest possible standard, and to preserve the integrity of all the forms of currency in circulation among the people, cannot be reasonably doubted, and ought not to be subjects of serious controversy hereafter."

It is the conviction of this truth that gives tone and confidence to the business of the country to-day after the crushing disasters of last summer. It is not in the power of Mr. Bland, or of anybody, or of any group, to disturb this confidence. It has its root in the profoundest depths of public opinion. It is fortified by the possession of the Government in all its branches, and most of all by the President and Secretary of the Treasury. Although the national budget is not in the right shape as regards income and outgo, although the reserve in the Treasury is shrinking and the stock of gold is low, nobody is disturbed on that account, because all know that it is only necessary, as Webster said, to smite the rock of the national resources and abundant streams of revenue will gush forth

Even if the last dollar of gold were paid out of the public fisc, no serious disturbance outside of Government circles would result, the means of replenishment being so ample and so easy of access. Of course no one desires to see such an experiment tried, and no one expects it, but confidence is now so firmly grounded on the gold standard that nothing can shake it. This, as Mr. Carlisle says, ought not to be a subject of serious controversy hereafter. Moreover, it will not be.

Mr. Carlisle did not omit a salutation to the "friends of silver," but it was one that they will hardly thank him for. He said that we should continue to use silver as money to the largest extent consistent with the stability of the currency and the preservation of the public faith, *i. e.*, consistent with the maintenance of the gold standard. There is no doubt of this. With $419,000,000 of silver dollars and 140,000,000 ounces of silver bullion plus $76,000,000 of subsidiary silver coin, we are not likely to run short of that metal during the lifetime of the children now in the public schools. But we shall always be ready to exchange greetings with the friends of silver on the basis which Mr. Carlisle indicated, and they will have to be satisfied with that.

Other financial problems are coming on the carpet, and, now that the *basis* of everything financial has been settled, they ought not to be difficult. The banking system must be amended to correspond with the facts of to-day, not those of the civil war thirty years ago. After that is accomplished there will inevitably come up the question as to what shall be done with the Government's circulating notes, its greenbacks and the rest. One thing at a time. Mr. Carlisle's speech makes it a safe prediction that all will turn out well in the end.

### *FOOTBALL AGAIN.*

Capt. Frank Ranken of the Montauk football team had his leg broken in two places on Saturday in "one of the early scrimmages." James McNally of the same team had all his lower teeth knocked out. Mapes of the Cleveland team had a severe shoulder strain. Robert Christy of the Wooster University died from a kick in the stomach. His widowed mother was at his bedside. Capt. Waters of the Harvard team will never play again owing to a wrench in the knee, to say nothing of a bad bruise over one eye, and a blow on the head which laid open the scalp. The conduct of Prentiss at the Crescent-Orange game at Eastern Park is much reprehended, because, when he sees a mass of men on the ground, he "runs and jumps on them feet first." At the game at Springfield on Saturday Mackie punched his head into Stillman's stomach. McCrea was for several minutes under "a mountain of men," and, after extricating himself, was "badly winded," and took some minutes to recover. Beard stepped "unconsciously" on Wrightington's head, and Acton hit Beard a smart blow on the chin. It was thought at first, after Thorn was "thrown down harshly and a dozen men had fallen on him," that his nose was broken, but it appears that it was only badly damaged.

We take the foregoing at haphazard, without any particular search, from Sunday's newspapers, as the football news of *one* day. There are to be more games this week, and it will be well if on Saturday we have not plenty more casualties to record. A professor in a well-known college writes to us:

> "I am glad to see your attack on football. As played at present, it is a murderous game. Our eleven don't like it, but play because it is the fashion. Our captain had his nose broken and another had his neck wrenched and was carried off insensible, last Wednesday. That is an average chapter of accidents. Besides, the men are entirely too good to waste in this way. Our captain happens to be the best man in his class—a rare accident. Generally speaking, the teams are made up of a different quality of men, many of whom are in college solely for football purposes, hired and salaried with the proceeds of gate-money. I hear repeated stories of this kind from Yale, Princeton, and the University of Pennsylvania."

The playing public, too, seems to be beginning to be impressed by the current criticism. Mr. Walter Camp, the great authority on the game, has a letter in Sunday's *Herald*, in which he makes the following admission:

> "The public, the press, and the players are all thoroughly in love with football, provided it is kept as free from dangerous accidents as it has been for the last few years previous to 1893. Those enthusiasts who feel that there is a conspiracy against the sport are blinded by their intense love of the game, so that they cannot and will not see any fault in it. But if every one will carefully study the play that we shall see in both these final matches, he will be very apt to conclude, unless all signs fail, that the overdevelopment of mass plays bids fair to make the sport too hard upon the line men, particularly the tackles and ends.
>
> "When a half-dozen good, solid fellows get in motion and concentrate their force and weight, running at full speed, against one, two, or three men, who are able to get under but partial headway, and who are obliged also to look for the man with the ball coming behind this mass, the shock is pretty severe, and, repeatedly practised, will use up even the stoutest and pluckiest. There are many who can stand it through a game, barring some unusual chance blow, but the tendency to such plays means that they must be practised for weeks, and that the team must meet as well as make them, so that it resolves itself into a question of meeting such an impact day after day for months before the final contest. No wonder, then, that the men get sore and tender; that occasionally a wail of despair goes up from the college that the best men are laid up and there are no good men to take their places. There are two, and very likely more, ways of legislating that might effect a cure."

The most important thing he says is, however, that the Rugby rules, under which our teams are supposed by the general public to be playing, do not admit of "the interference principle" at all; that is, players have no right to run into, interrupt, or obstruct an opponent at all unless between the runner and his goal line—that is, practically behind him. Gradually, during the last twelve years, he says, we have come to disregard this rule completely, until now the team can form in a solid mass in front of the man with the ball, and bear down all opposition by sheer weight and momentum. We have observed that some journals are under the impression that we have borrowed the game from England in its present dangerous shape. The fact is that we have taken it and brutalized it. As an Englishman has well observed: "In the old game you kicked the ball; in the Rugby game you kick a man if you cannot kick the ball, but in the modern American game, you kick the ball if you cannot kick a man."

Mr. Camp proposes that the massing of men to bear down opposition by weight and momentum be given up, and the old rule about "interference" be again put in force. It will be difficult to get the amateurs to do this of their own volition. They are all afraid of seeming "babyish," and our belief is it will never be done without some pressure from parents and the faculties of the colleges, who have not as yet shown much interest in the matter. There is a suspicion abroad that the faculties do not much care as long as their men win the games, because, unfortunately, there can be little doubt that football victories do increase the numbers of a college's undergraduates. A large number of students come from non-collegiate families, whose fathers are unable to compare the advantages offered by the different colleges in the matter of mental culture and social influence, and let their sons make their own choice, which is apt to be determined by a reference to the athletic record of the year. All this is lamentable, and a determined effort should be made to stop it. That excellent Greek motto, "Not too much of anything," should hang over every college door. Football has assumed a ridiculously prominent place in the collegiate mind—which ought to be fatal to it in its present shape, even without the broken necks, legs, and noses.

### *OBITUAL DAYS IN CONGRESS.*

While the responsibilities of congressional life are well understood, it is probable that there are few persons who have an adequate conception of its solemnities. Learned writers on congressional government have, so far as we are acquainted with their works, wholly omitted to treat this aspect of the subject. They tell us of the introduction and discussion of bills, the consultations and reports of committees, and the intricacies of legislative procedure. Further than this they do not go, and it is only by a perusal of the *Congressional Record* that we can learn to appreciate the fact that obitual days constitute an

important, distinctive, and ever recurrent feature in the proceedings of our national Legislature.

As an illustration of this fact we may take the short, and last regular, session of Congress which closed on the 4th of March of the present year. It is true that in respect of its obitual days it was unusually solemn, but for this reason it serves only the more clearly to exemplify the truth of what has been stated. The session had barely begun when, on the 7th of December, an announcement was made to the Senate of the decease some time previously of a member of the House of Representatives. The Senate then adjourned, but on the 11th of the following February the subject was again called up in order that formal eulogies might be pronounced. This particular case is referred to because it illustrates the practice in both houses in all similar cases. First, a resolution is adopted by the house of which the deceased person was a member, and on its adoption an adjournment takes place. The resolution is then presented in the other house with like formalities, and, on some subsequent day set apart in each house, respectively, for the purpose, the resolution is called up with a view to the delivery of eulogies, after which another adjournment takes place. The object in presenting the resolution on one day and setting apart another for eulogies is to afford an opportunity to secure what may be deemed to be appropriate tributes.

It is obvious that such a practice is likely to degenerate into a mere formality, and thus to defeat the end for which it was designed; and so it appears to be in the present instance. No matter who the deceased member may have been, how brief his service, or how limited his acquaintance, the same cumbersome formalities must be gone through with in each house; and if there is no one sufficiently informed on the subject to speak from personal knowledge, eulogists are secured by solicitation and preconcert. The meaning of this practice has by no one been expressed more clearly than by Mr. Peffer. Not long after his entrance into the Senate he was engaged to make some remarks on a deceased member of the House from Pennsylvania. Fully appreciating the situation, he began his eulogy as follows: "Nothing more appropriate, Mr. President, than that when men and women die something should be said about it." In proof of this declaration he quoted from the "Psalm of Life" the words: "Life is real, life is earnest," and said that, therefore, when the Senator from Pennsylvania (Mr. Cameron) asked him to join in the memorial services, he felt it to be his duty to consent, though he had not known the deceased. The rest of the "eulogy" was composed of moral reflections. The only other speaker on this occasion, except Mr. Cameron, whose remarks were very brief, was Mr. Vilas, who said that the deceased was "relatively a stranger to him," and then indulged in a long quotation from "Thanatopsis."

In this relation it may be observed that the employment of verse is generally in inverse ratio to the speaker's knowledge of his subject. The quality of the metrical quotations varies. Sometimes, when the speaker has got hold of a local paper from the decedent's district, elegies having a decidedly original, homespun aspect, but supposed to be specially appropriate, creep in. Usually, however, the quotations are drawn from approved sources, such as the "Psalm of Life," "Thanatopsis," and "O, why should the spirit of mortal be proud?" and there is a strong and general tendency to conclude with the words of *Antony* over *Brutus*:

> "His life was gentle; and the elements
> So mix'd in him that Nature might stand up
> And say to all the world, *This was a man!*"

Not infrequently, when the speaker is lacking in poetic taste, history and political geography are drawn upon. The Congressional Directory always enables the orator to "locate" his subject, both in the immediate and the more remote past, and the enclyclopædias do the rest. The place of birth, if it was foreign, and the place of later residence, are sometimes described, compared, and descanted upon with remarkable comprehension of view and fulness of detail. In one case we find an elaborate eulogy of the departed associate's district, with an enthusiastic description of its wealth and resources, which would have done credit to the skill of a "promoter." In another case an eloquent Senator delivers an oration on the history and achievements of the particular race from which the (to him) unknown member of the other house had sprung.

Sometimes the initiation of the memorial services gives rise to delicate parliamentary questions. Late in February, near the close of the last regular session, attention was called to the fact that the Senate had not discharged its duty to a member of the House who had departed this life during the preceding session. It turned out that this omission was due to a misapprehension as to whose province it was to call up the House resolution for further action. The Senators from the deceased member's State were of different political faiths, and it happened that the one of the same faith as the deceased had entered the Senate since the latter's demise. A delicate question thus arose as to whether length of service or cognate political faith should have precedence. This question, it should be stated, was not raised contentiously, but altogether deferentially, as became the occasion and the "courtesy of the Senate." Finally, faith took the lead, eulogies were pronounced, and the Senate at 5:25 P. M. adjourned.

Reference has already been made to the fact that in the last regular session the number of obitual days was unusually large. There were demands for upwards of twelve in each house, and, as the session was a short one, time became an important element of consideration. In this emergency, an old device, the propriety of which in such cases may be questioned, was adopted—that of "leave to print." Towards the close of the session this was freely resorted to. In these cases, as in those in which the eulogies were actually spoken, the customary memorial volume was of course made up, with a portrait of the subject. Of each of these volumes 8,000 copies are printed, at a cost in each case of $2,720. The total cost for the session was about $30,000. This, however, was an evidence of economy. In some cases as many as 25,000 copies of a memorial volume formerly were printed, at a cost of about $12,000. The number was then cut down to 12,500, and it was subsequently reduced to the present dimension.

It must not be supposed that the practice which has been described does not now and then awaken a protest. Especially is this the case when the death of a member widely known and beloved awakens real feeling. Speaking in February last on the death of Senator Kenna, Mr. Frye said:

> "Mr. President, I have never been in full sympathy, and am not now, with our manner of paying tribute to the memories of associates who have died while in the public service. . . . The fact that Senators are selected to deliver addresses weeks and sometimes months before the occasion is an invitation to a careful preparation, which results in elaborate, philosophical, and beautiful essays, but excludes all impetuosity of speech, all words forced from the lips by the beating heart behind. It seems to me that it would be better, on the day the death of one of our associates is announced, for those Senators who wish, to speak what the heart then and there dictates. This would seem like scattering sweet flowers over the grave of a dead comrade."

Those who have read the record of the obitual days will feel inclined to concur in the sentiments of Mr. Frye, who has not been alone in deprecating what has come to be a distorted and unsightly custom. It would be far better to do away both with the preconcerting of eulogies and the printing of memorial volumes, and to let simple tributes be paid at such time and in such manner as the heart dictates and good taste approves.

## AMERICAN DIPLOMACY.

ITALY, November 10, 1893.

I WONDER if there is any channel by which the American people could be brought to a realizing sense, as the revivalists used to say, of the huge and collective wrong it is doing itself in the continuance of the fantastic system of foreign representation which it supposes to be diplomatic, but which resembles diplomacy (as recognized by the civilized world, Japan, Turkey, China, and even Siam) as much as the general training of a company of New

England militia in 1850 does the drill of a regiment of the German Emperor's Guard. If we did not pride ourselves so much on our great common sense, and our entire freedom from the trammels of old-world precedent, one might hope that a not too long experience would reform our methods; but as we have the immovable conviction that we have discovered the political philosopher's stone and the true method of organizing a state, including civil service and diplomacy, and are no longer bound to pay attention to the precedents of a decrepit civilization, let us be at least consistent enough to drop the old way altogether, and not masquerade our republican simplicity in a grotesque copy of the habits and customs of a state of society entirely different from ours.

We have no diplomatists, while every country with which we have dealings requiring diplomatic action has its body of public servants trained by an education of years, and made effective by a careful selection and the survival of the fittest to perform services which we, if we attempt such an uphill work, are compelled to delegate to men who have all the details of the business still to learn. The consequence can only be, what it is, that all our negotiations are conducted at the seat of our own government, and that our ambassadors and ministers have just as much value, as a rule, as a figurehead or a bowsprit would have on the last Cunarder. Yet even that comparison is one which rather favors us, for the figurehead might be ornamental even if absolutely useless, while our ambassadors are almost never graceful in their places, and are always removed before they have had a chance to become so in case they have it in them to learn the peculiar etiquette of diplomatic circles.

I hear it continually said by the apologists for the American system, that we don't care for the European etiquette; that we are a plain people and have simplified all that, etc., which may be all true, but, if so, only proves that we have no right to intrude into the diplomatic world. When a man insists on forcing himself into a society of whose rules and ways he is utterly ignorant, the host generally requests the servants to show him the door; but when a government like that of the United States sends him into the society, there is a consideration of international courtesy to complicate the action, and the boor remains in the society into which nobody but a gentleman of any other nation is allowed to be sent, and the whole nation becomes responsible for the discourtesy, and is stamped with the initials of its representative. Diplomacy has its peculiar etiquette, its rules of intercourse and of precedence, which have to be learned, and in ignorance of which the best intentioned and most worthy man in America makes himself ridiculous, simply because he puts himself in a position where it is a matter of obligation to know what he should do before he undertakes it. We have had two or three ministers who, by long and intimate contact with European society, had mastered the etiquette of courts and were competent diplomatists—Marsh, Motley, Lowell, at least, will occur to anybody who knows anything of this question; and the most discouraging circumstance connected with it is this, that these men were the targets of the satire and abuse of the great mass of American travellers because they did know and observe the usages of the society in which their official duties placed them. Their travelling fellow-countrymen had the notion that the business of the minister was to introduce them into the courts to which he was accredited; they had their letters addressed to his care, and in a general way expected from him the attentions of a well-bred *valet de place;* and when they got all they were entitled to, and more than the many obligations of the minister made easy to give, they went away abusing him as the "toady of aristocracy," and a man who had sacrificed the simplicity of republican life to the pretensions of an effete aristocracy. It never occurred to one of the revilers that neither of those ministers had made the rules by which he was bound, or was at liberty to modify them to suit the pretensions of republican simplicity.

Mr. Motley was dismissed from a service he condescended to accept from love of and pride in his country, because he wore his hair parted in the middle; Marsh had his days shortened and made bitter in their ending because he had refused to insist on a violation of diplomatic etiquette; and Lowell was persecuted in his life and reviled after his death because he refused to accept the position of *valet de place* for the American emigration, or to urge the intrusion of American worshippers of aristocracy into circles which he had no more control over than he had over the Treasury of the United States. People became his enemies for life for no better cause than that he could see no reason for making it a state question whether Mr. Goldstecker of Nevada or Mr. Shoddy of New York should be presented to the Queen. On the other hand, everybody has heard of the American minister to the court of Italy who sent back his invitation tickets to the court ball, saying that he did not allow his women to go where women danced half-naked, and at the King's table refused the cigar his Majesty had the courtesy to offer him in person, saying that he preferred his own—sentiments he would have had a perfect right to put into effect and words in his own town, but which were a gross breach of courtesy in the minister of the United States at Rome. These may be samples of republican simplicity of manners, but they are none the less proofs that the man guilty of them was unfit to represent the United States in any land as civilized as China or Japan. Ben. Franklin is held up as the model of an ambassador, and so he is, but he was chosen for a special mission, accomplished that mission, for which he was well qualified, and then went home again; and this is the sort of ambassador we should always have. Consuls answer better the needs of the travellers and those of the business world at once, and our legations and embassies are simply useless ornaments in bad taste.

I have in my mind no individual in thus speaking: it is the impression of the entire service, gathered in an experience of a quarter of a century of European life, in England, France, Germany, Italy, Turkey, Austria, and Greece; and where I have seen one thing to raise my patriotic pride, I have seen twenty which brought only mortification. In advance of the arrival of the new minister to Italy, whose person is entirely unknown to me, and whom I shall probably never know, I wish to say here that his appointment in the light of known facts compromises our Government and makes his position a scandal, no matter what kind of a man he may be, or how competent for the post. His hands are dirty, and there is not enough water in the Tiber to wash them clean, nor any personal quality which can make him really respected. He is known to the entire press of Italy to have bought his place, paying a round quarter of a million of *lire Italiane* for it; and in view of this fact it becomes incredible that he should be a competent or fitting person for the place. This popular logic is sound. He will never go to a court reception when those who see him will not have recalled to memory the chief fact of his career, in the common comprehension; and when he is distinguished in public, it will always be as the man who paid a quarter of a million to be appointed ambassador. He will always be received at court, and where he can get admission in society, with polite coldness, as the representative of a country that most people respect—because the Italians are a courteous race, and because diplomacy never fails in the observance of its forms; but no position in society would induce me to face what he will have to face in the inner presentation of the polite world in Rome. X.

## THE MATABELE WAR.

LONDON, November 17, 1893.

AFRICA has within the past few months come with a rush to the front, and it is likely to remain prominent in the public mind until its surface suitable for the occupation of white men is, in fact, "brought within the influence" of the different European nations among whom it is being divided. Trouble has arisen in our "sphere," and the case, like all British troubles, great or small, general or local, has been forced on the consideration of Parliament. Home rule, the *Victoria* disaster, the wicked annexations of the French in Cochin China, for the time pass into the background, and Matabele, Mashona, Lobengula, Buluwayo, Sir Henry Loch, Capt. Lendy, Mr. Rhodes are the subjects of general discussion. Events in relation to Matabeleland and King Lobengula have gone the usual round of all similar dealings with uncivilized races. Reports reach this country of the discovery of a large and fertile district held by a sparse native population. Traders ingratiate themselves by presents of rifles, gunpowder, lead, and brandy. Devoted missionaries, promising blessings in this world and the next, are civilly received. Whites, for one purpose or another, edge into the territory. A friendly monarch, but dimly conscious of what he is doing, cedes certain mining and pastoral monopolies. His authority is soon repudiated by the settlers. Permission is perhaps granted for the erection of a telegraph line. Portions of the wire are cut and obstructed. In the district where the offence has been committed cattle are seized. The King declares the cattle are his, put out to grass with tribesmen. He is, however, prepared to punish the malefactors, which he accordingly proceeds to do in his own summary fashion. Refugees seek asylum in white camps and, naturally, are not delivered up to certain death. The monarch sends an embassy to the Queen, who advises him to endorse her action in giving a charter to the white men and thereby insuring some party being answerable for fair dealing on the part of his new neighbors. He consents. But his fighting men are not altogether satisfied. His envoys upon some occasion are killed—in mistake; or his people steal cattle from the whites, who retaliate by burning down a village and slaughtering a score of its inhabitants. War ensues—"purely defensive" on our part. And what has now happened is a sample of what always happens since modern inventions in gunnery:

"The machine guns worked with extraordinary effect, and the Matabele were easily kept in check from the first. The fight lasted about an hour. The enemy used their rifles, but ineffectually, and finally they fled in complete disorder. They were pursued for some distance

by the mounted men, who, however, were not able to do much execution, and were soon recalled. Of the 7,000 Matabele who went into the fight 1,000 lay on the ground dead or wounded—90 per cent. of them by machine-gun bullets. The entire loss of the Chartered Company's forces was three killed and seven wounded, all by rifle bullets."

And two discoveries have on the present occasion been made, such as are generally made on the termination of such hostilities—one that the defeated potentate is not so bad as, upon the call to arms, he was depicted; the other, that, no matter how the war commenced, there is now to be no going back.

"Lobengula's capital was reached without mishap. The place was deserted save by a few old men and women, and Messrs. Fairbairn and Usher, white traders, whom everybody had supposed dead at the hands of the exasperated Matabele. They had been treated with strange forbearance, they said. . . . The armed settlers are delighted with the new country which is being opened up. They have come to stay."

So far matters have gone in the present instance. We all know what the end will be. If Lobengula and his warriors are not all killed, they will probably, "assured of protection," "come in," to find themselves almost powerless in their own country, at the mercy of a police force recruited, perhaps, from some neighboring people formerly at war with them, and officered by whites. Shocking wars such as the present, with their sequence of annexation of territory, generally arise from the greed of gain or official insolence of individuals or companies, seldom at the desire of the home Government, whose influence is generally involuntary and meant to promote peace. There never was a ministry composed of more humane men than is the present. Mr. Sidney Buxton, undersecretary for the colonies, upon whom, with Lord Ripon, the main responsibility has fallen, is a humanitarian and Liberal of the first water, grandson of one whose name he bears who took a foremost place in the philanthropic movement of his day. Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Bryce, Mr. Morley, Lord Ripon, and he are some of the most responsible members of the Government—but the truth is, the home Government is little if at all responsible in this matter. It has done its best, but, as usual in such cases, it, at a distance, is incapable of counteracting the aggrandizement and selfishness of individuals on the spot. We often hear it said that "governments have no conscience." In the present instance the Government shows more conscientiousness than individuals, but is powerless to act consistently. Once the curse of being discovered falls upon an uncivilized race with land suitable for occupation by whites or containing unworked wealth capable of development, its fate is sealed. The good-will of a home government is as unavailing to save it as is the Government at Washington to save the shrieking black being made a petroleum candle of by a degraded mob in one of the Southern States. Those who first obtain a footing are whites of the lowest class and most selfish instincts. "A church clergyman played the fiddle—most of the company were drunk by ten o'clock," is the account of a charity ball in Mashonaland given in a book lately written by two nursing sisters. Society does not improve as quickly in such lands as in the competition between equals in those previously unoccupied, say, as in California. A veritable hell upon earth reigns until some responsible form of government, under the ægis of an already constituted power, is established. After this the natives, no less surely but perhaps somewhat more gently, are led to their fate. That of the hecatombs swept away by machine guns in a last stand for *their* highest conception of life is not so sad as that of the survivors, broken in spirit by their impact with a new order of things and decimated by drink * and disease, lingering out life perhaps in cages, like the Kaffirs of the diamond mines, the degraded survivors in lands where they once roamed free.

A candid consideration of the Matabele question should lead to individual heart-searching of our natural tendencies to the acquisition of wealth at the expense of others. Rights acquired for practically nothing by charter are now valued at millions on the money market. It also appears to me to argue strongly in favor of teetotalism, for if much of the demoralization of subject races is brought about by the sale of drink, it is impossible for those who maintain the desirability of drinking customs effectually to protest against its export and sale to other peoples. The outcome of the debate should be a warning against factiousness in politics. Had the present war in South Africa arisen under a Conservative régime, not many Liberals would have been ready to consider candidly the difficulties of the Government. In truth, while a Conservative Government finds it easier to carry reform measures because its opponents are pledged to the cause of reform, so a Liberal Government finds it easier to steer through a difficulty such as the present because its opponents are inclined to support all assertions of British power abroad. Those who do not live under a flag carried in an ever recurring succession of such wars cannot conceive the shame and horror they bring. We are, as it were, carried on by inexorable fate into a series of situations from which we naturally revolt. As citizens we must accept complicity in government; as individuals we cannot regard the extension of empire through such means, however unavoidable, as great or glorious. John Woolman's ideal, that of the early Friends—abstention from complicity in all that falls short of the highest standard—is impossible of fulfilment. The attempt to practise it would lead with most men to a quietist indifference, a concentration of the powers and sympathies upon our own narrow circle. We feel impelled, each in his own degree and mode, to step down into the arena of human suffering and action, and, soiled as we may be by the dust and mud of conflict, to bear our part, even if we do not always fully see our way. The invariable fate of nations such as those with whom we are now dealing must render difficult to thousands a heartfelt acceptance of comforting platitudes regarding "His goodness being over all His works."

Concerning the ultimate gain to humanity there can be no question. Matabeleland in its present condition might support some thousands in a state of semi-barbarism. Developed and inhabited by a white race, it would sustain millions in comfort and plenty. And so, in consideration of the benefit to mankind in the long run, we must strive to turn our thoughts from the inevitable horrors involved in the change.

> "Oh yet we trust that somehow good
> Will be the final goal of ill."

But we cannot believe that the present war will result in real good to either of the parties waging it. D. B.

* In this connection there comes to my mind a passage from a letter of a young friend who went out as surgeon on a trading steamer to the African coast: "On Sunday we cast anchor opposite a church and missionary station and landed 2,000 cases of gin."

# Correspondence.

## DUELLING IN VIRGINIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the subject of Virginian duels touched upon in the "Notes" of the last *Nation*, I send you an excerpt from the Council Journal of that State which may prove of interest. I made it some years ago, when investigating another subject, and I have never seen it in print. The journal from which it is taken is of great value to students, and it is to be hoped that the revived interest in Virginian history may induce the State authorities to take measures for its speedy and unabridged publication.

The citation is made from the minutes for Friday, February 27th, 1778, the following members being present: His Excellency (Patrick Henry), Dudley Digges, John Blair, David Jameson, James Madison, and Bolling Stark, Esquires.

"The proceedings of a general Court Martial on the trial of Lieutenants [*sic*] Walker Richardson of the Second Regiment of State Troops for fighting a Duel with Lieutenant Triplett of the same Regiment Contrary to the Articles of War section 7th & Article Second, being laid by the Governor before the Board for their Opinion thereupon and it appearing that the said Richardson was sentenced by the said Court to be cashiered for a Breach of the said article, but that inasmuch as he had conducted himself as a Gentleman & Officer it was recommended that he be reinstated to his former Rank: The Council taking the same into Consideration are Unanimously of Opinion that the said Sentence be confirmed, & to shew their abhorrence of the practice of Duelling notwithstanding the Recommendation of the Court advised his Excellency to let him remain cashiered; which the Governor orders accordingly."

W. P. Trent.

Sewanee, Tenn., November 18, 1893.

## SAND-LOTS DISCRIMINATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Please allow me a few lines to call attention to the absurd outburst of misplaced sentiment regarding the landing of a few Russian convicts at San Francisco—for the men who landed were convicts pure and simple; political exiles are rarely, if ever, sent to Sakhalien. One is puzzled to notice the difference between the way San Francisco receives them and the way she receives peaceable Chinese immigrants.—Very respectfully,

Charles R. Crane.

Chicago, November 21, 1893.

## THE LETTERING OF BOOK BACKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some time since you were so kind as to allow me space to complain of the absurdity of sending finely bound books to their readers with the pages uncut. By the number of letters received from well-known scholars, I know my words were acceptable.

I wish now to complain of a still greater evil: I mean the ineffectual and capricious manner in which the backs of books are often lettered. As a sample of the ineffectual, look at the backs of Miss Alice Bacon's charming books on Japan. The letters are undersized, traced in silver—easily tarnished. They would not readily be found on the shelf by any one who had not seen them. "Capricious" titles are those applied in antique or fancy letters, or Roman letters highly decorated, like those

on the early editions of Hawthorne's 'Note-Books.' This practice is on the increase, and, worse still, the illustrated books intended for the use of children, like Mrs. Ewing's, are often printed in letters wholly different from those the children learn at school.

First-class publishers should hold themselves above such devices. I have long wished to draw attention to this abuse, but an accident makes me at this moment especially indignant. My catalogue marks case and shelf—the books are not numbered. Three days ago I went hastily to the proper shelf for an English book. I did not see it, so sent my housekeeper, an educated woman, to look more carefully. The matter was urgent, and, when she did not succeed, I, going on with my writing, begged the services of two young friends who dropped in. More than two hours were spent in vain, and the search ceased. That evening I took a small lamp and went through the case, imagining the book might have been displaced. When I came to the proper shelf, my lamp glanced over a much ornamented back in which not one letter was legible. I had to take the book down and open it, and behold, it was the one we had been seeking!

Books should be labelled in Roman letters only. These should be large and clear and broadly traced.

CAROLINE HEALEY DALL.

WASHINGTON, D.C., November 24, 1893.

# Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS have nearly ready an illustrated 'Life of Sir Joshua Reynolds,' by Claude Phillips, and 'The Barbary Coast,' by Dr. Henry M. Field.

J. Selwin Tait & Sons announce 'Sandow on Physical Culture,' by G. Mercer Adam.

A 'Memorial Story of America' is in the press of John C. Winston & Co., Philadelphia—a new topical history of the United States, edited with many colaborers by Hamilton W. Mabie and Marshall H. Bright.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. send out three more volumes in the comely Riverside edition of Thoreau's Writings, viz., Mr. Blake's excerpts from the journal for Summer, Autumn, and Winter, the first-named containing a map of Concord, with all the famous localities and residences indicated; and 'Natural History of Intellect, and Other Papers,' being the twelfth and final volume in the Riverside edition of Emerson's Writings. This embraces eight papers from the *Dial*, two from the *North American Review*, and three hitherto unprinted lectures on "The Natural History of the Intellect," "Memory," and "Boston." The second is a slight matter, but the discursive eulogium on his native city is as just and discriminating as it is warm, while for style, thought, and "system" nothing could be more characteristic of Emerson than "The Natural History of the Intellect." As one reads consecutively these too compact pithy and brilliant sayings one recalls that distinguished delivery, halting and detached, which supplied Emerson's listeners with the necessary pauses for assimilation and digestion. There was, perhaps, almost as much art in this as in his choice of words. The book has a general index to the thought of Emerson—a difficult task—and one to his quotations, assigning them to their respective sources. One could have wished for a third, of references to his contemporaries.

The volume of eighteen 'Discourses, by Edward H. Hall, pastor of the First Parish, Cambridge, Mass.' (Boston: George H. Ellis), contains a powerful sermon against the abuses of our pension legislation. Many of our readers will remember it as having been separately published two or three years ago. The whole volume is marked by that high style of thought and feeling which has always characterized the best spiritual products of New England, and which has done so much to keep religion from stagnation and to hold public and private conduct amenable to the highest standards.

The appearance of the second volume of the translation of Dr. Moeller's excellent handbook, 'History of the Christian Church in the Middle Ages' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.), will be welcomed by all who have learned to value the good qualities of the first. It is only to be regretted that the work of translation should have been put into so incapable hands. Mr. Rutherfurd's servile adherence to the original makes it difficult at times to know in what language one is reading, and this defect has already proved serious in the practical use of the book for purposes of instruction. The bibliographies, good as far as they go, might well have been increased with especial reference to the needs of English-speaking students.

'Across France in a Caravan' (Anson D. F. Randolph & Co.) is a brightly written account of the journey of an Englishman, his wife, and his dog, from Bordeaux to Genoa. The average American, who wants to be transported as rapidly as may be, by land or by water, from one place to another, will probably look down upon the Briton's enthusiasm; but even if he cannot enter into the spirit which led the author to prefer a caravan on wheels to a *rapide*, he cannot fail to enjoy the account of the trip, bright and breezy from beginning to end. Troubles and adventures, mishaps and incidents are numerous enough to prevent any sense of monotony, and while at times the author is guilty of efforts at witticism which are apt to fail, he is abundantly and naturally humorous, sees the comical side of things, and hits off the ridiculous and absurd in officials, innkeepers, peasantry, and nobility with a very happy touch. It is not so much the descriptions of places visited, most of them better described by other travellers, as the recital of the moving accidents by field and flood which charm the reader, and the insight he thus obtains into the character of the thorough Briton. The book is richly illustrated with very clever sketches, which greatly add to its already entertaining character.

Dr. Michael Foster's 'Text-Book of Physiology' (Macmillan) is at present undergoing its sixth revision. Parts I., IV., and V., treating respectively of the blood, the tissues of movement, and the vascular mechanism; the senses and reproduction; the chemical basis of the animal body, have already appeared. The other parts, on digestion, respiration, and the central nervous system, will appear shortly. From its first issue as a single octavo volume of moderate size in 1876, it has so grown that each of the five parts is, in this sixth edition, nearly as large as the entire original work. From the beginning it was recognized as a masterpiece, and at once took a prominent place among text-books of physiology, and, to our shame, found also a prominent place among pirated works. All those who labored so long and assiduously for international copyright will be rejoiced to know that this edition is copyrighted under the new law. If one seeks for the reason of the high estimate in which this work is held on both sides of the Atlantic, by the most advanced students as well as by general readers, it may be found in the simplicity and beauty of the style, in the lack of personal prejudice on the part of the author, in his thorough familiarity with the progress of physiological knowledge, and in the rare judgment with which purely hypothetical ideas and those founded on sufficient evidence are discriminated. The work is, therefore, a most admirable guide to physiological progress as well as general physiological knowledge. The rapidity in the growth of physiological knowledge and the thoroughness of the revision of this edition are indicated by nearly 500 additional pages, as compared with the corresponding parts of the fifth edition. The feeling of confidence inspired by the work is also enhanced by the fact that, under the author's inspiring guidance, students have arisen who, in certain fields, have outstripped their master, and he has secured their coöperation in making the work, as just revised, a truly great treatise.

The revived Geological Survey of Iowa, under the direction of Prof. Samuel Calvin, has recently issued its first volume, in which the two chief papers are by C. R. Keyes, Assistant State Geologist; one giving a general account of the formations of the State, the other presenting a full bibliography of its geology and palæontology. The most important part of the first of these papers concerns the unconformability between the lower and upper members of the carboniferous system, or the Mississippian and the Pennsylvanian series, as they are now coming to be called. The Algonkian rocks, represented in the Sioux quartzite, and the cretaceous formation, including valuable deposits of clay, extend the series of formations over a greater time range than is common in the central States.

Since 1891 there has appeared in the *Revue Bleue* a series of articles, the last published in October, 1893, on "L'Histoire des réputations littéraires." These articles, signed by M. Paul Stapfer, have been collected by him and republished by Hachette under the title 'Des réputations littéraires: Essais de morale et d'histoire,' first series. The volume contains all the articles in the *Revue Bleue* and as many more new ones. The order is somewhat changed, and part of the work has been rewritten. The essays are remarkably interesting; they not only throw much light on the main subject of which M. Stapfer treats, but contain many excellent criticisms and sound judgments on authors and their works. The articles on "Manières diverses de survivre," "Le fond et la forme," "Première méditation sur le petit nombre des élus," "L'heure du génie," "La comédie du hasard," and the concluding "L'avenir de la littérature," are especially to be noted among the sixteen which make up the book.

The firm of Hachette & Cie. issues an *Almanach* bearing its name and full of valuable information. An interesting feature is the series of prognostications by eminent men, such as Leo XIII., Bismarck, Reclus, Jules Simon, and others. Of these the remarks of Bourget: "I have come to the conclusion that the greater number of the men and women who obey the precepts of the Church are free from the moral disorders I have described in my novels," and of Vogüé: "The certainty of peace—I do not say peace itself—would, within half a century, engender corruption and decadence more deadly to mankind than the most frightful of wars," are suggestive.

Owing to difficulties attending the proof-reading of the catalogue, Renan's library will not be sold for some weeks to come. The edit-

ing of the catalogue, which will be a work of considerable value, is in charge of Renan's son, the artist. It will contain about 7,000 titles. Renan's whole library numbered about 10,000 or 12,000. The catalogued books are only those of importance; the others are to be given over to an ordinary dealer in second-hand books, who will dispose of them. Mme. Renan has quitted the apartments in the Collège de France, and now resides in the Avenue de l'Observatoire.

In transitional periods of every literature there are certain writers whose works refuse to fit smoothly into any of the regular pigeonholes of critical classification. These works are neither epics, nor lyrics, nor dramas, nor satires, nor novels, nor philosophical systems, nor histories, but partake, in protean and confused fashion, of all or many of the fully developed types. Besides the interest of curiosity attaching to them, to the student of comparative criticism they stand very much as the long-desiderated "missing link" might to the student of comparative biology: they catch the *Zeitgeist* midway, as it were, in the act of changing its clothes. To such students Signor Ireneo Sanesi has rendered a service in his learned little work, 'Il cinquecentista Ortensio Laudo' (Pistoia: Fratelli Bracalli). It must be premised that Signor Sanesi writes for scholars. Knowledge of Laudo's social and literary environment he presupposes; and to the general reader, even were he attracted by so remote a phenomenon as this sixteenth-century "chameleon-satyr," the cautious fulness of the Italian scholar's conjectural hesitations, and the heaviness of his bibliographical asides, would very likely prove altogether daunting.

Under the title 'Studi Letterari,' and apparently as vol. viii. of his collected 'Opere' (Bologna: Zanichelli), Giosuè Carducci reprints three essays from the earlier 'Studi Letterari' (Leghorn, 1874), and adds a fourth which has as yet appeared only in the *Nuova Antologia* (1881). The first are the studies entitled 'Delle Rime di Dante,' 'Della varia fortuna di Dante,' and 'Musica e Poesia nel mondo elegante italiano del secolo xiv.'; the last is called 'Un Poeta d'Amore nel secolo xii.', and is a highly sympathetic, as well as scholarly, treatment of the Provençal poet Bernart de Ventadorn. All the essays have been retouched, and several interesting notes have been added.

'A Primer of Italian Literature,' by F. J. Snell, M. A. (Oxford: Clarendon Press), is a very slight and second-hand affair. The author tells us that his book "does not profess to present a complete account of Italian Litera ture," and clearly this should not be the aim of a primer. All the more, however, should every word in such a sketch be just the right word, reflecting the latest and best opinions upon the subject. Mr. Snell does not seem to have used even the most familiar histories of Italian literature (*e. g.*, Gaspary's and Bartoli's), to say nothing of the now extensive body of special treatises.

*Good Roads* is the title of an illustrated monthly magazine published in this city by the Roads Improvement Bureau of the League of American Wheelmen. It was founded last year, and is now in its fourth volume. Vols. i.-iii. are before us in cloth binding. They constitute a valuable repertory of facts concerning the condition of roads in many States of the Union, as well as detailed instruction in road-making, with diagrams and photographic views from nature. Portraits of contributors (in some cases State Governors) satisfy curiosity in regard to the features of an Altgeld or a Russell. An attempt is also made to lighten the contents occasionally by a story, but the main impression is, as it should be, a serious one, and we must all wish well to the propaganda carried on by *Good Roads* and enforced by so many pictorial "awful examples."

The *Mother's Nursery Guide* (*Babyhood*) completes this month its ninth volume, without exhausting the field which this wisely conducted periodical has made peculiarly its own. As a mother writes to the editor, "It seems as though every subject had been touched upon, and yet I am anxious to ask a few questions about my own particular child"; and so it must be to the end.

In *Macmillan's Magazine* for November Mr. C. H. Firth reveals a fresh but limited source of information concerning the early life of Samuel Pepys when he was "my servant" or factotum to Sir Edward Montagu (afterwards Earl of Sandwich). Some of his letters to this nobleman found their way into Carte's collection, now in the Bodleian Library, and Mr. Firth extracts what is characteristic and historically important in them. They were written between the years 1656 and 1660, and three, dating from December, 1659, describe the popular rising against the rule of the army on the eve of the Restoration. One might expect all these interesting documents to be appended in full to Mr. Wheatley's new edition of the Diary. In the same number of the magazine an anonymous writer offers "Some Thoughts on Rousseau." They are not very valuable, even as a plea in abatement of M. Brunetière's recent harsh verdict, but they show how fascinating the author of 'Emile' continues to be, to friends and enemies alike. He and his works, says this writer, occupy more than eighty pages in the British Museum catalogue. What remains to be done for Rousseau, after all the attempts to estimate his character and to deduce a consistent philosophy from his writings, is to give readers of to-day an adequate conception of the intellectual reward derivable from a perusal of his works for their own sake.

Among the noteworthy contents of the November *Geographical Journal* is Lord Dunmore's account of his extensive journey through the Pamirs last year. It would have been far more interesting could he have been permitted, in addition to the geographical details of his journey, to describe the military and political events which took place in this region at the time of his visit. The destruction of a Chinese fort by the Russians is mentioned, and an incident is related showing the extreme jealousy of the former nation of any attempt to occupy the disputed territory. Among the strange places visited was a "perfectly square frozen lake" on the summit of a pass, 15,700 feet high, which had all the appearance of an artificial reservoir, "its sloping sides being paved by nature with flat stones fitting closely together, giving it all the appearance of a piece of solid mason work." Lord Dunmore experienced very cold weather. Even in September the thermometer went below zero at night, while "on Christmas eve the temperature fell to 38° below zero, and I woke to find three of my horses lying frozen at my tent door." Some notes on Southern Nyasaland are interesting chiefly as showing the progress made in developing the country by plantations and road-making. Mr. H. G. Schlichter describes his method of determining geographical longitudes by photography, and the Rev. J. A. Wylie contributes a description of a very recent journey through central Mantchuria. A singular native account of the fall of Khartum and the death of Gordon is given in a paper upon the Hausa pilgrimages. The author, the Rev. C. H. Robinson, proposes to attempt to reach the Hausa States from the Niger and from thence to cross the desert to Tripoli. One of his principal objects will be the collection of specimens of native Hausa literature and the study of the dialectical differences existing in this language, with a view to the eventual publication of the New Testament.

The chief article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for November has for its title "The Discovery of America by Columbus," but it is in reality a sketch of the gradual development of our knowledge concerning the ocean from the most ancient times to the present. It is accompanied by an exceedingly interesting series of fifteen historical maps. The author, Dr. John Murray, in showing the geographical conceptions of the ancients, dwells especially upon the work of Eratosthenes, who shocked the men of his day by doubting the geographical knowledge of Homer and saying that the real localities described in the 'Odyssey' could never be discovered "until they had found out the cobbler who had sewed up the bag of Æolus." Considering his intimate relations with the *Challenger* expedition, it is not strange that Dr. Murray holds our advances in oceanography to be the most brilliant addition to our knowledge of the earth made during the past generation. In the closing paragraphs of an unusually interesting treatment of a threadbare subject, he shows a decided leaning to Mr. Jules Marcou's theory that the name America is derived from a range of mountains in Nicaragua. There is also an appreciative notice of Emin Pasha, with a portrait from a photograph taken in Zanzibar in 1891. The last entries in Emin's field-book, which with other papers was secured by a Congo Free State official, Capt. Dhanis, of present fame, are given, but they have no especial interest as they refer mainly to the marches of his caravan. On August 9 he writes: "By the negligence of our Manyema chief, all my collections have been lost in the River Tunda, which we had to cross in a canoe. What a pity!" An extract is also given from a letter to his sister in 1871, in which he says: "I have quickly gained a reputation as a doctor. This is due to the fact that I know Turkish and Arabic as few Europeans know them, and that I have so completely adopted the habits and customs of the people that no one believes that an honest German is disguised behind a Turkish name. Don't be afraid; I have only adopted the name, I have not become a Turk."

The present term has seen the opening of a new hall for resident women students in Oxford. St. Hilda's starts under the auspices of Miss Beale, the energetic head of the ladies' college, Cheltenham, and will probably always contain a certain number of her old pupils. A beginning is made with a total of nine. Somerville Hall is building again; the second large house, opened a very few years ago, being already full to overflowing. Another new development of the work of the "Association for the Education of Women" is in the direction of a more definite organization of the so-called "Home Students." This body, which includes several American ladies, now numbers forty-five members, of whom twenty-five are reading for the University honor examinations. Their interests will in future be specially cared for by a lady principal assisted by a small committee. This step places these women students to some extent under the same conditions as the non-collegiate undergraduate body who live under the rule of a censor and a delegacy.

A Faust exhibition is now being held in the

Goethe house at Frankfort under the charge of a German patriotic society, its object being to show the influence of the Faust legend on the intellectual life of Germany. Beginning with the historical Faust, the development of the legend is traced by contemporary accounts, including the various versions, native and foreign, of the *Faustbücher*. The collection includes a vast number of programmes of Marlowe's "Dr. Faustus" as well as of Goethe's drama, and copies of all operas, parodies, satires, etc., based on this subject. Among the translations of Goethe's "Faust" are twenty-one English, eighteen French, four Russian, three each of Swedish, Portuguese, and Italian, concluding with one Hebrew; the poem being represented in sixteen languages in all.

—A correspondent writes:

"Geographical accuracy was from first to last a cardinal aim of the late Francis Parkman. It is doubtful whether any historian covering so large a field has left so few of its localities unvisited and unexamined. He states that 'a strong natural taste led him to the regions of the wild West,' and that he had 'studied his subjects as much in the open air, by camp fires and in canoes, as at the library-table.' East, west, north, and south, the authority for his topographical descriptions is personal observation. But, aware that while ever learning we are never able to come to knowledge of geography, he never hesitated to correct errors concerning any natural feature when he had fallen into them. An instance of this love of the precise truth may be observed in comparing different editions of his Life of La Salle. He was anxious to ascertain the particular point on the Illinois River at which La Salle had passed the winter on his return from discovering the mouth of the Mississippi. This spot, he learned, had been supposed to be Buffalo Rock (p. 293), while his studies had brought him to the conclusion that it must have been Starved Rock, three miles further down the river and on its other bank. For settling the question he made a journey to Utica, the nearest village. He spent more than a day in conference with the inhabitants and in examining localities, and was fully confirmed in his former conclusions (p. 224). In giving reasons for his opinion in his Life of La Salle in the edition of 1870 (p. 288), he said, 'The rock fortified by La Salle [and on which he wintered] stood, we are told, at the edge of the water [as he had described Starved Rock], while Buffalo Rock is at some distance from the bank.' Mr. Parkman's account of the scenery here induced me, though living in another State, to explore the neighborhood. Halting at Ottawa I felt inclined to make the journey down the Illinois in the same way that La Salle had voyaged there. I therefore procured a little boat with two oarsmen. Many things were of interest on this passage, but what most surprised me on arriving at Buffalo Rock was to see that, so far from being 'some distance from the bank,' it formed the bank itself, and rose sheer out of the water no less truly than even Starved Rock. When this discovery was made known to Mr. Parkman, he struck out the above sentence in his first edition, from the edition of 1879 (p. 293) and all subsequent issues. Sending me a corrected copy, he expressed his regret that his own journey to La Salle's winter-quarters had been by rail and not by boat, so that he had never seen Buffalo Rock from the water, and hence had fallen into a mistake which no man was more glad than he to have detected and corrected."

—On November 14 Prof. Edward Caird was elected Master of Balliol, and, on the day before, the appointment of Mr. Ingram Bywater as Regius Professor of Greek at Oxford was gazetted. Thus the positions filled by the late Master of Balliol have been separated, and his official functions will be discharged by two men of great eminence. Prof. Bywater enjoys an American as well as a European reputation as a textual and diplomatic scholar, and in Oxford he is known to be a very able and inspiring lecturer. The new Master of Balliol also needs no introduction to the larger world. The fame of his books has attracted many from far to Glasgow, where he has been for upwards of twenty years, having been elected while holding a fellowship at Merton College, Oxford. He was an undergraduate at Balliol, and now he returns after thirty years to take up the work begun there by Lewis Nettleship and T. H. Green, whose pupil and friend he was, and to give needed strength to a group of very successful and very hard-worked teachers. His power to lead has been long remarked upon.

—At a joint meeting of the Oxford Philological and Ancient History Societies held early this month in Oriel College common-room, Mr. J. L. Myres gave the results of his recent collection of evidence bearing upon the earliest stages of culture in the lands bordering on the Greek archipelago. Hitherto no implements of the palæolithic period have been found in this area. Polished stone axe-heads and hammers have appeared in the lowest strata at Hissarlik, Tiryns, Mykenæ, and Athens, but nothing more primitive. This is partly accounted for by the materials at hand; volcanic and other crystalline rocks having no fracture to invite the most primitive work done upon flints in more northerly regions. Chert enters largely into some Asiatic limestones, and is found in Naxos, but was apparently not used in the early period. The polished implements above mentioned are found sporadically in the whole Mediterranean basin. The Greek specimens, those from Melos and Eubœa, for instance, are made out of rocks found in the neighborhood. Flakes of obsidian from Melos were fashioned at Corinth and at Kephissia in Attica. At Platæa one of the volcanic glazes of Thera was used. Definite settlements belonging to this period of workmanship existed at Hissarlik (the first town) and at Athens, where its traces have been unearthed under the Mykenæan walls behind the Stoa of Eumenes. Less decisive evidence has been gathered at Mykenæ and Tiryns. Traces of similar settlements at Lechaion, Eleusis, Eubœan Castri, on the peninsula of Myndos, and in Cos, have been made out. In Egypt, just before the bronze age, came a hardened-copper period. This is made out also at Hissarlik and in Thera, though in both places the copper is found along with traces of a more advanced civilization. Mr. Myres then discussed the hand-made pottery of the bronze age from Hissarlik, Thera, Syra, and other islands, and pointed out its correspondence with the earliest Cypriote specimens—these last being certainly not earlier than the bronze age. To this age belong the "marble-workers" of Paros, Antiparos, and Amorgos, as well as certain centres of Naxos, Amorgos, and Syra and other islands, as well as at Mykenæ, Tiryns, and in Attica. From handmade the pottery of this period advanced to a rude machine manufacture. Glazes were used and some forms of ornament. The specimens from Thera are remarkable and approach the Mykenæan type. This last may or may not have come later. Then followed a discussion of Mykenæan forms, with which the paper ended. Mr. Myres combated the notion of a Carian origin for the Mykenæan civilization and its products, and closed with a brief mention of new facts lately gathered by him in Crete.

—Dr. Schliemann described in his 'Troja' and 'Ilios' seven successive layers of city ruins found in his excavations at Hissarlik. This number was increased in 1890 to nine by the discovery of two layers intervening between the highest (or Roman) layer, formerly called the seventh, and the sixth, or so-called Lydian layer. These two layers were, from the character of the finds, attributed to the early and the later Greek period. Dr. Schliemann was baffled by the fact that he could discover no acropolis for the sixth, seventh, or eighth layers. Dr. Dörpfeld, who in May resumed the excavations at the expense of Dr. Schliemann's widow, makes in the *Mittheilungen* of the German Archæological Society (xviii, 2), which appeared November 7, a significant report clearly establishing the fact that the Romans, in building the great temple of Ilian Athene, cut down the highest part of the acropolis, and thus destroyed all traces of the acropolis belonging to those layers. The excavations of 1890 had brought to light two magnificent buildings in the sixth layer, besides "Lydian" jars, much pottery, and one entire vase of the Mykenæan or Homeric period. The evidence favored the identification of this layer with the Homeric Troy or the period of Mykenæ and Tiryns. On the other hand, the fact that only two buildings and no city wall had been discovered for this layer seemed to indicate that the Troy of Priam must be referred to a lower level, namely, the second, where a magnificent wall of prehistoric style had been discovered, although its architecture and the character of the finds suggested a more primitive culture than that painted in Homeric song. The sixth layer has now in large part been exposed by Dr. Dörpfeld and reveals the most imposing wall of pre-Roman times. The remains of seven vast buildings have been brought to light which have in part the ground plan of the ancient Greek temples and of the halls of Tiryns and Mykenæ, though surpassing those in proportions and in the carefulness of their architecture. The remains of one admirable building contained a hall 37 feet by 30. The trunk of a stone pillar in its axis showed by its form and position that the building was originally divided by three wooden pillars into two naves. The resemblance of this building to the temple exhumed at Neandria is very marked.

—Further, Dr. Dörpfeld uncovered the fortifications of this city in many places, and found them some sixteen feet in thickness with a still greater height. On the outside the wall has a uniform slope. A strong-tower fifty-eight feet in diameter contains an inner staircase. In strength, proportions, and careful architecture this tower will compare favorably with any tower of Greek antiquity. The neat work of the corners and the nice dressing of the stones might refer it to a period later than Homer, to the historical Greek period, did we not know that in historical times Troy was too insignificant to need the erection of such walls. Moreover, the tower, built over in Greek times, and partly damaged by the addition of an outer stair, was finally in Roman times buried under massive foundations. The correspondences in stone-work of the wall and the houses place the tower and the buildings evidently in the same layer. In the houses were found both local pottery and also pottery of the Mykenæan style. Dr. Dörpfeld's fuller statement, with plans and cuts of finds, may be looked for some time before next spring.

—Mr. Wilmot Harrison, in the preface to his new volume, 'Memorable Paris Houses' (Charles Scribner's Sons), complains that this work, "originally intended, and prepared, for publication in French," is "still awaiting the enterprise of Parisian *éditeurs*." The reason for

this lack of enterprise, if it be a lack, is perhaps not far to seek. The book is interesting; the ground it covers is fertile and has not been fully worked by other writers; the names of dwellers in the "memorable houses" are all, or nearly all, famous. But there are many inaccuracies—enough of them, certainly, to justify the hesitation of Paris publishers, who, after a glance at the manuscript, must have come to the conclusion that a thorough revision would be the indispensable preliminary to publication. On the very first page the date of the decree forbidding Mme. de Staël to reside within forty miles of Paris is given as 1802, when it was actually issued on October 15, 1803. Two lines lower down, her husband's health is stated to have been the cause of her delay in returning to the capital after the Emperor's fall, no hint being given that the husband in question was not Baron de Staël-Holstein, who died in May, 1802, but her second husband, Albert de Rocca. In speaking of Balzac's removal in 1830 to the Rue Cassini, it is stated that "sixteen romances had appeared from his pen." Proudhon is said to have come to Paris in 1838; it was in November, 1839, and he finally settled there at the end of 1847, not in 1848. It was in March, 1849, that he was condemned to prison and to a fine of four hundred pounds sterling, and in December, 1849, that he was married, not between 1852–1858. These are samples of the inaccuracies too frequent in Mr. Harrison's book. His method of abbreviating references to authorities is also reprehensible: "Galerie des Cont. Illus.," "Les Cont.," "Hist. Cont." are necessarily conundrums to the ordinary reader. Through carelessness or ignorance most titles of French works are disfigured: "Salambo," "Le Peau Chagrin," "Souvenirs Contemporaines," "La Chambre Bleu," "The Philosophe sous les Toits," are specimens taken at haphazard. The point of the story of Frederick Lemaître is absurdly destroyed: "I am *flamé*," a new word, certainly not French, which is translated by the author "dished, diddled," which is probably meant for *floué*. With plenty of corrections the book would prove useful; at present it is not reliable.

## PATER'S PLATO AND PLATONISM.

*Plato and Platonism:* A Series of Lectures. By Walter Pater. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

THESE lectures evince the same intimate studies, the same literary gifts and graces, the same penetrating and vital sympathy with the Hellenic spirit, that revealed themselves more than twenty years ago in the essay on Winckelmann, and later again in the history of the pilgrimage, mental and spiritual, of 'Marius the Epicurean.' It is not Mr. Pater's object to criticise dogmatically the general body of Platonic doctrine, but simply to enable the student to understand Plato—to put him in his historic place as a result from antecedent and contemporary movements of Greek speculation and life. It is his object, following a striking suggestion of Hegel's, to help the student, "as in reading 'Hamlet' or the 'Divine Comedy,' so in reading the 'Republic,' to watch for its dramatic interest, the spectacle of a powerful, of a sovereign intellect translating itself, amid a group of complex conditions which can never, in the nature of things, occur again, at once pliant and resistant to them, into a great literary monument."

The scene amid which this interesting drama is enacted is the Grecian states, seething with life and motion—a small vortex of contagious energy amid the quiescence of the antique world. This dreaming Oriental world, in which "the conscious individual, with his rights and capacities, is nothing," the Greek had awakened.

"He had stepped forth," says Mr. Pater, pursuing another thought of Hegel's in a characteristic paragraph which we quote for its importance, "like the young prince in the fable, to set things going. To the philosophic eye, however, about the time when the history of Thucydides leaves off they might seem to need a regulator, ere the very wheels wore themselves out. Mobility! We do not think that a necessarily undesirable condition of life, of mind, of the physical world about us. 'Tis the dead things, we may remind ourselves, that after all are most entirely at rest, and might reasonably hold that motion (vicious, fallacious, infectious motion, as Plato inclined to think) covers all that is best worth being. And as for philosophy—mobility, versatility, the habit of thought that can most adequately follow the subtle movement of things—that surely were the secret of wisdom, of the true knowledge of them. . . . It means susceptibility, sympathetic intelligence, capacity, in short. It was the spirit of God that moved, moves still, in every form of real power everywhere. Yet to Plato motion becomes the token of unreality in things, of falsity in our thoughts about them. It is just this principle of mobility, in itself so welcome to all of us, that, with all his contriving care for the future, he desires to withstand. Everywhere he displays himself as an advocate of the immutable. The 'Republic' is a proposal to establish it indefectibly in a very precisely regulated, a very exclusive community, which shall be a refuge for elect souls from an ill-made world."

How this singular attitude came about, what were the currents of thought, the forces personal, political, and social, which acted and reacted on Plato's mind, Mr. Pater sketches vividly and compactly in the chapters which describe Plato's forerunners, and his relations to Socrates and the Sophists. In tracing his ancestry, the factors of his mental constitution, our author has naturally something to say of Heraclitus, who, in the saying, "All things flow," and the changes he rings on it, anticipated vaguely our modern conception of a universe in constant flux and motion, evolving itself by a secular process; something also of Parmenides, who, in his conception of the absolute and the one, again prefigures the unity of that inscrutable eternal energy which is immanent in the process of the universe; and, once more, of Pythagoras, who to the Heraclitean flux adds the conception of number and of rhythm—that divine harmony which issues, poetically, in the music of the spheres—and who bequeaths, moreover, to Plato that notion of preëxistence and metempsychosis which so dominates his mind, and which he has used to purposes so spiritual and so lofty. The Doctrine of Rest, the Doctrine of Motion, the Doctrine of Number (as Mr. Pater calls them), this triad of conceptions—the oneness of the basis of the universe, its constant flux or motion, the rhythm or harmony which regulates its processes, announced and emphasized by successive thinkers who dwelt too exclusively on this or that partial view of nature—these three doctrines have their counterpart in the region of ethics as well as of politics and social life.

With perhaps some fancifulness, yet certainly also with a basis of historic fact, Mr. Pater finds these ideas embodied in the varied types of Greek character and race—the flux of Heraclitus in the "flamboyant" Ionian, fluid, restless, changeful as the sea by which he dwells and on which he plies his trade, tending to the license of democracy, given over to sophistry, himself the creator rather than the dupe of the Sophists, who are not so much a cause as a symptom of degeneration, and who merely fan the flame that is already consuming the social fabric. Over against these he would set the Dorian or Spartan Commonwealth, with its stability, its historic continuity, its unchanging customs, its contempt of rhetoric, its patient cultivation of the unadorned truth. These contrasts of racial qualities and tendencies explain some anomalies in the 'Republic.' The 'Republic' presents the phenomenon of the largest freedom of thought and speculation embodied in a system whose aim is to regulate life and society by an iron rule of uniformity. While this treatise is itself an extraordinary example of untrammelled speculation, illustrating the social and political freedom from which it grew and under which it was possible, yet the régime and spirit of the 'Republic' (of the 'Laws' still more) are framed to destroy that spontaneity and diversity of life and character which made the soil and basis of such daring speculation. The writer aims to uproot the plant of which he himself and his work were the most perfect flower. The little democracy in which he lived, during the century from which he grew, anticipated, indeed, and presented in miniature very completely that spirit of independence, of individualism, of diversity and freedom of character and thought, even of religious opinion, which is generally conceived to be the most perfect attainment of our own epoch, hardly won by means of reformations and revolutions, by guillotines and acts of parliament. It seems an astonishing thing that Plato, with all his prevision, should deliberately apply himself to arresting the process of the age and extinguishing the social product of the genius of his own Ionian race. The explanation is, of course, that he had under his eyes and among his feet the evils political and social of his own little democracy, the special faults of his own Ionian stock, while at a distance, colored somewhat by the enchantment of distance, he observed the enduring features and stable order of the Spartan commonwealth. This spectacle and this ideal exercised a powerful fascination on his mind and controlled many of his speculations—how far and why, it is a peculiar merit of our author's work to explain and illustrate with especial sympathy for the great philosopher's point of view.

If Plato erred in his dream of imposing a fixed type on society, he certainly made no error in that other ideal which is the culminating point of the working of his State, the notion which, in one form or another, pervades so many of the dialogues, viz., that government, like every other art, should be in the hands of the expert, that "the ills of cities will never cease until political greatness and wisdom meet in one." Small as was the Liliputian republic in which he lived, he saw mirrored in that brilliant bubble which rose and vanished so early on the waves of time a miniature of all the mischiefs which we now experience on a more magnificent scale. He details them as vividly and clearly as if he had himself watched that extravagant experiment of spendthrift nature, the evolution of modern democracy, as if he had seen the blind fumblings of Caliban made master instead of slave—that many-headed creature which knows neither what ails nor what will cure it, but turns to the flattery of the first quack who offers the sugar-coated pill. He prophesies, indeed, our own predicament who assist helplessly at the tragical farce wherein the tribunal of children condemn the physician and listen to the pleading of the pastry-cook—to some Bland, or Boulanger, or whatever be his name. Instead of such blind and wasteful experiment, instead of the political maxim that every man is the equal of every other for every purpose,

he offers the paradox which is met now as then with a deluge of inextinguishable laughter, that Utopia can come to pass only when philosophers become kings, or kings become philosophers. We, too, are familiar with the ripple of laughter which greets the expert in finance or government, and calls the skilled pilot a star-gazer or "doctrinaire."

Another point in Plato's nice and exact prevision comes home to us at the present moment. The philosopher is fittest to rule, not only because he is wisest, but because he is disinterested; he is, in fact, so disinterested that he will be reluctant to rule. Neither ambition nor love of wealth, obtained by fair means or foul, will sway him; hence he will stand aloof, he must be dragged into politics, he must be compelled by some constraint, he must be put under some penalty, "because to proceed with ready will to the office of ruler, and not to await compulsion, is accounted indecent." What, then, is this penalty, this compulsion which is to drag wisdom and disinterestedness out of their asylum of studious contemplation to the rescue of the State, to place them at the helm in the service of an ungrateful and mutinous crew? It is this, as Plato puts it in Mr. Pater's translation: "As for the penalty, the greatest penalty is to be ruled by one worse than one's self, unless one will rule. And it is through fear of that, the good seem to me to rule, when they rule; and then they proceed to the office of ruler, not as coming to some good thing, nor as to profit therein, but as to something unavoidable, and as having none better than themselves to whom to intrust it, nor even as good." Was this said in Athens by one who had watched that tiny cockle-shell of a democracy drift upon the breakers, or was it said yesterday by some observer of the composition and the decomposition of our Senate of the United States? Such flashes, which send their light through the ages, remind us that the thinker is really also the prophet; he is in truth, according to Plato's large saying, "the spectator of all time and of all existence."

The chapter on the genius of Plato is peculiarly sympathetic, and presents a satisfactory unravelling of a complicated and fascinating personality. For the great philosopher offers the curious problem of a nature at once sensuous and puritanical; he is at once the ascetic who tells us in the 'Phaedo' that "life is but a contemplation of death"; and he is also the author of those perfect little love poems to Aster one of which serves for the motto of Shelley's "Adonais." He had in him, says Mr. Pater, the stuff "which might make an 'Odyssey,' which might make a poet after the order of Sappho or Catullus"; he had absorbed the beauties of the natural world with the eyes of an artist; he had noted the traits and foibles of men with the eye of a novelist; his characterization has a touch of the peculiar fineness of Thackeray; he has set down the subtle traits, the tricks and mannerisms of his characters "with a finely pointed pencil, with something of the fineness of malice which the French call *malin*." Though he was the pioneer of Aristotle through the thin ether and the dry light of abstract speculation, though he first, to use Mr. Pater's fine expression, "gave names to the invisible creations of abstract mind as masterly and as efficiently as Adam himself to the visible, living creations of old," yet he more willingly follows the inverse process. While Aristotle dissects, and lays bare the skeleton, and clothes his thoughts in the gray monotone of abstract language, treating even of friendship in the dispassionate terminology of the ledger or of mathematics, Plato's metaphysic puts on flesh and blood; he embodies it in dialogue and drama, he invests its abstractions with the warmth and colors of personality, he shows us the companions of Socrates in hushed apprehension for their fading argument, as if that too, like their master, were about to die and pass into annihilation. He discourses of his ideas with such magic of imagination and expression that he bewitches us into believing for the moment that they exist, and that they are the only real existences. It was like a recrudescence of polytheism in that abstract world. He carries over to it the colors, the witcheries, the personal magnetism of this mundane sphere; he preaches to us deliverance from *Krishna*, from the coil of the senses and their errors, in discourse which, however chastened by a penitential note of self-repression, still glows and warms with reminiscences of the pride of life and the delight of the eye.

The reconciliation of these contrasts of a nature at once sensuous and ascetic, comprehending in itself—always with the saving grace of Greek sanity—an Abelard and a St. Simeon Stylites, Mr. Pater finds truly and strikingly in a single conception. Plato is, like Dante, preëminently and throughout, the lover. "For him, as for Dante, in the impassioned glow of his conceptions, the material and the spiritual are fused together." The loves of his youthful days had not always been Platonic; he knew the violence of that ignoble steed which the charioteer of the soul manages with difficulty on the upward celestial course; and so, beginning with his Beatrice, his earthly loves of the beauties and the forms of this world, he ends by seeing in all these only the patterns of things eternal that are laid up in the heavens. And hence the philosopher—he, whose business it is to meditate of death and to rid himself of the burden of the flesh—is also the supreme lover, who, journeying on from the contemplation of earthly loveliness to the beatific vision of the unseen world, has become at last the lover of truth and of that which *is*, the lover of the eternal beauty. This is his Pilgrim's Progress—the rainbow ladder by which Plato's philosophy climbs between earth and heaven.

Such a way of thinking, which regards beauty (whether of material things or of virtue or of truth) as the crowning manifestation of the spirit of the universe, must inevitably include in its scope æsthetics; and, as a matter of fact, Plato is the earliest critic of the fine arts, the first to speak of "art for art's sake," the first to announce, that is to say, that the end of art is its own perfection. But, for all that, art is made no free citizen of that State which bends all things, even the passions of men and women, to the needs of its imperious ideal. The soul, it is true, must be fed on its proper food, it must not, during its exile from that home whence it came "trailing clouds of glory," live the life of the anchorite, or the fakir, or the Puritan iconoclast; for "right speech and rightness of harmony and form and rhythm minister to goodness of nature." It will pursue, therefore, the beautiful, not in luxurious wantonness, but with temperance; it will be subjected to a Dorian discipline, and will work out a Dorian music—in the larger sense of that word—an austere harmony of nature and faculties in which each individual plays his part in tune with every other member of the organism of the State. To this end, and for the maintenance of this monastic art and discipline, Plato is ready to banish from his commonwealth all artists who minister to vain delights; even the divine Homer does not fall in with his ascetic scheme and purpose, and must therefore go. He will have only the "dry beauty," as Bacon, after Heraclitus, preferred the "dry light."

We should have liked a word, from so competent an authority, on that strange criticism of the imitative arts, proposed in the tenth book of the 'Republic,' which sounds so whimsical, and yet is based on the theory of the Ideas; we should have liked, also, to dwell on our author's view of the Sophists, which, without superfluous praise or blame, simply accounts for them and assigns them their due place with reference to Plato and their age. But our outline of Mr. Pater's plan and treatment is necessarily incomplete, and we do some injustice to the rich and well-wrought fabric of his narrative in borrowing from it some purple patches. No treatise so compact as this gives one a view so rounded, so truly colored, so lifelike of the great personality of Plato. It has the effect of the stereoscope. To Mr. Pater, in an eminent degree, philosophy is a spirit to live with, not a piece of property to lay upon one's shelf; and his learning, which is the growth of leisurely acquisition pursued *con amore*, he uses as an instrument—as a spell to evoke the figures of the past and make them live to our duller eyesight and imagination.

## LELAND'S MEMOIRS.

*Memoirs.* By Charles Godfrey Leland (Hans Breitmann). D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

In the preface to the first instalment of his biography, Mr. Leland resents the imputation of having "expatriated" himself:

"During more than ten years' residence in Europe," he says, "I had one thing steadily in view all the time, at which I worked hard, which was to qualify myself to return to America and there introduce to the public schools of Philadelphia the industrial or minor arts as a branch of education, in which I eventually succeeded, devoting to the work there four years, applying myself so assiduously as to neglect both society and amusements, and not obtaining, nor seeking for, pay or profit thereby in any way, directly or indirectly."

If Americanism were to be acknowledged according to St. Paul's rule of following the man's professions, Leland would have vindicated his in saying: "I hope at some future day that I shall still further prove that, as regards my native country, I have only changed my sky, but not my heart, and labored for American interests as earnestly as ever."

Mr. Leland is known chiefly as a mystic, corrected by science. He is himself a "Sunday-child," having been born on the ninth Sunday after Trinity, 1824. His parents were Episcopalians; but he was brought up in Philadelphia, and his own youthful diction seems to have had a Quaker twang. He was fond of Scriptural words and phrases from his tenderest infancy. The following is an example:

"Now, I was a great reader of Scripture; in fact, I learned a great deal too much of it, believing now that for babes and sucklings about one-third of it had better be expurgated. The Apocrypha was a favorite work, but above all I loved the Revelations, a work which, I may say by the way, is still a treasure to be investigated as regards the marvellous mixture of neo-Platonic, later Egyptian (or Gnostic), and even Indian Buddhistic ideas therein. Well, I had learned from it a word which St. John applies (to my mind very vulgarly and much too frequently) to the Scarlet Lady of Babylon or Rome. What this word meant I did not know, but this I understood, that it was 'sass' of some kind, as negroes term it, and so one day I applied it experimentally to my nurse. Though the word was not correctly pronounced, for I had never heard it from anybody, its success was

immediate, but not agreeable. The passionate Irish woman flew into a great rage and declared that she would 'lave the house.' My mother, called in, investigated the circumstances, and found that I really had no idea whatever of the meaning of what I had said. Peace was restored, but Annie declared that only the divil or the fairies could have inspired such an infant to use such language" (p. 29).

Here is another example: "My mother said that I, having had a difficulty of some kind with certain street-boys, came into the house with my eyes filled with tears, and said : 'I told them that they were evil-minded, but they laughed me to scorn'" (p. 52).

Although always very dull in mathematics, in other departments the boy seems to have been rather bright, and studious quite to excess. For some years the family sat under Dr. Furness's pulpit; and when they returned to the Episcopal Church Charles obtained permission to continue at the Unitarian chapel; but later, while in college at Princeton, he was confirmed in the parental church of his own volition, and seems still to hold to that faith, somewhat abraded, one may suppose, by historical studies. His father, he tells us, looked very much like Thomas Carlyle, and had the same sort of disposition, only much more so. He himself went to school to two celebrated men, Bronson Alcott and Sears C. Walker. It would have done one's heart good to hear the kindly but Gargantuan laugh of the wit-loving astronomer over Charley's speeches.

At the age of fourteen the boy was a tremendous reader in English and French. At fifteen he fell in love with François Villon long before that charming Bohemian had been made fashionable. It must have been in 1838 that his father presented him with 'The Doctor,' which can only mean the first five volumes of the original edition. "This," he says, "I read and reread assiduously for many years, and was guided by it to a vast amount of odd reading." He had already dipped into Henry Cornelius Agrippa and Giambattista Porta—in translation of course—and before he entered Princeton in 1841 he was deeply versed in (Taylor's translations unquestionably of) Porphyry, Proclus, Jamblichus, Hermes Trismegistus, and other writers who we now know, and as the boy then believed, drew from Egyptian lore. Not only that, but the still less easily intelligible 'Sartor Resartus' was read by him in its original numbers, and gone "through forty times ere I left college, of which I 'kept count.'" He had also read "a translation of Kant's 'Critique of Pure Reason,' the first half of it many times." This was Hayward's translation; and it will be observed that he studied the constructive part of it with great determination, but was evidently less impressed with its destructions. Emerson's Essays appeared in the May before he entered college, and he had read them before he went to Princeton. He furthermore says that he had read Strauss's 'Life of Jesus.' If so, it must have been in some French translation; for George Eliot's English version did not appear till June, 1846. He had also dipped into Schelling (in French) and Spinoza's 'Tractatus Theologico-Politicus' (in English). He mentions many other books he had read at this time. All this is marvellous. He need not say that he did not fully comprehend these books, for the deepest historian of philosophy cannot boast of doing that; yet he certainly studied them sufficiently to avoid making any absurd slip about any of them now. We have lain in wait to catch him doing so; but though he shows a little heedlessness, he does not betray false pretensions. More extraordinary still, he enjoyed, and as he now assures us, he understood, Rabelais! If that be so, he must have been an uncanny boy. Many a lad who would be annoyed by the suggestion that he does not fully comprehend 'Don Quixote,' after he grows up is by no means confident that none of its wisdom escapes him. To like Rabelais implies a strong stomach for a boy. Reading always, everything, and with the speed of lightning, Leland passed the college years, and thoroughly unfitted himself for the business of life.

The summer he was graduated he went to Niagara. He says:

"It is usual, especially for those who have no gift of description, to say that Niagara is 'utterly indescribable,' and the Visitors' Book has this opinion repeated by the American Philistine on every page. But that is because those who say so have no proper comprehension of facts stated, no poetic faculty, and no imagination. Of course no mere description, however perfect, would give the same conception of even a pen or a button as would the *sight* thereof; but it is absurd and illogical to speak as if this were *peculiar* to a great thing alone. For my part, I believe that the mere description to a *poet*, or to one who has dwelt by wood and wold and steeped his soul in Nature, of a tremendous cataract a mile in breadth and two hundred feet high, cleft by a wooded island, and rushing onward below in awful rocky rapids with a mighty roar, would, could, or should convey a very good idea of the great sight."

In the same autumn Mr. Leland sailed in a packet for Marseilles, in company with his cousin Samuel Godfrey. From Marseilles he journeyed through Italy and passed the Carnival in Rome. Our eye catches this remark, which is sadly un-American:

"And here I may say, once for all, that one can hardly fail to have a mean opinion of human common-sense in government when we see this system of examining luggage still maintained. For all that any country could *possibly* lose by smuggling in trunks, etc., would be a hundredfold recompensed by the increased amount of travel and money imported, should it be done away with, as has been perfectly and fully proved in France; the announcement a year ago that examination would be null or formal having had at once the effect of greatly increasing travel" (p. 124).

Un-American, too, for the time, was what follows:

"I returned [from Europe] fully impressed with the belief that slavery was, as Charles Sumner said, 'the sum of all crimes' [an unlucky double slip this for John Wesley and 'the sum of all villanies']. In which summation he showed himself indeed a 'Sumner,' as it was called of yore. Which cost me many a bitter hour and much sorrow, for there was hardly a soul whom I knew, except my mother, to whom an abolitionist was not simply the same thing as a disgraceful, discreditable malefactor. . . . It was so peculiar for any man, not a Unitarian or Quaker, to be an *Abolitionist* in Philadelphia from 1848 to 1861, that such exceptions were pointed out as if they had been Chinese—'and d—d bad Chinese at that,' as a friend added to whom I made the remark" (p. 136).

Leland entered himself as a law-student in Heidelberg. Later, he studied philosophy in Munich, though already imbued with the spirit of physical science. In November, 1847, he arrived in Paris, where he entered the secret society which made the revolution of the following February. In January, he wrote home to his brother that there was to be a revolution on February 24, the very day on which it actually occurred. From Paris he went to London, and in the autumn came home, making the passage from Portsmouth to New York in thirty-five days. He now entered a law office; but, his father's resources becoming more limited, he began writing for publication in 1849.

"So time rolled on for three years. I passed my examination and took an office in Third Street, with a sign proclaiming that I was attorney-at-law and *Avokat*. During six months I had two clients and made exactly three pounds. [But he probably dealt with dollars in those days.] Then, the house being wanted, I left and gave up law. This was a very disheartening time for me. I had a great many friends who could easily have put collecting and other business in my hands, but none of them did it I felt this very keenly."

He next became editor of the *Illustrated American News*, owned by P. T. Barnum, whom he found remarkably free from guile. The circulation sometimes reached 150,000, yet Leland wrote the whole thing. The salary was so infinitesimal that he ultimately gave up, and became writing editor of the Philadelphia *Evening Bulletin*.

"All my long-suppressed ardent Abolition spirit now found vent, and for a time I was allowed to write as I pleased. A Richmond editor paid me the compliment of saying that the articles in the *Bulletin* were the bitterest published in the North."

But he was soon checked by the proprietor and left the newspaper. He now became editor of *Graham's Magazine*, raised the circulation from 0 to 17,000, and received a salary of $50 a month. It was at this time that the Hans Breitmann ballads began to appear. Mr. Leland does not state precisely at what date he became editor of *Vanity Fair*, which had been running for some time; on the breaking out of the war this comic journal expired. Leland presently became editor of the *Knickerbocker Magazine*, and later of the *Continental Magazine*—an organ, he says, of the Cabinet. This was published in Boston, so that he went to live there in December, 1861. He was private in a volunteer company raised at the time of Lee's invasion of Pennsylvania; but they were not quite in the battle of Gettysburg. In 1866 he became managing editor of Forney's *Press*, and fought Andrew Johnson with all his might. After Grant was elected, Forney, who conceived that the result had been in great measure due to him, no doubt expected a place in the Cabinet; but he was not the only person who was at that time disagreeably surprised. Leland, most likely, expected a place abroad, though he does not quite confess it. At any rate, there is no doubt that he was now suffering from nervous exhaustion. His father's affairs had been prospering, and he found himself in a position to take a rest. As soon as he stopped work his system gave way, and for some years he was a downright invalid. At that point the volume before us breaks off.

## NEWTON'S DICTIONARY OF BIRDS.

*A Dictionary of Birds.* By Alfred Newton, assisted by Hans Gadow, with contributions from Richard Lydekker, B.A., F.G.S., Charles S. Roy, M.A., F.R.S., and Robert W. Shufeldt, M.D. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 8vo, Parts I. (A-Ga) and II. (Ga-Moa). 1893.

It is safe to say that this work, which, when completed, will form an octavo volume of about 1,000 pages, profusely illustrated, will prove the most useful single volume ever published on ornithology. It is made up largely of articles contributed by Prof. Newton to the ninth edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' but many of them have been recast, and all brought down to date. With these have been incorporated a large number written

expressly for the present work, including apparently all of the anatomical matter. This has been mainly prepared by Dr. Gadow, for which part of the work Prof. Newton could hardly have selected a more competent and trustworthy collaborator. The principal author, in defining the scope of the work, warns the reader that he "will not find [in the 'Dictionary'] a complete treatise on ornithology, any more than an attempt to include in it all the names under which birds, even the commonest, are known." Taking, as already stated, the ornithological articles contributed to the last edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' as a foundation, the author has "tried, first, to modify them into something like continuity, so far as an alphabetical arrangement will admit, and, next, to supplement them by the intercalation of a greater number, be they short or long, to serve the same end." In the difficult task of choosing subjects for additional articles, one of the main purposes has been to supply information known to the author (from inquiries often made of him) to be greatly needed. In order to keep the size of the volume within reasonable bounds, a large number of bird-names compounded, mostly of late years, by writers on ornithology, have been omitted, "since their meaning, if they have one that is definite, is at once made evident." For the same reason many local names, even those of British birds, have been excluded.

The volume is not, however, as its name might seem to imply, merely a dictionary of bird names; it covers the whole field of ornithology, including, in addition to the bird names, the anatomy of birds, their classification, their geographical distribution, their geological history, and much matter that is purely biographical. As regards method of treatment, birds are introduced, with few exceptions, only under their English names, either as species or as groups; the names are treated historically as to how and when first used, and their etymology and the cognate words in other languages are given. The birds themselves are defined as regards their relationships, structure, and distinctive traits; the space devoted to the different species or groups varying in extent, according to the requirements of the case, from a few lines to many pages. The technical names of the higher groups employed by different systematists, from Linnæus down, are also defined and explained. Such general subjects as extermination, migration, geographical distribution, mimicry, eggs, feathers, color, embryology, etc., are treated at some length, a careful summary being given of our present knowledge of each.

The topics thus far enumerated are, with few exceptions, treated by Prof. Newton. Mr. Lydekker, however, contributes the article on fossil birds, and Prof. Joy that on flight, while, as already said, nearly all of the anatomical matter is by Dr. Gadow, inclusive of the articles on color, feathers, and embryology. The principal parts of the skeleton and of the external anatomy, as well as the various organs of the body, are made the subjects of separate articles, and a large number of the anatomical terms employed in ornithology are separately defined. The task could not have fallen into better hands. Prof. Newton is not only everywhere recognized as one of the leading ornithologists of the world, but is especially fitted for the philological part of the work by his classical training and his antiquarian predilections, while his natural conservatism renders him a more than usually safe guide as regards the taxonomic and theoretical phases of the subject. Respecting a few principles of nomenclature and many questions of classification there is so much room for differences of opinion, and so much actual disagreement of doctors, that we can readily grant some liberty in such matters. Where mere questions of fact are at issue, the conclusions of our author can generally be taken as final. But doubtless many ornithologists will differ with him in respect to his exclusion from, or doubtful admission to, the British fauna of many species recorded as having occurred in the United Kingdom a greater or less number of times as waifs and strays from distant lands, which Prof. Newton regards as having reached the British Islands only as "assisted" wanderers. He also gives it as his opinion that the last specimen of the Labrador duck seen alive was the one "killed by Col. Wedderburn in Halifax Harbor in the autumn of 1852," and that alleged later records of capture are open to question. That this is an error, however, can easily be shown by the testimony of a number of eminent American authorities who, on repeated occasions, received the bird in the flesh many years subsequent to this date.

References are given *passim*, in the text or in footnotes, to most of the leading authorities on the various subjects treated, so that the reader is constantly referred to sources of original and fuller information. It is noticeable, however, that some of the latest authorities are omitted, which may perhaps be accounted for in part, at least, by the announcement made on the back of the title-page of part i., which states that the sheets of that part "were passed for the press at various times from 1889 onwards."

Many of the principal articles are well worthy of special notice, but we have space to call attention only to that on Geographical Distribution (pp. 311–363, with a map showing the principal zoögeographical regions). Of particular interest is the fact that Prof. Newton has here abandoned as primary divisions the "Palæarctic" and "Nearctic" regions of Sclater and Wallace, which he combines to form his "Holarctic" region, thus conceding the similarity of the life of the temperate and arctic regions of the whole northern hemisphere, so long maintained by various American writers. He also recognizes New Zealand and neighboring islands as one of his six primary regions, and thus brings the ancient or more primitive character of the life of this portion of the globe more prominently into notice than any preceding writer appears to have done. The article on migration (pp. 547–572) is generally excellent, but the author fails to take note of certain recent generally well-received views on the cause and origin of migration, and explanations of the way migrating birds find their route during their long journeys.

The abundance and excellent character of the illustrations form a prominent and important feature of the work. Full-length figures are given of one or more species of all the leading groups, and a large number of others illustrative of the internal and external structure. The latter are mainly accredited copies of Swainson's admirable figures, almost unequalled for accuracy and artistic finish, from his well-known 'Classification of Birds,' published in 1836-37.

We are, of course, judging the 'Dictionary' by its first two parts (pp. 1-576), but there is no reason to suppose that the second half will prove inferior to the first. Hence, we can commend the work as containing the greatest amount of thoroughly trustworthy ornithological information hitherto embraced between the covers of a single volume. It is thus truly a *vade-mecum* for the general reader or the bird-lover, whether simply an amateur or a professional ornithologist; for the former it will prove entertaining and instructive, while it will serve the latter as a handy reference volume on a thousand and one abstruse points, whether philological or ornithological. Prof. Newton's style, if at times a little involved, is singularly attractive and pleasing, while Dr. Gadow's is concise, direct, and clear. An index, at least to the technical names, will prove so essential to the convenient use of the volume that we can hardly suppose that such an important feature will be omitted.

## HENRY JAMES.

*Essays in London and Elsewhere.—The Wheel of Time, and Other Stories.—The Private Life, and Other Stories.* Harper & Bros.

IN the essay on Gustave Flaubert included in Mr. James's volume, 'Essays in London and Elsewhere,' when referring to the few people who understand what Flaubert tried for, the author says, "it is only when a reader is also a writer and a tolerably tormented one that he particularly cares." This is an example of the personal note occasionally struck in the volume, and echoes like a response to the sound of many voices clamoring criticism of Mr. James. No writer of fiction has suffered more from the people who won't or can't understand what he is trying for, while none has more consistently directed his energy towards one issue—the perfection of form and expression. Public obtuseness is probably more real than affected, for there is nothing of which the average Anglo-Saxon has less intuitive appreciation than of literary form apart from subject, except, it may be, of the resources of his own language. One may deplore such defective perception, but can hardly regard it as a valid excuse for angry rejection of every effort at education.

When he publishes a volume of essays, Mr. James gets the better of his more vociferous censors. The subjects are labelled, and, at least, the general drift is obvious. His knowledge and his sympathetic comprehension of his chosen subjects' meaning may be realized by every one, but there still remains enough sensitive penetration to puzzle a resentful multitude. The only essay which can hope for unqualified approval both from the public and from the literary class is that on James Russell Lowell. Mr. Lowell's mind, says Mr. James, had "little affinity with superfine estimates and shades and tints of opinion," and in writing of him Mr. James shakes off his own preoccupation with shades and tints, and takes on much of his subject's freedom, fulness, and warmth. He makes no attempt to classify Mr. Lowell either as author or diplomatist, but he draws a beautiful living portrait of the man at the moment when he stepped from the library into the great world, and he follows with loving yet clear-sighted enthusiasm the development of a career which he characterizes as, in the last analysis, a tribute to the dominion of style. This combination of affectionate sympathy with clearness of vision makes Mr. James's best qualification for criticism. Those with whom he cannot, for one reason or another, sympathize he kindly neglects, and on the other hand his judgment is never impaired by the glow of personal congeniality. He recognizes that his function is to enlighten, and he chooses to do that by emphasizing merits rather than defects.

Cordial approval is his prevailing mood, except when judging 'The Journal of the Brothers de Goncourt,' a performance which invites much harsher terms than Mr. James employs. Though his greatest admiration is reserved for the writers' writers, in his estimate of Mrs. Humphry Ward he is wholly with the public—a rather surprising testimony to catholicity of taste. It is useless to dispute the charm of a book so phenomenally successful as 'Robert Elsmere,' but that charm, for the English public, probably owes more than Mr. James perceives to the purely didactic element. In his remarks on Henrik Ibsen he gives full value to the power of a moral question to agitate the British breast. The few pages devoted to Ibsen are more acute and comprehensive than all the screeds of his English adorers and antagonists put together. One gets away from the endless irrelevant chatter about his morality or immorality, and is permitted calmly to consider him as a dramatist, a man with an almost infallible sense of dramatic effect, quite unscrupulous in the choice of subjects through which the effect is to be wrought. He is not set forth as a Shakspere or a Dante dealing with eternal verities applicable to every era and phase of human life. He is a dramatist of extraordinary intellect and more extraordinary imagination, but with national, local, and even parochial limitations. His magic lies in the wonderful vivification of an assemblage mostly commonplace and vulgar, or abnormally vicious. Mr. James emphasizes Ibsen's lack of humor, and there is a moment when we fear that by temporary infection his own admirable sense of the humorous has been impaired. It is when he supposes Ibsen, in 'Hedda Gabler,' to be "playing with an idea from the simple instinct of sport," and qualifies the play as an "ironical pleasantry." This may be an ingenious explanation of the dreadful Hedda, but it seems to represent the author as too monstrous in his play.

It is perhaps not fair to pass directly from Mr. James's critical work to his fiction. The judgment of practice by principle is too immediate, and the operation may have the air of a cold-blooded attempt to hang a man with a rope of his own spinning. Yet, when two volumes of fiction lie beside the essays, the temptation to consider them in order is irresistible. In the essays the vexed question of subject and form in literature receives much incidental attention. Mr. James naturally leans to the opinion that good form may save a poor subject and that bad form must lose a good subject. He is not quite convinced that the idea is good enough if the expression is, but he thinks the idea is the author's affair and not the critic's. Strict adherence to this principle would almost reduce criticism to comment on technicalities, and would compel it to desist from any estimate of the author's value in literature, literature being considered as a commodity or luxury, with the æsthetic gratification and spiritual elevation of mankind for *raison d'être*. The perfection of the word cannot kill, but, enshrining no perceptible idea, it is an empty and vain thing.

With a clear notion of what Mr. James is trying for, and with thankful recognition of the effort, we get from his two latest volumes of fiction the impression of form without substance, of fine-spun elusive phantoms with no claim on emotional regard, and rather irritating to the intelligence. One has no objection to the fine quality of the garment clothing figures mostly artificial or trivial, but a resentful sense of waste. There are times, too, when the garment fails to please or satisfy, when the phrase is so subtle or so elliptical that lucidity is missed. Such failure is especially noticeable in the conversations, where the reader has often to rely on the descriptive sentence, "he said with a laugh," or "she answered gravely," for a cue to the mental attitude of the characters and an adjustment of his own. Close attachment to refinement of expression is also detracting from Mr. James's creative force. Finish of phrase is not, for instance, characteristic of the British matron, no matter how exalted her station. This somewhat heavy, worldly, and inane personage makes a frequent appearance in these stories, but we cannot think that she ever appeared elsewhere with such polished and vivacious sentences at her tongue's end. It may please Mr. James to toy with this ponderous figure, but the reality recedes from view in proportion to the elaboration of his presentment.

Failure to give the sense of life is of course the irretrievable fault in fiction. We do not mean to burden Mr. James with the imputation of a positive failure in the essential of his art, but only to indicate a possible result from an obvious cause. By the perfection of his rendering of an episode, a situation, a state of the mind or soul, he has achieved unique distinction in English letters; but, to take a place in what he calls the great tradition, his exquisite method must be applied to subjects that are well in the range of common experience, and that appeal with some passion to intelligence and emotion.

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*Italian Lyrists of To-day:* Translations from Contemporary Italian Poetry, with Biographical Notices. By G. A. Greene. London: Elkin Mathews & John Lane; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

THIS is a pleasing book and contains some graceful verses. The purpose of the maker is indicated in these words of the introduction: "The translations included in this volume have been accumulating for some years, and are from writers all of them living at the time, the intention of the translator being that of giving some slight idea of the present condition and the present aspects and methods of Italian lyrical verse. In almost every case the attempt has been made exactly to reproduce the metre of the original poem." In pursuance of this plan Mr. Greene has given specimens of the work of thirty-four poets, prefacing the selections from each by a slight account of the poet himself. He has also composed a very readable introduction, in which he makes some more general observations upon the methods and purposes of the latest school of Italian verse-writers. His translations are all tolerable, a few of them even interesting. Perhaps as good an example of his powers as any is the following version of Carducci's *Io non lo dissi a voi, vigili stelle* ('Rime Nuove,' xxxv.):

PANTHEISM.

I told it not, O vigilant stars, to you;
To thee, all-seeing sun, I made no moan;
Her name, the flower of all things fair and true,
Was echoed in my silent heart alone.

Yet now my secret star tells unto star,
Through the brown night, to some vague sphery tune;
The great sun smiles at it, when, sinking far,
He whispers love to the white and rising moon.

On shadowy hills, on shores where life is gay,
Each bush repeats it to each flower that blows;
The flitting birds sing "Poet grim and gray,
At last Love's honeyed dreams thy spirit knows."

I told it not, yet heaven and earth repeat
The name beloved in sounds divine that swell,
And mid the acacia blossom's perfume sweet,
Murmurs the Spirit of All—"She loves thee well!"

There is poetizing here, that first and last pitfall of the translator; but there is also a certain pleasant fall of the phrase, and a certain harmony in the imaginative coloring not too remote from that of the original. If all the versions were as good as this, the reader would find his task an attractive one. As it is, however, he will probably feel that his chief gain comes from learning the names and styles of the verse-makers of modern Italy.

Still, after all, it will be only a meagre and superficial orientation that the reader will get, for Mr. Greene (perhaps properly, seeing the nature of his public) has felt it necessary to exclude from his selection almost all the pieces of these poets that have independent poetical value. It is generally true of these writers of genuine, but inferior, inspiration that their best achievement is to be found in the portion of their work that is most shocking to the world at large. This arises from the fact that their imaginative reaction proceeds not from life as a whole, or from universal experience and knowledge, but from the observation of the inconsistencies and incongruities—the unreality, in short—of conventional society as they see it immediately about them. They are their best selves, therefore, when they are in revolt. Then their matter is real, or, what is the same thing from the artist's point of view, seems to them real. They handle it with conviction, and are able to give it that ultimate quality which alone makes poetry worth while. To be sure, they are often very ignorant as to what they are actually accomplishing. Nothing is on the whole more dreary than reading the abundant prologues and prefaces they are fond of sending into the world with their poems—nothing, unless it be reading the attacks upon them by indignant conservatives and moralists, and the replies to these attacks by their enthusiastic friends.

They tell us in these prologues that they are occupied with art for art's sake, with the world as it is rather than as it ought to be, with liberty in its struggle against outworn beliefs, with nature in contrast to convention, and so on. All this, however, is mere jargon. What they have really done is to come upon that elementary truth long since enunciated by Tertullian when, in a particularly obscurantist moment, he exclaimed: "Tot sunt artium venæ quot hominum concupiscentiæ." Surprised and delighted with this discovery, and sure that they have thereby attained reality, they proceed to apply the principle as though their own crude and undisciplined *concupiscentiæ* represented the complete round of human passions and desires. Of course, they do nothing of the sort, being of a very limited and inferior kind. Still, all reality has its value; and if one can stand somewhat arrogant crudity, one may learn much from the best of the Veristi, the Décadents and Symbolistes, the writers of La Jeune Belge, and the similar groups to be found in most of the countries of Europe at the present time.

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*Observations on Some Points Connected with Hospital Construction.* By Sir Douglas Galton. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 8vo, pp. xi–287. 1893.

MORE than thirty years ago, Douglas Galton, then a captain in the Royal Engineers, was appointed a member of the Barrack and Hospital Improvement Committee, organized on the recommendation of the Royal Commission of 1857, and in 1865 he published a description of the Herbert Hospital at Woolwich, which had been constructed as a sort of model, in accordance with the views of this committee. Since that time he has published several works

relating to the sanitation and proper construction of habitations and hospitals, and now brings out the work noted above as the result of long experience and careful deliberation upon the subject. He says in his preface that his object is "to place on record those principles which ought invariably to be followed in every good hospital"—which is delightfully dogmatic, and inspires the reader with a cheerful confidence that all vexed questions on this subject are now finally settled. He concludes by saying that

"the principles enumerated in this book are not new: they are well known, but they lie somewhat scattered through various publications, and . . . it is hoped that by bringing together this information the erection of large, palatial hospitals in towns or other localities which are not suited to them will be discountenanced, and that the hospital architect . . . will be content to provide simple structures abundantly supplied with light and air, in which the interests of the patients and their recovery will be not alone the first, but the only consideration."

It is not probable that this idea will be realized, and it is well that this is the case, for in a large and properly constructed and managed hospital there are several things which should be considered besides the immediate interests of the patients in it. Such a hospital should increase and diffuse knowledge; it should be agreeable to the eye, and, if it is the gift of single donor or of a private corporation, it should do honor to the giver.

Quite a number of the maxims given will not apply to this country, owing to climatic differences. The direction that water-closets should always be placed against the outer wall is wrong; they should almost always be placed against an inner wall, directly opposite a window. Sir Douglas Galton says that the velocity of the air may be measured by puffs of the vapor of turpentine—which is quite new. The "Lower General Hospital of Philadelphia," with 50 huts, affording accommodation for 500 patients, is probably the "Mower General Hospital," which contained 3,000 patients. The bibliography of the subject furnished at the beginning does not give date, place of publication, or full title, and is almost absolutely useless for reference. Upon the whole, the book is a good and useful compilation, but it will not be accepted by hospital experts as the final authority upon the subject. The fact is, that each new hospital is in some respects a new problem, that recent advances in bacteriology and in therapeutical methods require new arrangements, and that the more experience one has had in the practical working of modern hospitals, the less likely he is to plan a new one which will be merely a copy of any now in existence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adderley, James. Stephen Remarx: The Story of a Venture in Ethics. E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Allen, Grant. Michael's Crag. Rand, McNally & Co. $1.
Arnold, Sir Edwin. The Book of Good Counsels. New ed. Scribners. $2.50.
Bamford, Mary E. Talks by Queer Folks: More Land and Water Friends. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Barber, E. A. The Pottery and Porcelains of the United States. Putnams. $5.
Barr, Mrs. A. E. Girls of a Feather. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.25.
Crosland, Mrs. Newton. Landmarks of a Literary Life, 1820—1892. Scribners. $2.
Durandus, William. The Symbolism of Churches and Church Ornaments: A Translation of the First Book of the Rationale Divinorum Officiorum. Scribners. $2.50.
Fox, Dr. J. J. The Lungs: Basic Principles for their Healing and Development. C. T. Hurlburt & Co. $1.50.
Gebhart, Emile. Autour d'une Tiare. [Bibliothèques de Romans Historiques.] Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Howard, C. H. C. Genealogy of the Cutts Family in America. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.
In the Footsteps of the Poets. Whittaker. $1.50.
Jebb, Prof. R. C. The Growth and Influence of Classical Greek Poetry. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Kullak, Adolph. The Æsthetics of Pianoforte-Playing. G. Schirmer. $2.
Lawrence, W. H. Elements of Shades and Shadows for Architectural Students. Boston: The Author.
Lowry, H. D. Prisoners of the Earth, and Other Stories. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
McCarthy, J. H. Ghazels from the Divan of Hafiz. London: David Nutt.
Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier. Vol. I. Translated by Charles E. Roche. Scribners. $2.50.
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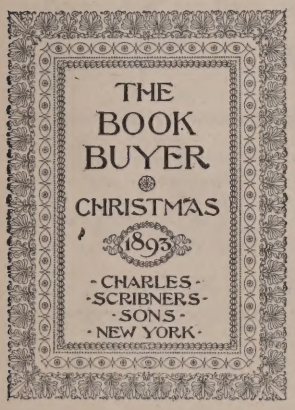


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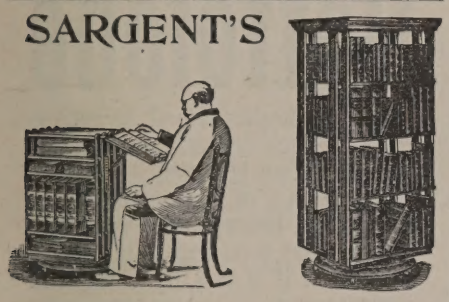

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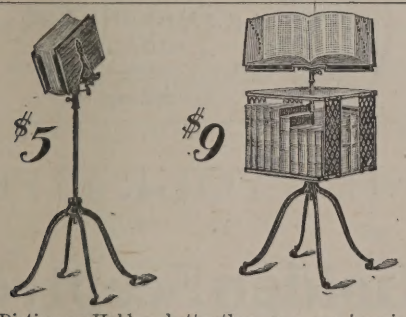


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| Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1892 | 1,472,142 48 |
| Total Marine Premiums | $5,162,393 36 |
| Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1892, to 31st December, 1892 | $3,759,193 05 |
| Losses paid during the same period | $1,466,178 06 |
| Returns of Premiums and Expenses | $738,617 09 |

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| | |
|---|---|
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| Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise | 2,027,000 00 |
| Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at | 1,029,345 26 |
| Premium Notes and Bills Receivable | 1,336,622 46 |
| Cash in Bank | 276,262 99 |
| Amount | $12,485,685 71 |

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 7, 1893.

## The Week.

THERE have been three great and most encouraging victories of public opinion this year—the passage of the silver-repeal bill, the defeat of Maynard, and Mr. Van Alen's resignation. All three show how impossible it is for any abuse to stand up under concentrated and well-directed public censure. Of the first two it is needless now to say anything, but the last calls for a word or two in view of Mr. Cleveland's letter. In the first place he says he did not select Mr. Van Alen for nomination to the Italian mission "without satisfying himself of his entire fitness for the place." We believe it has been generally conceded that, everything considered, Mr. Van Alen was as fit for the place as many of his predecessors; but that is not the question in this case. The question is, how did Mr. Cleveland come to investigate Mr. Van Alen's fitness for the place? What led him to leave the world of politics, and law, and literature, and diplomacy, and penetrate into the world of pure fashion in search of a candidate for the Italian mission? The public have assumed that he did so in consequence of a large contribution by Mr. Van Alen to the fund used in electing the appointing officer, and its view has been confirmed, or at all events excused, by the account of the transaction by both Mr. Whitney and Mr. Van Alen himself. Moreover, Mr. Cleveland was fully warned, before he made the appointment, that, although he might make it on the ground of fitness solely, people would say and believe that he made it for cash, and that, therefore, in making it he would lose the high moral position he had so far held. He chose to disregard this consideration, and we see the result: Mr. Van Alen has resigned, and the President is discredited with that portion of the public whose good opinion has been to him during the last ten eventful years his proudest boast and strongest defence.

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We are very sorry that he has thought fit to talk of "malignant criticism," and inform us that "the decent people who have doubted its [the nomination's] propriety have been misled, or have missed the actual considerations on which it rests." He knows surely that it is not "malignant criticism" which has damaged Mr. Van Alen. That would never have driven him to resign. It is the criticism of "the decent people," or, in other words, of the great body of Mr. Cleveland's supporters. We are quite sure we are within the mark when we say that nine-tenths of those who voted for him, of whatever position in life, deplored this appointment. We have ourselves never met one who did not. The best, and indeed only, defence of it we have seen was that Mr. Whitney could not in such a case be resisted—which, of course, availed nothing in the teeth of Mr. Cleveland's numerous discourses on morality in politics. And Mr. Cleveland's friends all over the country will read with positive affliction the news that the "decent people" are all wrong, and have "missed the actual considerations" upon which the appointment was made. This view of the "decent people" ought to have been left to McKinley, who, we believe, started it in defence of his bill. The notion that the people do not understand the acts of their own servants, was one of the humors of the canvass of last year which furnished much merriment at the time.

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One of the best things in the President's message is his remarks on the definitive abandonment of the claim that we have a right to convert our legations in South America into asylums for local criminals. It is of course an extremely insulting claim to any Government against whom it is asserted; and we chose to assert it, through the instrumentality of Pat Egan, against Chili in a moment of great trial and distress, and he actually plumed himself greatly on his success in keeping a lot of notorious rascals out of the hands of the police, after their chief had blown his brains out. Not only this, but the natural irritation of the Chilians over his goings on was used here to stimulate the hostility to them and justify an armed attack on them. The President now justly observes:

> "The doctrine of asylum, as applied to this case, is not sanctioned by the best precedents, and, when allowed, tends to encourage sedition and strife. Under no circumstances can the representatives of this Government be permitted, under the ill-defined fiction of extra-territoriality, to interrupt the administration of criminal justice in the countries to which they are accredited. A temperate demand having been made by the Chilian Government for the correction of this conduct in the instance mentioned, the minister was instructed no longer to harbor the offenders."

This is a bad blow to Pat Egan, who is, we believe, in these parts, but happily no longer wearing the robes of a "Blaine Irishman," that office having been abolished.

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Secretary Herbert's annual report and recommendations are couched in so moderate a tone that it seems ungracious to object to anything in either. To be let off with one battle-ship and six torpedo-boats, requiring an immediate appropriation of little more than $500,000, is a novel experience, and we will not too curiously inquire whether it is solely due to the Treasury deficiency. But we must point out that, if the secretary's argument for this slight increase in our naval strength is sound, he is really derelict in not urging the immediate building of at least fifty battleships. He insists that our unarmored cruisers are not fighting-vessels, and that our four first-class and two second-class battle-ships, even if concentrated, would "scarcely be able to create a diversion of an enemy's fleet," and correctly infers that "if our Government in the future is to have naval strength enough to command the peace and to enforce the terms dictated by its sense of right and justice, it must have more battle-ships." Many more, indeed, and if Mr. Herbert thinks that war is as imminent as he appears to, it is little short of treasonable in him to recommend only a single new ship. One more would be simply a target for the enemy's guns. We must have ships enough to outnumber any possible combination that might be made against us. In no other way can we get that "assured strength" which the secretary believes to be our aim in naval matters. One beggarly new ship would contribute so little to this that we should not be surprised if Congress thought it not worth while to build it at all.

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The Post-office Department does not make a good showing in revenues for the fiscal year ending with last June. Mr. Wanamaker estimated that the annual deficiency would be only a trifle over a million and a half dollars, whereas it exceeds five millions. He also figured on a surplus of nearly a million for the current fiscal year, whereas Mr. Bissell thinks the deficiency will be nearly $3,000,000 greater than for the year which closed last summer. Undoubtedly Mr. Wanamaker made his showing much more favorable than the facts really justified, yet it is true that nobody could have anticipated so great a deficiency. Mr. Bissell thinks that the influence of the hard times upon the postal revenues began to be felt even before the end of June, and the effect must have been far greater since then.

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The Government receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, were about $2,000,000 in excess of the expenditures. For the present fiscal year it is expected that they will be $28,000,000 less than the expenditures. This estimate is on the basis of the present revenue laws. It is a noteworthy fact that the amount disbursed by the Government for first payments in pensions during the last fiscal year was a little more than the estimated deficit of the present year. It

was about $33,000,000. The first payments embrace the arrears. They consist principally of "back pay," and they have to be paid only once. Whenever these arrears are eliminated from the pension appropriation bills, the disbursements will fall off at least $33,000,000, but probably more, since the list itself is constantly diminishing by the death of pensioners and by the arrival of their children at mature years. It is very clear, therefore, that the additional revenue required to carry on the Government will not be a permanent public burden if there are no further outbreaks of pension profligacy on the part of Congress. We are not likely to have any such while the present Administration remains in power. There is a strong probability that the pension appropriation for the next fiscal year—the year ending June 30, 1895—will be $7,000,000 to $10,000,000 less than for the present year, and that they will shrink steadily after that time. In other words, the condition which Garfield supposed had come nearly twenty years ago will actually arrive two years hence, unless another pension debauch should take place.

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Another fact is now pretty plain. The additional revenue cannot be secured during the present fiscal year to meet the deficit of $28,000,000, or whatever it may be. The new taxes cannot be gathered in with sufficient promptness. Time is required to put the taxing machinery in operation, whatever it may be. Therefore some temporary expedient is called for. A business man, under such circumstances, if his credit were good, would borrow. This is what the Government will be obliged to do. There are, however, different methods of borrowing. This being only a temporary deficit, the borrowing should be only temporary—something in the nature of the exchequer bills which the English Treasury puts out in like emergencies. These are interest-bearing Treasury notes. They do not go into circulation, they are not legal tender. They should be payable at the pleasure of the Government on three months' notice and should bear just sufficient interest to make them salable at par. They should be offered to the Government's creditors, including the pensioners, at par, but of course no creditor would be obliged to take them. Such as are not so taken would be offered to the public and would be taken probably at as low a rate as 2½, perhaps at 2 per cent. interest. If Congress would authorize the issue of $50,000,000 of such Treasury notes, to be used as required, the financial difficulties of the Government would disappear at once. This measure would not obviate the necessity of additional taxation, but it would bridge over the present embarrassment in the least burdensome manner, and would give new confidence to the business community. There is hardly anything so bad for an individual or for a Government as postponing one's daily bills. Our Government took up this practice during the last year of the Harrison Administration, and has never had the means to stop it since.

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Fresh fish are put on the free list by the Wilson bill, exclaims the *Tribune* in agonized tones. This is proof, not only of the destruction of American industry, but of the subserviency of President Cleveland to British interests. But what shall we say of the Republican tariffs from 1861 down to the McKinley bill, all of which put fresh fish on the free list? An investigation of our tariff history will disclose these facts, namely: (1) that the tariff of 1857, enacted by a Democratic Congress, put a duty of 15 per cent. on fresh fish; (2) that the Morrill tariff of 1861 put fresh fish on the free list; (3) that all the Republican tariff revisions down to 1883 left it on the free list; (4) that the tariff of 1883 expressly put fresh fish on the free list, with the words "for immediate consumption" added. This phrase was of very little practical importance—how little, will appear from the Treasury rulings on the subject. These rulings declared that fish frozen artificially were dutiable, but that those frozen naturally were not dutiable, and that those packed in ice were not dutiable if the collector judged that they were intended for immediate consumption; also, that live fish in barrels were not dutiable. Eliminating all the fish importations thus declared not dutiable, we have a small residue upon which a duty might be collected. It is this residue which assumes such magnitude in the *Tribune's* eye that "statues in honor of President Cleveland might well be raised in the public squares of Toronto, Montreal, Quebec, and Halifax." *Vive la bagatelle!*

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The address which the most eminent and respected members of the Democratic party in this city have put forth, calling for a party reorganization, is the most encouraging public document that has been issued in this State since the Bar Association's arraignment of Maynard. The two deliverances have a common origin. Each is a protest from the outraged moral sentiment of the body from which it comes. The Bar Association was forced, in order to preserve its own character and self-respect, to say that Maynard was unfit for the bench. To have remained silent about him would have been to acquiesce in his preferment. In the same way the honest members of the Democratic party have been compelled, after protesting formally and effectively in 1892 against the corrupting and disgracing control of their party organization by the Hill-Murphy-McLaughlin-Croker machine, to come out now and call for a complete reorganization in order that the good name of the party may be restored to it. Instead of acting hastily in this matter, the respectable element of the party has been not merely deliberate but inexplicably dilatory. There has been no doubt for fully seven years of the bad and dishonest character of the leadership which reached its culminating achievement in Maynard's nomination. That character was revealed immediately after Mr. Hill came into the governorship in 1885, when he arranged the "deal" with Squire for control of the work of constructing the new aqueduct. From that time till the nomination of Maynard the downward course of the party has been undeviating and unbroken.

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Mayor-elect Schieren of Brooklyn has justified the confidence of Independents in his backbone by his first selection for his cabinet, that term being applied in Brooklyn to the heads of the important departments. Ever since election the leaders and spokesmen of the Republican machine have been insisting that he should appoint Republicans to office, and "Republicans without exception," to quote from the *Tribune* when it attempted to lay down the law for him a fortnight ago. Mr. Schieren's response is the appointment to the most important of all the departments—the commissionership of city works, with its control of the streets, of the sewers, of the water supply, and, above all, of a vast amount of "patronage"—of Mr. Alfred T. White, a typical Independent, who is the foe of all machines. Mr. White used to be a Republican, but, like Mr. Schieren, bolted the nomination of Mr. Blaine in 1884; he has continued to support the Democratic candidate for President in both of the national campaigns since then. In city affairs he has supported the best man without regard to party lines, and he was a warm supporter of Mr. Low in both of his campaigns for the mayoralty. He is the furthest possible remove from the professional politician of the "Al" Daggett and "Mike" Dady type, who have so long cursed the Republican party in Brooklyn, being a business man of high standing, a citizen of great public spirit, a philanthropist who has been practical enough to erect successful "model tenement houses," and a thorough believer in civil-service reform.

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The lynching mania is spreading, or, we should rather say, lawlessness is spreading. No wonder the train-robbers are active when the following appears in the *Iowa State Register*, the most widely circulated paper in Iowa, edited by Mr. Clarkson, assistant postmaster-general under President Harrison, and the Northern paper which has for years

been most sedulous in lecturing the South for lawlessness. The citizens of Ottumwa in that State recently lynched a man named Gustafson, in the regular Southern fashion, for an assault on a little girl. Now hear the editor of the *Register:*

"The laws, courts, and juries have become harbors for criminals, and demagogue and anarchist Governors are rapidly defeating the few instances in which justice has been and is being meted out in the courts. The people are daily becoming more greatly disgusted over the increase in crime, the laxity of courts and juries, and the base actions of Governors who seek to perpetuate themselves in office by pardoning criminals. Lynchings will become more numerous until the law, courts, juries, and Governors realize that justice must and shall be promptly meted out to all criminals. The editor of the *Register* endorses the action of the citizens of Ottumwa in lynching Brute Gustafson, and will personally aid in executing similar punishment for a similar most horrible crime whenever the occasion and duty present themselves. Innocent and defenceless children and women must be protected at all hazards."

"The people," it appears, in Iowa have become "disgusted with the law, courts, and juries," and their only remedy seems to be to form mobs, headed by editors, to kill people without trial. We presume the history of all free countries might be searched in vain for a similarly impudent confession of the failure of popular government. The implication that laws, courts and juries and Governors exist independently of the people, and without responsibility on the part of the people, is very droll.

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Another case of a similar kind has occurred in Whitehall, Ill. A man, hitherto considered respectable, a piano-tuner, was there also accused of assaulting a girl. Here is what then happened, according to a despatch to the New York *Herald:*

"He was arrested, but, before his preliminary hearing could be had, a mob numbering probably 100 men took him from the constable and hurried him to a field near the town. Here he was released and the mob set upon him with stones and clubs. His pleadings for mercy were not heeded, and he was literally pounded to a pulp by the stones that were showered upon him. His body presented a sickening sight when the mob had completed its brutal work. The face and head were a bleeding mass, none of the features being recognizable, while many of the bones of the body were broken. When they were satisfied that Morrison was dead, the members of the mob retired, leaving the body lying in the field."

The mob was probably largely composed of the worthless wretches who, in every place, enjoy the sight of suffering and perhaps vary the diversion of lynching by the diversion of train-robbing. The risks to which individuals are exposed in such communities is frightful, for a false charge will set a mob in motion just as readily as a true one. It is said that the Illinois lynchers will be "vigorously prosecuted," but how can they be vigorously prosecuted when, in the adjoining State, the editor of a leading newspaper offers to go to a lynching himself in person, and apparently treats courts and juries as irresponsible bodies?

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No changes as yet proposed in the rules of football will satisfy those parents and guardians who are alarmed and disgusted by the prominence given to the game in the leading colleges, by the enormous amount of attention paid to it and to athletics generally by the undergraduates, by the fame it brings to the successful practitioners, and by the connivance of the faculties at the undergraduate view that the winning of games is the best service a young man can render to his university, or, as the phrase goes, the best mode of "testifying his devotion to his Alma Mater." This is the evil which no modification in the mode of playing the game can cure, and it is, for our time and country, an enormous evil. Who that read the account of the rejoicings at Princeton over the victory of last week, and the speeches of the professors to the mob of students, from the president down, would imagine that the place in which this occurred was not a gymnasium or a circus, but a seat of learning? The college bell was rung for four hours; the students paraded the little town in a triumphal procession, blowing foghorns and beating drums and tin pans through the greater part of the night. Dr. Patton, the president, told them "it was a glorious day for Princeton," Dr. Green that "Yale was nowhere and Princeton everywhere," and Dean Murray "announced that if they would wait until next week, they would be given an opportunity and every assistance to have as glorious a celebration as possible." This celebration came off on Monday night, and was infinitely grotesque.

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There is very great, and apparently not unreasonable, alarm in England over the size of the combined Russian and French fleets. It has long been the policy of the British Admiralty to keep up a fleet superior in force to any two foreign fleets. It has been discovered, since the recent tremendous fraternization between the French people and the Russian navy, that the combined Russian and French navies in the Mediterranean will surpass the British force at that point in both ships and guns. There is the usual dispute between experts as to the correctness of the various calculations, but enough remains unquestioned to cause serious alarm in England. The Tories are, of course, making the most of the situation, and Lord Salisbury, in a recent speech, spoke strongly of the terrible effect on English commerce of even the temporary possession of the Channel by a foreign enemy. But it is difficult to see how the Channel is to be kept safe for commerce, no matter what the size of the navy is. No great naval war in Europe has broken out since the introduction of steam, and it is impossible for any one to predict with accuracy what the fate of English commerce, in any such contingency, would be. But there seems to be little doubt that no possible additions to the British navy would enable commerce to go on unchecked. The French ports would be filled with small steamers, which, no longer dependent on the wind as in the old wars, would rush in and out with impunity and do enough damage to the British carrying-trade certainly to make it unprofitable. This would be true of the Mediterranean as well as of the Channel. According to present appearances, too, most of the great ironclads would go to the bottom in a great naval battle. In fact, the tremendous commercial and manufacturing prosperity of England since 1815 has had the unfortunate effect of rendering her exceedingly vulnerable, no matter what her naval defences may be.

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Prof. Tyndall was one of the three or four men who have made English science in the nineteenth century famous for its union of German throughness of research with French lucidity of exposition. A great part of the influence of his writings, as of those of Huxley and Prof. Foster and, in a less degree, Darwin, has been due to the wonderful clearness and charm of their style. Clear thinking was no doubt responsible for a good share of the clear writing, but over and above this he must have had a special gift for popular presentation of scientific results. It is doubtless true that the world must assign the supremacy to the ponderous scientific learning of the Germans, but we may yet hope that the typical scientist of the future may be nearer like those Englishmen we have mentioned, who smelted their ore instead of flinging it out in amorphous masses. Tyndall came into great disrepute with the religious world in 1872 by his bold suggestion that the efficacy of prayer be made a subject of scientific experiment. In this he was substantially anticipated in Hawaii, where the natives, years before, had challenged the missionaries to a competitive test of the value of prayer and of heathen sacrifices as a means of stopping the dangerous flow of lava from Mauna Loa. The doctrine of prayer now held by intelligent Christians has made Tyndall's "prayer-gauge" obsolete, as far as they are concerned. He allowed the last years of his life to be embittered by political controversies in which he had a perfect right to take a part, but in which it was little short of ridiculous to assume that he could speak with the same authority as about radiant heat or spontaneous generation.

### *STEVENS'S DEFENCE.*

In Lanman's 'Biographical Annals' we find the following entry: "Stevens, John Leavitt, . . . studied theology, and at the age of twenty-four was ordained a minister of the Universalist church; . . . then became associated with James G. Blaine in the ownership and management of the *Kennebec Journal*." These biographical items go far towards explaining the extraordinary document with which the ex-minister to Hawaii broke in upon the Thanksgiving repose of the American people. Its vigor of pious blackguardism, and its intimate acquaintance with the nameless and abhorrent sins of inconvenient witnesses who expose the author's crookedness, are better understood with that early record before the eye, while its furious parading of irrelevant matter, and its abnormal acuteness in detecting the corrupt schemes of England, are the legitimate fruit of association with James G. Blaine.

Mr. Stevens's defence, in fact, is best described as an afterglow of the Blaine school of politics. Confronted with a legal case made up by a trained lawyer, he kicks up a tremendous dust over points not at issue, lets loose an avalanche of scurrilous epithets with Christian adjectives attached, shouts loudly that England, or at any rate Japan, is back of the attacks upon his veracity, and sedulously avoids mention of the evidence, much of it documentary and signed by his own name, which convicts him of being a conspirator and a falsifier. Blaine himself could not have done it better.

The real strength of the case against Stevens was never so clear as when read in the light of his defence. The evidence of witnesses whose character he does not undertake to impeach, and of documents whose existence he ignores, are alone sufficient to sustain the charges against him. Granting the truth of every word he says, the facts and evidence to which he does not make the faintest allusion are enough to convict him. The testimony of Mr. Wunderberg, a member of the committee of safety, is not referred to by Mr. Stevens. Uncontradicted, it proves that he (Stevens) was in league with the revolutionists beforehand, had promised them to land the troops in their aid, and to recognize them as the Hawaiian Government the moment they read a proclamation at the Government building " or any other building at Honolulu." The testimony of Mr. Damon, president of the advisory council of the provisional government, Mr. Stevens nowhere touches upon. Uncontradicted, it proves that Stevens recognized "about eighteen men in all," sneaking through the streets so as to avoid arrest by the police, as the *de facto* government of the country, though they were not in possession of a single Government building, We should have been glad of less information about the gambling and licentious habits of witnesses whose testimony is not material, and more about the witnesses just named. But Mr. Stevens seems to think that, by his refusing to "recognize" them, they will be blotted out of existence.

Then there is the documentary evidence which the ex-minister forgets to mention. There is the written appeal to him of the committee of safety, asking him to land troops on the distinct ground that "we are unable to protect ourselves without aid." There is the formal protest of the Queen's Government the same day against landing the troops, with the assurance that the police and military forces were ample to preserve order and to protect American property. There is also the protest of the Governor of the island, A. S. Cleghorn. It is true, Stevens does dispose of him by showing that he was only an "honorary" Governor at best, and, what is pretty damaging, "a brother-in-law to the fallen Liliuokalani," and, what is absolutely fatal, "the reputed father of the so-called Princess now residing in England, *whose half-sister is married to the English minister's son.*" After such an annihilating stroke, it seems hard to go back to the law of the case, and ask, as both the local and the general governments did, what right Stevens had to land troops. It really is not a complete answer to say that somebody's half-sister is married to the English minister's son, but we suspect it is the only answer we shall ever get from Stevens.

One other of the vital points Stevens fumbles over, which shows that he is aware of the pickle the documents leave him in. In his despatch to Secretary Foster he said that he did not recognize the provisional government until after it was in "possession of the Government buildings, archives, and treasury." This was given the lie by Mr. Damon, and is also in direct contradiction with an extant letter from President Dole, thanking him for his "recognition," and requesting "the immediate support of the United States forces" so as to enable the new Government to get possession of what Stevens deceitfully told Foster it was already in possession of. Stevens now says that the Queen's forces "must have surrendered in a few hours," anyhow, as they were "surrounded"—we presume by those "eighteen men in all." This is a clear admission that he lied to Secretary Foster, as he did again, by implication, when he said that the other foreign ministers "promptly recognized" the provisional government, the fact being that none of them did so till the next day.

The merits of the controversy are now clearly before the public. On the one hand is the carefully prepared legal case of Mr. Blount, with its array of authenticated testimony, and documentary evidence. On the other is the *Kennebec Journal* harangue of Mr. Stevens, filled with personal assaults and irrelevancies, but carefully avoiding the crucial and cumulative evidence against him. If that is his best defence, he has no defence.

### *THE ATHLETIC CRAZE.*

We are glad that the Harvard Overseers have appointed a committee to investigate the game of football in its various aspects. We are also glad to learn that there is to be this winter a convention of the deities of the football world, to revise the rules, and probably abolish the "flying wedge" and other dangerous features of the present game. So far so good. But we would respectfully ask the college faculties whether they propose this winter to take any action looking to the reform of the game, and indeed all college games, on the moral side. We refer them to some paragraphs in *Harper's Weekly* on Phillips Exeter Academy, which show the effect that the inordinate attention given to athletics in colleges is having on the young boys in the preparatory schools. How many of them who have the size and weight qualifying to row or play football now think of the college to which they are going as a seat of learning? The practice, on the part of the athletic element in the colleges, of seeking them out, and bribing them by offers of a free education to come to one college rather than another, has become unhappily common, and has ceased to seem discreditable; that is, very young boys are invited to become professionals, and to take what is in reality a salary for acting as football players in the guise of students. That the faculties play into the hands of these debauchers of youth by being easy with these young professionals in the examinations and recitations is at least generally believed. Can nothing be done to suppress or make disgraceful this abuse of allowing professional athletes to haunt the college buildings as sham students? Is not the presence of such men at all in colleges highly demoralizing, and likely to confuse the minds of freshmen as to the ends for which colleges exist?

Is it possible, again, that the faculties, say of Yale and Princeton, look with equanimity on the enormous sums of money now received as gate-money every year in athletics by these young men *in statu pupillari*, and on the very large sums which change hands by betting in what may be called the collegiate world, beginning with the children who are preparing for college in the schools? We are informed on good authority that Yale spent last year about $47,000 on athletics, and the team went to Springfield the other day with three drawing-room cars and fifty men as substitutes, doctors, trainers, rubbers, and cooks.

The receipts on Thursday from the gate-money in New York cannot have fallen far short of $50,000. It was earned by exhibiting feats of strength and agility by scholars and gentlemen before an enormous city crowd, in which the gambling fraternity and the prostitutes were very prominent. Here is the *Tribune's* account of the appearance of the defeated team when the game was over:

"About the entrance to the hotel were perhaps five hundred people waiting to see what a defeated Yale team looked like. And they saw. But they never saw a more woe-begone, used-up, pale-faced, bruised, and bloodied lot of respectable, healthy, sane young men before. One by one the players crawled down off the coach and passed into the hotel through the alley made by the police through the crowd. Two of the players had to be helped, half carried by substitutes. The men had come directly from the field and were in their battle clothes. Their faces were muddy and marked with bloody streaks; their sweaters were stained and reddened, their heads a mass of tangled hair. In their dilapidated condition, marked with defeat, they did not look the strong, powerful young giants that had driven away from the hotel so full of confidence and sure of victory earlier in the day."

Is this an exhibition before a waiting hotel crowd in which any man who has sense enough and money enough to send his son to college would care to have him figure?

We are not inveighing against athletic games. If the colleges were to-morrow to make football compulsory for every man in them, we should not say a word in objection. We are simply asking for moderation and decency. It seems to be the weakness of the American people to take nearly everything in "crazes." There was the greenback craze, and the silver craze, and the granger craze, and the cholera craze, and now there is the athletic craze, and the leading colleges are becoming huge training-grounds for young gladiators, around whom nearly as many spectators roar as roared in the Flavian amphitheatre.

As far as can be ascertained, the thing which produces most of the evils of football and other games is the effort to improve them as a spectacle for the multitude. All the good which the amateurs of the game say results from training for it and playing it could be obtained just as well by playing on the college grounds without any spectators at all. By carrying it to the neighborhood of populous towns and cities, it takes on promptly the character of the horse-race. It furnishes to the gambling fraternity something of which they are constantly in search—an interesting event of uncertain result—and sets free from the restraints of home and friends a large body of youths in a state of great excitement. One of its worst results is, however, that it frightens "the plain people" away from the colleges. The modest father who is willing to pinch himself and wife and daughters in order to give a son a college education, is appalled by what he hears and sees of the results of a football match. Debt, drink, debauchery rise up before his mind's eye as a probable concomitant of "college training," and he decides to keep his pet lamb at home. The colleges are not drawing as they ought on this class. The wealthy men are going to them in greater and greater numbers, but it is not they who keep alive the traditions of American scholarship, or show the world what a college education can do by way of preparation for life. Of the effect on the members of the various teams of the conspicuousness in which they pass some months of every year, of the interviews, the newspaper gossip, and portraits, we will not speak, as nothing definite can be known about it. But if much remains of "the modest stillness and humility" which is, the poet says, so becoming in time of peace, after training for two or three matches, they must be almost more than human.

## *LIQUOR LEGISLATION.*

It is not without significance that while the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics has been occupied in studying the methods of regulating the traffic in alcoholic drink employed in Scandinavia, the methods in use in this country have been undergoing investigation by some foreign inquirers. At the request of Mr. W. Rathbone, M.P., Mr. E. L. Fanshawe, a London barrister, has just devoted eight months of careful study to the liquor laws of our States and of the provinces of Canada. He has also endeavored to ascertain the effects of these laws by the comparison of statistics and through the testimony of witnesses. By the terms of his commission, Mr. Fanshawe was to investigate without bias, and without reference to the support of any particular line of legislation. The result of his labors is now published by Cassell & Co. in a compact and well-indexed volume, and it is difficult to conceive an investigation carried on with greater impartiality. If Mr. Fanshawe had any prepossessions, he has not disclosed them; and if he has formed any conclusions, he keeps them religiously to himself.

What struck Mr. Fanshawe first and most forcibly in comparing the situation here with that in Great Britain was the fact that not only our legislatures, but also our courts, hold that liquor-dealers have no rights that other people are bound to respect. They are not shielded by the constitutional prohibition of the deprivation of property without due process of law. The Legislature of Kansas enacted that the manufacture of beer was a crime, and that a brewery was a nuisance to be summarily abated; and a brewer whose business was stopped and whose apparatus was destroyed by the officers of the law, at an admitted loss to him of thousands of dollars, was declared by the Supreme Court of the United States to have suffered no wrong. As to compensation to liquor-sellers suddenly deprived of their licenses, the very idea would seem so strange to most Americans as to require explanation. It is true that we sometimes hear it urged that local option or prohibition is an unjustifiable interference with individual liberty, but those who bring forward this argument receive little attention. It seems to be tacitly agreed that it is wise and just to make it as inconvenient as possible to procure alcoholic drink, although if a man can get it he is at perfect liberty to use it, and nothing is more common than to see people who would as soon be without food and clothing in the house as without whiskey voting to make criminals of those who furnish them with this indispensable article.

Such conduct is explained as due to hostility to the "saloon." As Mr. Fanshawe points out, the American liquor-saloon and the British public-house are quite different institutions. They differ principally because Americans do not as a rule partake of alcoholic drinks when eating, while the English do. But Americans do partake of both wine and spirits—though not of beer—to a greater extent than the English, and as they do not get them with their meals they get them at bars. This, of course, leads to treating and to spending much time in saloons. A great many men frequent bar-rooms, but refuse to have liquors upon their tables at home, thinking it a "bad example," and fearing that their children may develop uncontrollable appetites. A great many, it may be added, although Mr. Fanshawe does not refer to the cause specifically, abstain from drinking at home out of regard for or fear of the prejudices of the women of their families. All these influences tend to magnify the importance of the saloon, and to make its temptations to young men more potent. So long as people will drink, and are prevented by public opinion from drinking at their meals, either at home or elsewhere, it seems to follow necessarily that they should patronize the clubs and saloons.

Upon the operation of prohibitory laws Mr. Fanshawe has collected a great deal of testimony. It is, as might be expected, largely inconsistent and contradictory. The figures regarding crime and pauperism in the United States are notoriously untrustworthy, and no valid inferences can be drawn from them as to the influence of the liquor laws. Nor can much dependence be placed upon comparative returns of the number of arrests for drunkenness in different communities, or even in the same community at different times. That prohibition reduces the number of saloons in the rural districts is generally admitted; but, on the other hand, it is maintained that in large towns it has the opposite effect. One of its curious results

is that it greatly lessens the consumption of fermented as compared with distilled liquors; the traffic being illicit, the article having the greatest potency in the smallest bulk is necessarily selected. Upon the whole, Mr. Fanshawe's collection of opinions upon this subject leaves us nearly as it finds us—quite unable to come to any conclusion. The fact that large numbers of persons take out United States internal-revenue licenses in the prohibition States is perhaps the most convincing piece of evidence that is adduced.

As to the effect of laws requiring the payment of high fees for licenses to sell liquors, the evidence is stronger and comparatively free from contradiction. In some communities these laws are not rigidly enforced, but in others it appears to be universally agreed that there is little evasion. In such communities the law is in effect prohibitory in sparsely settled regions, as the demand is not sufficient to make the sale profitable; and in the cities the number of drinking-places, especially of the more disorderly kinds, is generally diminished. Whether the aggregate consumption of liquors is lessened, it is impossible to say. It appears to be the general impression that it is, but on the other hand the revenue from excise keeps even pace with the growth of population.

The policy of holding liquor-sellers responsible in damages for selling to minors and known drunkards appears to be quite successful, and is likely to be extensively adopted. Few persons, indeed, are found to take exception to it. The faltering and timid steps that have been taken in the direction of treating drunkenness as an offence and increasing the length of sentences for persistent offenders are carefully noted by Mr. Fanshawe. If it can once be established that responsibility attaches to the drinking of liquor as well as to the sale of it, we shall have begun the solution of the liquor problem. Meanwhile it may certainly be said that our country owes thanks to Mr. Rathbone and Mr. Fanshawe for their admirable and disinterested contribution to its knowledge of itself. Their essay is full of interesting particulars as to the success of special laws in a number of communities, to which we cannot refer. Whoever wishes to form an intelligent opinion about the regulation of the liquor traffic by law cannot do better than consult this exhaustive and impartial work. He will find no conclusions thrust upon him, but he will be put in position to reach conclusions of his own.

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### *COURT AND LEGISLATURE.*

NEITHER the *Harvard Law Review*, nor any of our legal periodicals, has given us for a long time a more interesting study of a vital subject than Prof. Thayer's on the "Origin and Scope of the American Doctrine of Constitutional Law." The paper was first read before the Congress on Jurisprudence and Law Reform in Chicago, and was then published in the October number of the *Harvard Law Review;* it is now republished in pamphlet form by Little, Brown & Co., Boston. The title is somewhat too broad for the subject carefully investigated and philosophically discussed, namely, the assumed power, as it may be termed, of the American judiciary to do what the judiciary of no other nation has ever done—to annul an act of the Legislature by declaring it to be absolutely void.

The assumption of this power seems to run through gradations somewhat like these: (1) As was pithily said by De Lolme, "English lawyers hold that Parliament can do anything except make a man a woman or a woman a man"; (2) certain loose assertions in "the books" that what is contrary to natural equity and reason is void—which, however, is much reduced by the great commentator whom Gibbon sarcastically calls "the orthodox Judge Blackstone," for he dutifully says that "if the Parliament will positively enact a thing to be done which is unreasonable, I know of no power in the ordinary forms of the Constitution that is vested with authority to control it"; (3) the immediate and inevitable but reluctant genesis of the American idea as early as 1787, when a State court (in North Carolina), "after every reasonable endeavor had been used in vain for avoiding a disagreeable difference between the Legislature and the judicial power of the State, at length, with much apparent reluctance, but with great deliberation and firmness, gave their opinion separately but unanimously," etc., etc. (Bayard vs. Singleton). In this cautious, reluctant decision, moreover, it should be noticed that the constitutional right upheld was one precious in the sight of any Anglo-Saxon community, the right of trial by jury. In these early cases, too, the judiciary justified their action by illustrations of possible extreme abuses, such as if the Legislature should declare their own office to be for life where the Constitution limited the term; or should vest executive power in one of their own committees where the Constitution vested it in the Governor. Here parenthetically it should be said that, in Virginia, the doctrine had been enunciated earlier, and with exceptional courage and distinctness (see the *Nation* No. 1476, pp. 269, 270). (4.) The generally received doctrine of the present day, which has been as well stated by a judge of this State, the late Ira Harris, as by any. He is thus quoted by Professor Thayer: "A legislative act is not to be declared void upon a mere conflict of interpretation between the legislative and judicial powers. Before proceeding to annul by judicial sentence what has been enacted by the law-making power, it should clearly appear that the act cannot be supported by any reasonable intendment or allowable presumption."

A lay reader cannot apprehend, or at least will not be apt to suspect, the latitude which lies within the practical applications of this rule. Paradoxical as it may seem, a judge can hold a statute to be constitutional which, as an individual, he would condemn as unconstitutional. As judges refuse to set aside a verdict on the ground that it is against the weight of evidence, though as jurors they never would have agreed to it, so courts will refuse to annul an act of the Legislature, though as legislators they would have contended that it was in excess of legislative authority. A striking and almost paradoxical, but philosophically correct, illustration, which Prof. Thayer quotes from Judge Cooley, will best present this: That one who is a member of a legislature may vote against a measure as being in his judgment *unconstitutional;* and, being subsequently placed on the bench when this measure, having been passed by the legislature in spite of his opposition, comes before him judicially, may there find it his duty, *although he has in no degree changed his opinion*, to declare it *constitutional.*

Beyond this point, in his investigation, Prof. Thayer does not go. We hope that he will yet treat the subject negatively as well as positively—that he will analyze and bring before us the bad decisions as well as the good, the cases where political prejudice or the personal arrogance of small men on the bench, or the inevitable narrowness of a "little learning" in judicial places, has brought about decisions which are no better than tardy vetoes of legislative bills. But, so far in the discussion of the subject, the cases covered by the above rule are cases within one or the other of our dual systems of government—cases where a State statute conflicts with a State constitution and the question of constitutionality is adjudged by a State court; or cases where the statute is an act of Congress, and the tribunal is the Supreme Court of the United States. Will this easy-going rule do when State authority collides with the supreme law of the land, when the question before the court does not relate to mere individual suitors, when the powers of two governments must be delicately and accurately defined? Prof. Thayer treats this question too briefly; and there is another which he does not allude to—where an act of Congress trenches upon the constitutional rights of States.

As to the origin of the American doctrine, we are not now prepared to controvert the views of Prof. Thayer, and yet are not altogether willing to assent to them. The cases where colonial

statutes were held to be in excess of colonial authority or in violation of restrictions in a charter, are few and far between. They seem to have made, so far as we now recollect, no appreciable lodgment in the public mind of that day. Moreover, if they had been frequent, they would have operated unfavorably; for when a colonial statute was declared a nullity, was it not a decision by a crown court against the right of the colonies to make their own laws? The public sentiment of the time was jealous of everything that savored of irreversible official power, afraid of monarchy and titles of nobility; and would not the public inclination have been to keep power in the hands of the people and to deny to the judiciary, or to any body of men, the right to annul that which the people, through their representatives, desired to attain by means of legislative enactments? Certain it is that, sooner or later, the doctrine would have come though there had never been a colonial charter in America. Written constitutions were inevitable when it was determined that there should be limitations set upon the powers of government. In what other way could the limitations be declared? And when constitutions were made the supreme law, it was equally inevitable that sooner or later they must be brought to the only tribunals whose office it was to interpret and authoritatively declare the meaning of the law. But it is not unlikely that the forthcoming work of the late Brinton Coxe will throw new light upon the subject and modify present conclusions.

That the American doctrine of which Americans at this day are justly proud has its disadvantages, and that it is to be kept rigorously within judicial limits, Prof. Thayer shows in a few brief but forcible paragraphs. The growing incapacity of our legislative systems to confront the increasing needs of modern civilization, the settled distrust in the public mind of the integrity and wisdom and common sense of all legislative bodies, State and national, inclines the public to lean more and more upon the judiciary, beseeching them, as it were, for the annulment of laws which should never have been made. Conversely, our professional legislators, as they may be termed, are growing rapidly in the faith that nothing is iniquitous which is constitutional. Bryce was struck with the "singular result" in America that our legislatures are "very largely occupied in purely legal discussions." "Legal issues," he says, "are apt to dwarf and obscure the more substantially important issues of principle and policy." To many good citizens the views of Prof. Thayer upon this point will be unpalatable food for thought, but that they should be thought over no one can doubt.

## RECENT CONSTITUTION-MAKING IN SWITZERLAND.

PARIS, November 9, 1893.

ON the 13th of last October the Federal Council, the executive power of the Swiss Confederation, sent a message to the Federal Assembly announcing the official count of the vote of August 20 on the following amendment to the Swiss Constitution, which now becomes Article 25 *bis:* "Il est expressément interdit de saigner les animaux de boucherie sans les avoir étourdis préalablement; cette disposition s'applique à tout mode d'abatage et à toute espèce de bétail." This message of the Federal Council did more than officially declare the amendment accepted by a majority of the votes cast and by a majority of the cantons—the two conditions necessary to amend the Swiss Constitution: it declared the vote of eleven and a half cantons in the affirmative as against ten and a half cantons in the negative to be a majority in the Constitutional acceptation of the term, and thus destroyed the last hope of the French-speaking cantons, which were unanimously opposed to the amendment from the beginning.

If, in the generally accepted sense of the word, a constitution be regarded as a fundamental statute determining the seat of sovereignty among a people, and prescribing rules and maxims for the exercise of sovereign powers, the spirit of such an instrument has certainly been violated by the introduction of a clause prescribing the manner of slaughtering animals. However laudable such a provision may be as a police regulation, certainly the makers of any of our great written constitutions would have regarded a proposition to incorporate such a clause into the law of laws as little less than sacrilege. The iconoclastic spirit recently manifested by our Swiss contemporaries is nevertheless only part and parcel of a movement or tendency that has made itself felt also in America in dealing with our State constitutions. It is, further, a good barometric indication of corrupt politics, and of that distrust with which free peoples are now everywhere viewing their legislative bodies.

The Swiss Constitution is modelled on those of the cantons, and, like the latter, has always been capable of comparatively easy amendment, made more easy by an amendment passed in 1891, giving the initiative right to propose amendments to 50,000 voters; the "beef slaughtering" amendment of 1893 is the first exercise of this power. The right of initiative thus given is more than any mere right of petition, because it requires the properly constituted authority to act on the matter presented. It is also necessary to distinguish between the initiative in this case as applied to the total revision of the Constitution and as applied to a simple amendment or revision in part. The present Constitution of Switzerland was adopted in 1874, but the provision for amendment remained the same as in the Constitution of 1848, with the addition of the statement that the vote of a half-canton is counted as half a vote in making up the majority of the States, and the result of the popular vote in each canton is considered to be the vote of the State. Both of these constitutions charged the Federal Assembly with the duty of proposing amendments, but provided that whenever one house passed a resolution for amendment to which the other house did not agree, or when fifty thousand Swiss voters demanded amendment, the question whether the Federal Constitution ought to be amended should, in either case, be submitted to a vote of the Swiss people, voting yes or no; and in case of an affirmative majority, a new election of both houses should take place for the purpose of preparing amendments. This practically applied only to total revision, and although 50,000 voters could compel total revision provided they received a majority at the polls, yet their wish had to be put into shape through the indirect medium of a legislature. No provision was made for definite partial revision, which always partakes more of the nature of lawmaking.

It is true that the report accompanying the Constitution of 1848 said that partial revision might be undertaken in the same way as total revision, but neither this Constitution nor its successor in 1874 gave the matter of partial revision any further notice, and no test case came up until many years later. In the year 1879 a widespread movement in favor of making the issue of bank-notes a monopoly of the Confederation not meeting with favor at the hands of the National Assembly, a petition was presented to the Federal Council, signed by more than fifty thousand voters, asking to have the Constitution amended to this effect, and accompanied by the text of an amendment such as was desired. The Federal Council laid the matter before the Assembly, and evidently desired to have the question whether or no the Constitution should be revised on this particular point put directly to popular vote. The Assembly, however, decided that only the question of the total revision of the Constitution could thus be provoked by the people and presented to them at the polls, and consequently ordered a vote to be taken upon the general question, Shall the Constitution be revised? The people at the polls returned a majority in the negative, fearing a reopening of the disputed questions settled in 1874, though it is probable that a majority was actually in favor of the bank-note amendment, which was put into the Constitution by regular process eleven years later, in 1891. The question of partial revision thus raised in 1880 did not lie dormant; it was brought up in 1884 in the National Council, or lower house of the Assembly, in the form of a demand, on democratic grounds, for the sanction of the popular initiative in cases of partial revision, in order logically to complete the sense of the Constitution.

For four years more the proposition rested in the committee stage, having been sent to the Federal Council for report, when the matter was taken up by the Grütliverein, a powerful workingmen's organization. This Verein presented various petitions to the Federal Council and kept the matter before the public, advancing, however, no other arguments than that it was an evident defect in the Constitution to deny to the people the lesser power of demanding the revision of a single article, while granting them the greater power of demanding the revision of the whole; and, further, that this was one of the people's rights that must be claimed in the interest of pure democracy. The Federal Council then presented to the Federal Assembly a proposition which, if it had been accepted, would have submitted to vote a new amendment providing for a simple extension to cases of partial revision of the power already granted in cases of total revision. A demand made by 50,000 Swiss voters for the amendment of the Constitution on a single point would then have caused either the acceptance of the desired amendment at the hands of the Assembly and its presentation to the plebiscites, or, if the Assembly disagreed with it, the presentation of the question, Shall the Constitution be revised in this particular? which being answered in the af-

firmative, the election of a new Assembly to draft the new amendment and submit it afresh to the people would have followed. Thus there would have been still considerable restraint imposed; the amendments would have been framed by competent persons, and practically submitted twice to popular vote. The National Council accepted the proposition thus made by the Federal Council, but, curiously enough, the Council of States, or upper house of the Assembly, amended it in such a way as completely to change its significance. In the form in which it finally passed the Council of States and was agreed to by the National Council, it gave to 50,000 petitioning voters the right to present a definite amendment which must be submitted directly to popular vote, the Assembly having the right to offer a counter proposition, whereupon the amendment receiving a majority of the votes cast and the vote of a majority of States would become part of the Constitution. In the form of an amendment to the Constitution this proposition was then submitted to the plébiscites on July 5, 1891, and accepted by a vote of 183,029 to 120,599, eighteen cantons voting in the affirmative,

To explain why the National Council made so radical a change in the original form of this proposition, and thus took away all the safeguards to the grant of a doubtful power, would require more space than we can give it here, though it may be remarked that the members of the Council of States representing the cantons were doubtless largely influenced by the methods in vogue for revising the cantonal constitutions, which are in most cases very loose, and in some cases give a small number of citizens the right to propose amendments to be voted on at an annual public gathering with little ceremony. At the hands of these representatives the proposition for revising the Constitution of the Confederation did not assume the importance it did to those better trained in more healthy theories of constitutional law. The Swiss people, however, were amply warned before election day of the probable consequences of their action by eminent constitutional authorities and their leading journals. Little interest was taken in what seemed to be a mere theoretical controversy, and less in the fears and warnings of academical theorists. A few speeches embellished with democratic platitudes served to bring out the rank and file of voters of the less intelligent class in favor of the amendment, and the total vote was light, owing to general indifference. The majority, nevertheless, was sufficiently pronounced, the amendment adopted, and the Swiss Constitution dethroned from the rank of a fundamental law. Henceforth all that malcontents and faddists had to do to further their pet theories on any minute detail of government, in case they were refused satisfaction at the hands of the lawmaking powers, was to put their ideas in the form of an amendment to the Constitution. With an association, or even a newspaper, at the head of almost any movement, it is not difficult to get fifty thousand signers for a petition even in little Switzerland.

In reading over the amendment accepted last August, prohibiting any animal to be slaughtered without being stunned by a sharp blow to deprive it of consciousness, probably only those well versed in the undercurrents of European politics of the hour will suspect the true nature of the movement that led up to its proposal and acceptance. Anti-Semitism is every day taking on new forms, but nowhere has it found a neater chance to give vent to its absurd fanaticism than here. The movement originated in the cantons of Bern and Aargau, where Jewish colonies formerly were permitted to slaughter animals according to the mode prescribed by their religion, by cutting the arteries at the throat and bleeding the animal to death. It seems that this mode of slaughter attracted the attention of the Society for the Protection of Animals—a rather powerful organization throughout Switzerland—which proclaimed it more cruel than methods in vogue among the Christians. The anti-Jewish feeling, already strong, was not slow to accept this idea, and sufficient pressure was brought to bear upon the cantonal governments of Bern and Aargau to secure the prohibition of the Jewish practice. The Society for the Protection of Animals then endeavored to have similar laws passed in other cantons. The Jews organized themselves and petitioned the Federal Council, claiming that such legislation was unconstitutional, since their mode of slaughter was part of their religious belief, and Art. 50 of the Constitution guaranteed all persons religious liberty. The Federal Council thereupon undertook the examination of the two fundamental questions at issue: (1) Is the Jewish mode of slaughter an integral part of their religion? and (2) if so, does it harmonize with the general standard of public good and morals under which the guarantee of religious liberty must be construed? Ample testimony was taken on both points from the ablest specialists. The first point was decided in the affirmative, and the second, which covered the question of cruelty, was likewise decided in favor of the Jews, with an almost unanimous recommendation for the adoption of the Jewish mode on grounds of public health and expediency. Such authorities as Profs. Virchow of Berlin, Herzen, Vogt, Guillebeau, and Hess of Bern, the Director of the Veterinary Institute of Leipzig, the Secretary of the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, and the majority of a Russian commission of seven specialists, all testified that the Jewish mode was less objectionable than any of the others, though the reflex movements of the muscles, after consciousness has left the animal, are painful to witness, and have thus given rise to the belief that this method is cruel. The Federal Council was, therefore, compelled to report the Jewish petition favorably to the Assembly, and that body sustained it in both houses by a law declaring the cantonal restrictions and prohibitions to be null and void.

The next step for the Anti-Semites was an easy one, viz., to amend the Constitution. They aroused the anti-Jewish feeling, and circulated a petition for a constitutional amendment, which soon received 83,000 signatures, of which number the three German cantons, Zurich, Bern, and Aargau, furnished over 64,000 and the French-speaking cantons only 2,500. A strong agitation pro and con ensued. In the affirmative were arrayed the anti-Semitic organizations and the friends of the Society for the Protection of Animals; in the negative the leading journals and the most enlightened public sentiment in all those cantons where Jewish colonies were not yet influential enough to arouse jealousy and hatred. Except in these latter cantons, the vote polled on election day was light. As now officially announced, it stands 191,527 for the amendment and 127,101 against. Less than half of the voting strength was brought out, yet not one French-speaking canton voted in the affirmative. In view of the fact that the vote of the States or cantons gave only one majority, we may say that the vote in the smallest of the cantons, Zug, which cast only 1,300 votes and gave an affirmative majority of less than 400 votes, decided this important change in the Swiss Constitution. The whole question, however, has not sufficiently touched the pockets of the people to arouse much indignation at this the first use to be made of the "people's initiative." The time will doubtless come when a sufficiently flagrant abuse of this power will arouse the Swiss nation to a consciousness of its mistake, and lead to a reconstruction period in its constitutional history. SAMUEL M. LINDSAY.

## THE FRENCH ARTISTIC INVASION OF ENGLAND.

LONDON, November 20, 1893.

THERE was promise in the announcement that an exhibition of French decorative art was to be held in London. The term is confusing, since all art is decorative, else it is not art. But the Arts and Crafts' show being still open to prove that, according to this Society's definition, decorative art in England begins and ends with the work of its own members, the French collection, it was hoped, by explaining the French use of the term, would offer a fine opportunity for comparative study. If it has turned out to be not at all what was expected, it is a hundred times more interesting than if it were; for the organizers of the exhibition have given the word decorative an interpretation liberal and sensible beyond the belief of the English Arts-and-Craftsmen. The arts which custom classes as decorative either are not represented at all, or else so vilely that it would have been better not to make the attempt. Household furniture, stained glass, wall-papers, pottery, china do but succeed in showing that French amateurs and manufacturers can, when they choose, be as inartistic and vulgar as anybody else. It is only Charpentier, with his exquisite metal-work—his little bas-reliefs for locks or panels, the tankards and candlesticks in which he charms by his accomplished use of the human figure introduced into ornament—only Charpentier, and Chéret with his vases, and Wiener with his book-bindings, who, by bringing to London their contributions from last spring's Champ-de-Mars Salon, have lent to this department distinction and elegance.

But then, on the other hand, arts not usually classified as decorative have been, not merely included in the collection, but represented most marvellously well and adequately. These are the arts of lithography, wood-engraving, and etching, and upon them the interest of the exhibition rests. Nothing could be more timely than their present appearance in London. In the first place, they give the lie direct to the theory of the Arts-and-Craftsmen that prints and drawings cannot be decorative if the draughtsman swerve a hair's breadth from certain arbitrary lines and combinations of lines, a certain affectation of primitiveness and indifference to natural beauty of form. In the French work, the artist has allowed himself the freedom of the painter, or, perhaps, borrowed motives—to be worked out in his own fashion—from the Oriental, or has boldly forsaken the beaten track for strange and original experiment. And he will be a blind man who will find truer feeling for ornament in the stilted mannerisms of Crane than in the free, unconstrained designs of Carrière—in the archaic wood-blocks after Burne-Jones than in the lovely color-prints of Lepère. Not an artist is there who does not work according to conventions, for art itself is in its very nature a convention. But this is no reason why each

artist should not be at liberty to choose his own, instead of being bound by those of others, or by tradition. Just as a canvas filled with a landscape by Corot is as wholly decorated as a wall-space filled with geometrical figures, so the characteristic and personal lines of Lepère, or the well-composed portraits of Carrière, form as truly decorative a design as the cross between Botticelli and Burne-Jones — and mighty little of the former — which is the only convention accepted by the English would-be authorities.

More important still is the proof afforded by the collection of the reaction against the excesses of "process." For, flat contradiction as at first it may sound, to process we really owe the present new Renaissance in the arts of lithography and wood-engraving, and, in a lesser degree, etching. I do not wish to be misunderstood. For the reproduction of line drawings process is not easily to be outdone; for the rendering of wash drawings, ninety-nine artists in a hundred will prefer it—and prefer it with emphasis—to wood-engraving; and, the chances are, it will be carried to greater perfection in the future. But the very excellence of these mechanical facsimiles has directed the energies of the wood-engraver and lithographer into new channels. Professional pessimists there be who declare that these arts are doomed to utter extinction; that henceforth the intelligence of engraver or lithographer will be superseded wholly by the unintelligent action of chemicals. And, indeed, in England there is danger of this prophecy being fulfilled. Here, process has been sadly abused, since its cheapness, and not its excellence, has to most editors and publishers been its recommendation; and, where cheapness is sought, original wood-engravers and lithographers can have small chance. But in France, and to a lesser extent in the United States, such among them as are artists, their services being no longer monopolized in the facsimile reproduction of other men's designs, have been able to give their individuality full play, to make experiment after experiment, to use the stone or the wood for the recording of their own impressions. The result is the possibility of so fine and striking and suggestive a series of prints as that now hanging on the walls of the Grafton Galleries—a series which could not well have been brought together some ten or twelve years ago, before the popularizing of process.

This activity is most marked in the revival of lithography. The stone has attracted painters like Besnard and Carrière and Puvis de Chavannes, who are represented in the present collection, as some years ago it appealed to Whistler, who may be said to have inaugurated the movement. But even more notable are the many new departures that have been made in the art, the wonderful manner in which the resources of the stone have been tested. Of the technical methods employed I say nothing, since just now I am concerned with results. Judging from these, it seems as if there were nothing the original lithographer cannot do. He can give not merely line, as in a pencil drawing on the stone by Willette, but tone no less well, as in the rich, brilliant studies of light and shade by Dillon and Lunois, two masters of the art. His very brushmarks can be rendered, or so subtle a quality as the mist that hangs over a portrait by Carrière. And next to an example of this kind you will come at once upon a strong design in thick, straightforward black lines and bold blots by Anquetin of the *Courrier Français*. The prints in color are no less interesting. Unfortunately there are few of the posters that give gayety and life to French streets—only about half-a-dozen by Grasset have been sent, among them the familiar, angular, delightful arrangement of Sarah Bernhardt as *Jeanne d'Arc*. But there are curious impressions of vivid color by Lunois, delicate suggestions by Lepère, Japanese-like, fantastic use of figures by Dennis. And in none are we dependent upon another man's interpretation; we have in each the work of the artist himself. There could be no question of process competing with lithographs like this.

In America, Cole's engravings after the old masters, and Kruell's portraits, certainly have qualities which process or photography, in the eyes of an intelligent critic or even educated observer, could never rival. In France, Florian has experimented in this same field with still greater originality and more varied effects. His use of the graver is freer; he sketches at times on the block, giving in beautiful lines his impressions of pictures or those parts of a picture which have charmed him. Wood-engraving will not soon surpass the loveliness of his blocks after Botticelli, especially one, showing a single figure from the "Birth of Venus," the flower-sprigged gown, the swirl of the draperies, the little landscape beyond, all expressed with incomparable refinement and delicacy, while the silvery quality given to the print is in admirable harmony with the subject. So long as there are such masters as Florian, Cole, and Kruell, what nonsense it is to lament the decline of wood-engraving. Others, Lepère, for instance, like Mr. Elbridge Kingsley, engrave directly from nature on the block, and, Lepère being an artist of distinction, the results with him are always interesting, sometimes of supreme value. His most noteworthy achievement is in the blocks printed in color. These have less in common with the ordinary color work of the Western engraver—like those now exhibited by Pissarro, for example—than with the work of the Japanese. He has not thought it necessary to overload his print with color, even though he may use the same number of blocks as Pissarro; rather he has suggested tints the beauty of which would be sacrificed by elaboration or attempt at too close realizing, and by his suggestion he has obtained an effect of distant landscape, of flowing water, or even of the modelling of the sky, much as the Japanese artist succeeds in producing very similar effects in his print. What has already been accomplished by the modern original wood-engraver is of importance, not solely in itself, but in the still wider scope and greater freedom it bids fair to give to the art in the future.

The experiments in etching are as amusing, but hardly as promising. The printing of plates in color, as practised by Delatre, is ingenious, but his success is scarce sufficient to induce many etchers to neglect the old black and brown and gray inks. More to the purpose are the effective combinations of line and aquatint, or some method of preparing the plate known only to the etcher himself, to render any and every effect. The three Pissarros have made wonderful prints in this way. And there is a small portrait of Lautrec by Maurin which commands the respect of the artist, while it stimulates the layman's curiosity, so impossible is it to understand how the beautiful rich surface and the fine tones have been obtained.

In London the influence of the exhibition should be for good. It is refreshing in its frank, unaffected contrast to the fads of the English draughtsmen of the primitive school, who call themselves decorators in contradistinction to all other illustrators and engravers. It should prove of incalculable use to the English student, who, for the first time, has the chance to learn something of the possibilities of wood-engraving and lithography which he has hitherto known by their limitations. To every one it is delightful as a reminder of the present vitality of arts whose very existence is supposed to be imperilled by the invention of process. N. N.

## PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.—V.

PARIS, November 11, 1893.

TALLEYRAND understood well the need of striking while the iron is hot, and lost no time as soon as he had the Emperor Alexander with him. He had declared himself for the Bourbons, and when Alexander asked him how he would accomplish the revolution, he did not hesitate to say that he would accomplish it with the help of the Senate. Pasquier too knew how to take a prompt resolution. "I had," he says, "reflected on the grave situation in which I was to be placed. I did not conceal from myself the dangers or the sadness of an irrevocable resolution. From that moment [his first interview with Nesselrode] I resolved to employ all the means in my power to procure the triumph of the House of Bourbon." The Senate behaved as Talleyrand had promised that it should behave: if it had not done so, "our situation," says Pasquier, "would have become critical. . . . This occasion was, in all Talleyrand's life, the one when he best manœuvred, for it is past comprehension how, and how rapidly, he obtained all that was necessary, how everything was fixed and executed." The Senate met, named a provisional government, and promulgated a series of articles which were the foundation of the *Charte*, all in one day, under the presidency of Talleyrand. The next day it pronounced the deposition of Napoleon. The decree of deposition was brought to Alexander, who, in order to show that he wished to become an ally of France, ordered that all the French prisoners held in Russia should be set free. Pasquier had kept his office of prefect of police, and had to answer for the safety of Alexander, who liked to go through Paris on horseback and to visit all its public establishments. "Honored," said the prefect, in a circular to all his agents, "with the confidence of the provisional government, which has maintained me in my functions, I have accepted this mode of serving my country."

Meanwhile, Napoleon was still at Fontainebleau, ready to take the offensive. He had called near him the two corps of Marshals Marmont and Mortier, and was expecting troops from Champagne. He was desirous to fight a battle before Paris and to rouse the workingmen of the capital. "The idea of a battle fought under the walls of Paris threw the firmest into consternation, for, if it was lost by the Allies, the consequences were incalculable. Who could know what might happen in a precipitate retreat! . . . As for the men who had dared to come out against Napoleon as we had just done, it is easy to perceive what would have been their fate. Flight would have been their only resource." So great was the fear that some people already thought of trying to assassinate Bonaparte. Pasquier heard of these projects, and, having received a letter from the Duc de Bassano, brought to him by a peasant, he took the opportunity to send back word, first, advising the Emperor to have his person well guarded, and, secondly, urging him not to apply to him any more for anything concerning his service.

The Duc de Bassano had asked him, on behalf of the Emperor, in his letter to give him details of the state of Paris. Pasquier gives the full text of the dry note which he sent to the Duc de Bassano; it ends thus: "No need to ask me any more for anything. You must know the side I have taken."

Alexander was much concerned about the sentiments of the army, as if in 1814 he foresaw the return from Elba in 1815. He said in his little circle: "The army is always the army: as long as you have it not with you, gentlemen, you have nothing. It represents the French nation, and if you do not gain it over, you can do nothing solid. It will always in the end upset what has been established without its consent and against its sentiment." The answer to these fears was given by Marshal Marmont; his defection was the deathblow to Napoleon. Pasquier relates in great detail the story of Talleyrand and Nesselrode's negotiations with Marmont.

"I know all that has been said," writes Pasquier, "all that one has a right to think about Marshal Marmont; alas! it is certain that I would not have the act with which he is reproached weighing on my memory. Still, he rendered a great service, and he rendered it unconditionally. Whatever may have been his secret thoughts, he asked nothing, he stipulated nothing for himself. We shall soon see his example followed by his most renowned rivals and equals. All, in the course of three weeks, yielded to the new order of things, to the House of Bourbon."

The abdication of Napoleon, which was forced on him by his own marshals, was signed on the 4th of April, 1814, at Fontainebleau. Pasquier was present when the plenipotentiaries of the French Emperor were received by Alexander. A conference took place, in which the fate of Napoleon was decided; it lasted till two o'clock in the morning. "We had witnessed one of the most extraordinary scenes of which history has preserved the memory. A sovereign, arriving from the confines of Asia, had coolly allowed to be discussed the existence of a dynasty founded by the greatest man of modern times, and the return of the most ancient European dynasty, torn from the throne twenty-two years before by the most terrible revolution. He ended the discussion by saying: 'I will come to a decision to-morrow before nine o'clock.'" And so he did. Alexander was convinced that the abdication would be an illusion if Napoleon was recognized; the King of Rome was sacrificed, and Austria did not appear to care for his interests.

The island of Elba was chosen for Napoleon's prison. Is it true that, on hearing his fate, Napoleon tried to poison himself? Pasquier admits it. "During the night of the 12th and 13th of April, he tried to destroy himself. The poison which he used, shut up in his *nécessaire* since the Russian campaign, was probably too old; it had no effect except to cause very intense pain. The Servian surgeon who was with him lost his head, went down into the court of the Cheval Blanc, and, finding a horse saddled, jumped on it and went off on a gallop. He did not reappear at Fontainebleau." Napoleon was a fatalist; he accepted his fate, ratified the arrangements made for him, and rather encouraged than discouraged all the adhesions to the new government which poured in from all sides in a few days. Monsieur, Comte d'Artois, made his entrance into Paris on horseback, in the uniform of the national guard. The King was detained some time longer in England by a fit of the gout. Napoleon was still at Fontainebleau.

"It cannot be disputed that, having once made up his mind to abdicate, his attitude was noble and resigned. He even spoke with indulgence of Talleyrand. 'After all,' he said, 'he served me well while he did serve me; I quarrelled with him perhaps with a little levity. I then ill-treated him. He must have been tempted to avenge himself. So fine a mind as his must have understood that the Bourbons were approaching, that they alone could assure his vengeance. He took the first steps towards them. It was very simple. I committed a great blunder. I had brought him to such a pitch of discontent that I ought to have shut him up or have kept him always at my side.'"

Napoleon left for the island of Elba; the next day the Duc de Berry arrived from Normandy. "I was beside him," says Pasquier, "when he gave his first audience. All the generals then in Paris came to be presented to him. He knew none of them; all were obliged to give their names to an aide-de-camp placed near him. I was obliged to help in this delicate duty." This incident shows how utterly ignorant the Bourbons were of the society which was to become theirs. The Comte d'Artois, who had assumed the functions of government before the arrival of the King, asked Pasquier how the King could recompense the services which he had rendered. Pasquier said that he was tired of his place, and wished to leave it. The Comte d'Artois insisted on his remaining in it one or two years more.

Louis XVIII. travelled slowly from England and stopped at Compiègne.

"When the Emperor Alexander appeared at Compiègne, it was impossible for him not to perceive that he entered into an atmosphere very different from that in which he had hitherto lived. He was no longer the indispensable, unique man, upon whom everything depended; a new influence balanced his, and it was the most disagreeable of all to him, as it came from the quarter which revealed the only rivalry he had to fear. [The King had found an asylum in England when he was excluded from every country in Europe, even Russia.] Alexander had come with an idea which he had cherished for some little time with complacency—the idea of an intimate union between Russia and France, a union which would be cemented by the marriage of the Duc de Berry with one of his sisters. . . . He found neither in the King nor in his family the abandon, the cordiality which might have made an overture simple and easy. He returned from Compiègne to Paris in a very different state of mind from that in which he had come."

The consequences of this coldness were grave, for, as Pasquier remarks, the conflict between the English influence and the Russian influence was soon felt in the political parties of France.

"On the side of England were the Court and the whole of the party of the *émigrés;* on the side of Russia were all the men who had played an active and important part in recent events, all those whose patriotism had, during the wars of the Empire, revolted against England. A deep hatred of England had become a national sentiment; all the military men were imbued with it, the inhabitants of the coast had drunk it in with their mothers' milk."

Talleyrand's astonishment at Compiègne was as great as Alexander's surprise; he saw himself relegated to the crowd of courtiers; he had to wait two or three hours before being introduced by M. de Blacas. The King said to Talleyrand when he saw him: "Well, M. de Talleyrand, so I am right in the end? If you had had the advantage, you would have said to me, 'Sit down, and let us have a talk'; it is for me to pay you this compliment and to say, 'Sit down and let us talk together.'" There was much irony and some impertinence in this apparently friendly familiarity. The King still saw the Bishop of Autun in M. de Talleyrand; he had forgotten nothing. Louis XVIII. received at Saint-Ouen the Senate, the marshals of France, all the high dignitaries of the State; he made the declaration which bears the name of Declaration of Saint-Ouen, in which he accepted the principle of a Constitution, and confirmed the principal articles which had been prepared by the Senate. Among the framers of the Constitution was M. Beugnot. It was agreed between the King and his brother that Beugnot should become director-general of the police in place of Pasquier. M. de Blacas, in the name of the King, informed Pasquier of this change, and asked him what compensation he would prefer. The place of director-general of the Ponts-et-Chaussées was vacant, and was not a political post. Pasquier, in this new office, became a witness and ceased to be an actor.

There was no intimacy between the King and his family and the allied sovereigns; Louis XVIII. was anxious only to see them depart. In the meantime, Alexander often called at Malmaison on the Empress Josephine and on her daughter, Queen Hortense. He spent with them the greater part of his evenings. In the small circle of Josephine, he spoke rather too freely of the Bourbons. "*Ces gens-là*," said he in a moment of spleen, "*ne se soutiendront jamais.*" Louis XVIII. could not view with much pleasure these visits to Malmaison; on his part he always let Alexander see that he was the King of France *par la grâce de Dieu:* he walked before him in going through a door; he kept up all the forms of the ancient etiquette of sovereigns. Josephine fell ill during Alexander's sojourn in Paris, and expired after three days' illness. The Emperor of Russia was very attentive to her, and spent the night of her death at Malmaison. The Russian Imperial Guard attended her funeral at Rueil, and rendered her the honors which in other times would have been rendered by Napoleon's imperial guard.

At last, the treaty of peace was signed and ratified:

"I shall never forget," says Pasquier, "the impression I received on the morning of the 3d of June, when I crossed the Place Louis XV. to go to my house. I found the square and the adjacent quays covered with Russian and Prussian troops marching away with their knapsacks on their backs. The morning was misty, and whether on account of the weather or of the fatigue of having seen so many things, the great event of the evacuation was accomplished without noise, without spectators. Nobody, or almost nobody, had taken the trouble to turn out. . . . I remained half an hour on the bridge, motionless, looking on the flow of these soldiers, of this mass of arms, of guns, of horses. . . . How far from my thought was the possibility of seeing again and in a very short interval of time these terrible phalanxes which had weighed so heavily on us!"

# Correspondence.

## AN INDEX GRIEVANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a small Southern college, which has a meagre library and very limited funds for adding to it, there is a certain professor of Greek whose none-too-aldermanic salary barely enables him to support his family, and to buy from year to year a few new books that he deems necessary aids to his work if he is to do his duty by his classes. This teacher, who has from twelve to fifteen hours per week of classwork, has a certain feeling (which creeps into his mind timidly enough in the presence of tomes of German learning), that a book of re-

ference should be a book of ready reference. He thinks that an index adds something to a good many books, and he has tried in a feeble way to use his Schmidt's 'Kunstformen der Griechischen Poesie' and Rossbach and Westphal's 'Musische Künste der Hellenen' without one.

But the *Nation* has preached and preached upon this text, and he hopes will continue to preach. He begs to sing a different tale of woe. He has found Lipsius's edition of Meier and Schoemann's 'Der Attische Process' useful in his reading of Lysias and other Attic orators. The book has an index (though no index of passages cited), but what is he to do with the 123 "Berichtigungen und Nachträge"? He must either look in two places on every consultation, or incorporate all the corrections in the body of the book, by symbol or in full. The first is inconvenient, the second takes time ill to be spared. He gets interested in the etymology of some word and consults his Brugmann's 'Grundriss der Vergleichenden Grammatik.' He happens to have met Prof. Brugmann, and found him a courteous gentleman, full of the milk of human kindness. Yet his 'Grundriss' contains, in the first volume, 46 "Nachträge und Berichtigungen"; in the second, 141 solidly printed "Berichtigungen und Nachträge" to the first volume, 152 to the second volume, followed by 55 "Verbesserungen und Nachträge"! And then, to cap the climax, he finds that after the index come 45 more "Nachträge und Berichtigungen zu Band II." And so on and on through a long list of books that the Fatherland sends us. One becomes profoundly thankful that the 131 "Berichtigungen und Nachträge" in the first volume of Kühner-Blass, and the 153 in the second volume to the first, and the 75 to the second, are included in the purview of the index, though of course one cannot trust the body of the book without reference to the index.

Is it always the notoriously bad German eyesight that is responsible for the often execrable proof-reading, or is it sometimes simply haste? It is true that these multitudinous corrections come in part from a desire to refer the reader to the latest word on every question. But it often seems as if more deliberation would have increased the elements of dignity and finality. And surely, when an important correction has been made, the index should show it.

W. H. B.

## DILÎP SINH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It occurs to me that a few words supplementary to "F. H.'s" communication respecting the late Dhuleep Singh in your paper of last week might be welcome to some readers. Having had some direct or personal knowledge of an important incident in the Maharajah's life to which "F. H." refers, I am able to mention some circumstances or considerations which deepen the curiosity (queerness?) of the affair, and which, though probably well known to "F. H.," he does not explicitly denote or indicate.

Dhuleep Singh was not, as some Americans have supposed, merely the heir apparent, but the actual Maharajah or great king of the dominions of Runjeet Singh, having been placed upon the throne of Lahore by the British in 1846; and in his character of great king it was he who, after the crushing defeat of the Sikhs in 1849, tendered to the Governor-General, at the gates of Lahore, the submission of himself and his chiefs. And when, in 1849, Lord Dalhousie annexed the Punjab to the British territories, it was as the deposed Maharajah that he was thought worthy of the liberal pension of £40,000 a year. It was also upon his title, as having been their actual or *de facto* king, that the Sikhs relied in their hope of his future restoration to the throne from which he had been deposed.

Whatever knowledge some of the Sikhs possessed respecting the baseness of his birth, and whatever suspicions were entertained by others of them, Dhuleep Singh was undoubtedly a centre or nucleus around which the Sikhs might some day rally. Though still a boy in his early teens, and not a boy who gave promise of great future ability, he was already a source of troublous thoughts and of brooding intrigue among the Sirdars and other chiefs in the Punjab. And though no movement against the recently imposed rule of the "white foreigners" might take place, or even threaten to take place, at an early day, it was clear enough that the state of unrest would probably grow worse as the captive Maharajah advanced in years and stature.

Now, most readers very likely know that the Sikhs of the Punjab were by far the most formidable antagonists, of Indian origin, the British have ever encountered in maintaining their dominion in the East. In the war with the Sikhs there was a day on which, during many hours, English rule in India seemed to have reached its end or to hang by a hair. Indeed, even another battle with the Sikhs, though the English were known beforehand as predestined victors, seemed of all calamities the most to be avoided, if possible; and happily there was one way in which whatever dangers might inhere in the person of the little "Great Rajah" might be easily eliminated or neutralized. Purposely or consciously to injure, and thus, in any manner or degree, to disqualify the Prince was out of the question and not to be thought of; a remedy forbidden with equal emphasis by British magnanimity and by British humanity. No, certainly such a thought, I am sure, never entered the mind of one of the English gentlemen upon whom the high responsibilities of British administration in India then rested. Instead of injuring the boy in any way, they determined to confer upon him the greatest of all benefits by making, or rather by causing him to be made, a Christian in the mode and after the pattern prescribed by the Church of England. Accordingly, at the request of the Prince's English guardian, Sir John Logan, an American missionary at Farrakhabad, the Rev. Mr. Seeley, undertook his preliminary instruction in the elements of Christian doctrine; and when this course of teaching had continued a few months or weeks, the Maharajah, then in his fifteenth year, was baptized by an East India Company's chaplain, the Rev. Mr. Jay, and was thus made a Christian. Naturally, the report of this transformation was rapidly spread abroad over the northwest provinces and from there over the Punjab, with results easily foreseen. The bibliolaters who worship the Granth and hate the Moslems; the Moslems who love the Koran aud hate all idolaters; and the orthodox Hindus who regard neither the Granth nor the Koran—in a word, all the peoples of the Punjab—forthwith found themselves in a state of happy unity of sentiment respecting the very objectionable metamorphosis of their late Maharajah; while the rebellious Sirdars at once perceived that he had ceased to be available for their purposes.

R. E. W.

176 Federal Street, Allegheny, Pa., November 28, 1893.

# Notes.

The "Heart of Oak Books," of English prose and poetry for young folks, already announced as in process of compilation by Prof. C. E. Norton and Miss Kate Stephens, are soon to be published in five volumes by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

The procession of reprints recommences with (let us say at random) the 'Lorna Doone' in two volumes issued by Porter & Coates, Philadelphia. We find this edition preferable to a much more ambitious one of recent date in respect both of typography and of handiness. The photogravure illustrations are numerous, and all but wholly views of the scene of this Devonshire story; the few figure compositions are weak and ineffective, but do not seriously mar the uniformly pleasing impression of the well-chosen transcripts from nature. The binding is in white and gold with an arabesque design. We like best the pretty page of print with its deep *unbroken* margin in the Harpers' edition of Charles Reade's 'Cloister and the Hearth,' in two volumes richly bound in buff and gold. Still, Mr. William Martin Johnson's drawings, which irregularly break in upon the margin, seldom lack a decorative quality and they show not a little versatility. The draughtsmanship of the figures is in general clever in an amateurish way. The shiny page must be set down to the account of "process." For every-day use one can but commend the simpler style in which A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have revived Elizabeth Spofford's 'Rumour,' again in two volumes, light to the hand and most tastefully bound in blue cloth, stamped in gold on the back and in white on the side. Mrs. Spofford's "introductory note" is a pretty full disquisition upon the author. The two frontispieces are of Beethoven and Louis Napoleon.

We recur once more to the parallel editions of Scott, the International (Estes & Lauriat) and the Dryburgh (Macmillan), which now respectively add 'The Abbot' in two volumes and 'The Fortunes of Nigel' in one—neither calling for any remark by way of distinction from their predecessors. We may say the same of Fielding's 'Jonathan Wild' in the Dent-Macmillan issue; of 'In Far Lochaber,' in Harper's uniform edition of William Black; and of Ruskin's 'Elements of Drawing' in the Brantwood edition supervised by Prof. Norton (Maynard, Merrill & Co.). McClurg's "Laurel-Crowned" series is well known as a standard of good inexpensive bookmaking, and we need therefore only refer to it as the model after which the same firm have fashioned Carlyle's 'Sartor Resartus' and Thackeray's 'English Humorists,' the shorter work having a more open appearance.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, celebrate the fortieth anniversary of 'The Adventures of Mr. Verdant Green, an Oxford Freshman,' by bringing this classic out anew in very handsome style, within and without, while coupling with it for the first time a uniform (third) volume embracing the same author's 'Little Mr. Bouncer and His Friend Verdant Green' and 'Tales of College Life.' Mr. Cuthbert Bede's own Thackerayesque illustrations have been reproduced in this set, which has an historic as well as an imaginative value. The covers are in green, of course, richly and artistically stamped, and the price for such good workmanship very moderate.

The Scribners have thought it well to make up a brochure, in large type, of the articles by

artists on the World's Fair and its frequenters that have appeared in their *Magazine*—Mr. F. D. Millet on "The Decoration of the Exposition," Mr. J. A. Mitchell on "Types and People at the Fair," Mr. Will H. Low on "The Art of the White City," etc., etc. There is some overlapping in these categories, and some, but less, in the accompanying designs, from all which emerges a pretty souvenir called 'Some Artists at the Fair.'

We pause in this long list with 'A History of My Time,' an English version of the Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier, of which the first volume, 1789–1810, is before us (Charles Scribner's Sons), while our Paris correspondent is commenting on the second in the original French. We shall say nothing as to contents, therefore. The 559 pages are compactly printed, without being trying to the eyes. An early and a later portrait of Pasquier are the sole illustrations. The translation, by Charles E. Roche, shows itself, on the least examination, to be literal to a degree that makes it more trustworthy than scholarly or idiomatic.

Some of the illustrated holiday books are not new, and some that are new are not good. Lee & Shepard revive J. Noel Paton's time-honored designs for Coleridge's 'Ancient Mariner' (for what, we wonder, do they claim copyright?), and the Appletons bring out illustrated editions of 'Picciola' and of Bryant's 'Poems of Nature,' of which it is difficult to say whether J. F. Gueldry's figures or Paul de Longpré's landscapes and flowers are the worse. In the absence of other tests, perhaps the cover of the second of the volumes may be considered to gain for it the palm of badness.

Good training and an adequate knowledge of the figure mark Mr. F. V. Du Mond's drawings for Mr. William Trumbull's not very inspiring poem, 'The Legend of the White Canoe' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), and Mr. Bernard Partridge, as is well known, sketches with a brisk and clever pen, even if not with quite the dainty elegance of fancy that should accompany Mr. Austin Dobson's 'Proverbs in Porcelain' (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.). Mr. Dobson himself, it is fair to say, seems satisfied and pleased with Mr. Partridge's work, and if we feel that Abbey could have done it better, it is hard to say who else could.

The great album of 'The City of St. Louis and its Resources' (St. Louis: *Star-Sayings*) is an excellent specimen of a class of works familiar to the West. Its letterpress is exceptionally well written, and its numerous portraits of leading men in the various industries, trades, and professions afford material for an interesting study of American types. A few of these persons have a national reputation outside of trade circles, but in the main the biographical sketches deal with men of only local fame and importance, and their genealogical value is considerable. The typography and presswork are very creditable.

Readers of the *Bookman* must have been struck with a series of reminiscential papers running from its first number, of October, 1891, down to the present, and signed Φ. Mr. Francis Espinasse now fathers and collects them under the title, 'Literary Recollections and Sketches' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The Carlyles and their circle cut the largest figure in the volume. Mr. Espinasse is himself a Scotchman, notwithstanding his name, and, being one who neither grovels before Carlyle nor bellows at him, he contributes not a little to the better understanding of the Sage of Chelsea which has been reached since other hands than Mr. Froude's have been taking a turn at his portraiture.

A Life of Wagner, in about 15,000 words, by Edward Francis, has been added to Brentano's "Petite Library." It is prettily bound and small enough to be slipped into the vest pocket and read on a single trip on the elevated railway. It gives the principal facts of the composer's life in a sufficiently accurate manner (although we note a few small mistakes, especially on p. 98), and it contains at the end a useful list of Wagner's compositions, besides a full table of contents of his ten volumes of literary works.

Schopenhauer's principal work has been translated into English, but his 'Parerga' and other books still await a complete translation. That it will come in time is a matter of course. Schopenhauer is, as a French writer has said, not "a philosopher like others, but one who has seen the world." Pending the appearance of a complete translation, we must welcome the 'Essays of Schopenhauer,' by T. B. Saunders (A. L. Burt), a selection of the best chapters from the philosopher's various volumes. They are grouped by the translator under five heads—"The Wisdom of Life," "Counsels and Maxims," "Religion and Other Essays," "The Art of Literature," "Studies in Pessimism." The American edition is a cheaper reprint in one volume of the English edition in five small volumes, one of which is already in its third edition. To authors there is hardly anything in all literature more valuable and suggestive than the essays here reproduced "On Authorship," "On Style," "On Thinking for One's Self." In the translator's preface is pointed out, among other things, the affinity between Schopenhauer's pessimism and a fundamental tenet of Christian theology.

From the Scribners we have a new edition, abridged in one volume, of the Life of Jenny Lind by Holland and Rockstro. It is an interesting story in itself, and Jenny Lind was such a pure and lovable character that her career is one with which all young women interested in music and the stage should be familiar. In the chapter on Jenny Lind's method they will also find some useful practical hints.

E. Schuberth & Co. are the American agents for Donajowski's Miniature Scores of famous symphonies. They are the full orchestral scores, elegantly printed, in the convenient size of an ordinary book, and the price is extremely moderate.

After a long interval devoted to men of comparatively little importance, the series of "Les Artistes Célèbres" (Macmillan) again gives us a book dealing with a justly celebrated painter. Constant Troyon, if not an artist of the very first rank, yet holds a very high place in the second. Greater than Dupré and Diaz, if not so great as Millet, Corot, or Rousseau, he comes, with Daubigny, immediately after this trio, in the list of those who formed the splendid school of landscape and the open-air which is the glory of France, and which gives modern painting the right to be counted among the great developments of art in the world's history. If not very subtle or exquisite, his style is full, strong, and rich. His drawing of animal forms is not impeccable, but he got the essence of animal nature, and his beasts are much more living than those, for instance, of his cleverer pupil, Van Marcke. He had a strong sense of light and air, and great breadth and vigor of vision combined with a feeling for color, and his best work will always be admired and enjoyed. M. Hustin's account of his simple life is brief but adequate, and the lists of exhibitions and sales will prove valuable for reference. They are carried down to 1892. The illustrations are, as usual in this series, profuse, and some of them are much above the average of merit.

Max Simon's 'Swift: Étude Psychologique et Littéraire' (Paris: Baillière) is a contribution not so much to knowledge as to understanding. After a brief account of Swift's eccentricities, illustrated by the usual anecdotes, M. Simon analyzes the art of Swift as satirist and humorist, and his character as "le malade et l'homme." The temper of the author is perfect—catholic, humane, and sympathetic—and he knows his subject. The result is a charming essay, which can easily be read at a sitting, but which gives, we feel sure, a juster picture of the great dean than any that his biographers have succeeded in drawing. The criticism is clear-sighted and suggestive. Particularly noteworthy is the defence of the Yahoo episode in Gulliver—a defence which, whatever one may think of its validity, is not to be laughed or scolded out of court.

Hachette & Cie. have just published a new edition of M. Gustave Larroumet's 'Marivaux, sa vie et ses œuvres' which, in its original form of a thesis, formed a thick octavo volume. The book has been abridged, not rewritten, but the changes unquestionably make it more generally useful. M. Larroumet, in his original study of Marivaux as dramatist, novelist, moralist, and critic, had heaped up proof upon proof and quotation on quotation, giving extended analyses and summaries with the view, mainly, of replacing Marivaux in a higher position than he occupied at the time. He succeeded in doing so, and, in reissuing his admirable study of the eighteenth-century writer, he felt that much of this special pleading might now be safely and judiciously omitted. The book remains the best authority on Marivaux, from the critical point of view of the nineteenth century.

Mme. Hector Malot has written for "poets, lovers, and young people" a novel entitled 'Le Prince' (Paris: Flammarion), which is not immoral, it is true; which is intended to be a careful analytical study of two characters, husband and wife; which is undoubtedly meant to be fragrant with poesy and the charm of youth, and yet which is merely dull. The characters fail to interest, the dénouement is realistic in its way, but not very intelligible, and the style lacks vigor.

The "Chinese-Lantern Calendar," "A Calendar of Pets," with water-color designs by Maud Humphrey, "'The Playmates' Calendar," and "'Little Friends' Calendar," with like drawings by Elizabeth S. Tucker, come to us from Frederick A. Stokes Co. They share with the smaller 'All Around the Year' of Lee & Shepard the defect of subordinating the calendar proper to the decorations almost to the extent of illegibility.

Besides the section on drift deposits contributed by Prof. R. D. Salisbury to the annual report for 1892 of the State geologist of New Jersey—a valuable paper of general application, which we have already noticed—the report deals with Cretaceous and Tertiary formations, water-supply and water-power, artesian wells in the southern part of the State, and (with reference to the same region) the sea-dikes of the Netherlands and the reclamation of lowlands. A sample sheet of the colored map of surface geology in preparation by the Survey accompanies Mr. Wm. Bullock Clark's discussion of the clays, marls, and greensand of Monmouth and Middlesex counties in particular, from New Brunswick to Long Branch. Another map, of the entire State, illustrates the watersheds actually drawn upon for the supply of the northeastern cities, and also

those available for such supply. Mr. C. C. Vermeule's discussion of this important topic fits in with Prof. Smock's reiteration of the urgent need of parks and reservations for the recreation of a territory whose urban population exceeds 800,000 souls and is increasing with ominous rapidity. The Massachusetts example of a Metropolitan Park Commission is held up for emulation. Clearly, no time should be lost in appealing for enlightened legislation on this subject.

One of the latest numbers of the *Forschungen zur Deutschen Landes- und Volkskunde* is a study of the Island of Rügen, on the Baltic coast of Prussia, by Prof. Rudolf Credner of Greifswald. The island has for a long time attracted attention from the peculiar dislocations of its cretaceous strata with their cover of glacial drift. Credner concludes, after a minute examination of the district, that the dislocations were produced after an early pleistocene glacial advance, which left a sheet of drift over a series of horizontal strata; and that a later glacial invasion had a moderate effect in subduing the constructional forms that it encountered. Credner regards his results as strongly confirmatory of the complexity of the glacial period, inasmuch as, between the deposition of the older and newer drifts, there was time enough for a considerable dislocation and denudation of the surface. These *Forschungen* have now reached seven volumes, of from five to seven numbers each; it is announced that new subscribers for the whole series may secure the first five volumes at half price. The editor is Prof. Kirchhoff of Halle; the publisher, Engelhorn of Stuttgart.

A timely paper is M. Henri Duveyrier's account of a journey from Telemsan to Melilla, in the *Bulletin* of the Société de Géographie. On account of the disturbed condition of the country at the time, 1886, he was obliged to travel in the suite of the Shereef of Wazan, disguised as his physician. His route through Morocco followed so closely the Mediterranean shore that he was unable to add much of importance to our geographical knowledge of a region which has never been explored, and rarely, if ever, visited, by a European. The chief interest of the journey began with the country of the Guela'aya, the tribes who are now fighting the Spaniards. They are five in number, Guela'aya being a collective noun signifying fort people, "gens des forteresses," and could muster at that time about 6,200 men armed with needle-guns. They are skilful mechanics and gunsmiths, being able both to make and repair their weapons, as well as to manufacture powder and mould bullets. Though nominally Mahometans, their religion sits easily upon them. They are wine-drinkers and hemp-smokers, and slay a man with as little compunction as they would a rabbit. Melila, as M. Duveyrier insists the name should be spelt, not in the Spanish fashion, Melilla, was very like Malaga, only more "triste" and far less animated. During his stay in this place he was treated by the authorities almost as a prisoner of war, being regarded as a French spy, and was accordingly unable to make any excursions outside the city. Even had the Spaniards permitted this, it would have been impossible from the hostility of the natives to every foreigner. The Spaniards were at that time repairing the old fortifications, and were building a new wall, on which were mounted four enormous Krupp guns. Of these fortifications he writes somewhat contemptuously as impregnable so long as the assailants are only the Guela'aya.

Can a still, small voice be heard, in the midst of our athletic craze, suggesting that boys as well as girls ought to be thinking of "news of national interest," of the "work of Congress," of current "achievements in all lines of science," of literature, arts, and music, of "new lights on history," of "civil government object-lessons from the nation's capital," of "the march of human activity"? Such seems to be the optimistic view of the projectors of "a real newspaper for the young people of America," the *Pathfinder*, of which the first number will be issued January 6, 1894, at Washington. The scheme calls for a high degree of tact, judgment, and catholicity.

With the November-December number, completing its tenth year, the *Andover Review* suspends publication. The reasons assigned by the editors are the pressure of work, and, more conclusive, the settlement of the issues in which the magazine had its origin. With the "Andover Case" decided in the courts, and the "Noyes Case" in the American Board, and both in the way advocated by the *Review*, it may honorably retire from the field.

"F. E. M." sends us the following correction:

"In your review of 'Memoirs,' by Charles Godfrey Leland, in No. 1483, vol. 57, you say, in speaking of the comic journal *Vanity Fair*, that 'on the breaking out of the war this comic journal expired.' I think you will find that the last number of *Vanity Fair* (volume 7) was issued in July, 1863. The volume was not completed, but only a few numbers issued. Vol. i, No. 1, of this entertaining and witty journal was issued December 31, 1859, and during its comparatively short career it was edited by Frank Wood, Charles Godfrey Leland (some time in 1861), 'Artemus Ward,' and Charles Dawson Shanley, successively."

—The contents of the December *Atlantic* are marked by the conventionality into which all our monthly magazines of amusement and information are in danger of falling. All of the stories are in dialect, and the articles include two on birds and one (a long dissertation) on Japanese æsthetics. Fresher in interest are the letters of Thoreau to his typically English friend, Thomas Cholmondeley, Prof. Kittredge's defence of Chaucer's sense of dramatic propriety in the Pardoner's Tale, and Prof. Woodrow Wilson's attack on the contemptuous attitude of modern education towards "mere literature." In our colleges, Prof. Wilson maintains, "the delicate and subtle purposes of the study [of the essence or spirit of literature] are quite put out of countenance, and literature is commanded to assume the phrases and the methods of science"; science, too, sharply discriminates between the study of "mere literature," *i. e.*, literature proper, and linguistics, or, as Americans say loosely, philology. This charge is not unlike that of Prof. Stoddard, in a recent number of the *Educational Review*, to the effect that college students no longer care for literature. Both charges stand in need of positive proof; in each case the evil is very likely a local one. We doubt if at Harvard or at Columbia—to take as illustrations two somewhat dissimilar institutions about which accurate information is easily collected—there have at any time been a larger proportion of students or a more effective corps of teachers devoting themselves to the study of precisely what we are told is lacking in our colleges. There are signs, too, that the extraordinary prominence given to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in connection with the study of literature is everywhere subsiding, and that linguistics and literature, as ends in themselves, are yearly growing more distinct. It is to be hoped also that the Master's degree, with the opportunities it offers for broad literary culture, may steadily increase in favor.

—Directly in line with the reform which Prof. Wilson advocates, and which we think has already, to a great extent, taken place, is a dictum in another fragment from Lowell's papers published in the current number of the *Century* under the title of "The Five Indispensable Authors," *i. e.*, Homer, Dante, Cervantes, Goethe, and Shakspere. The fragment is in itself remarkable, and the very first sentence states with admirable compactness what both the writers referred to above probably had in mind. "The study of literature," it reads, "that it may be fruitful, that it may not result in a mere gathering of names and dates and phrases, must be a study of ideas and not of words, of periods rather than of men, or only of such men as are great enough or individual enough to reflect as much light upon their age as they in turn receive from it." To this ideal, we repeat, our better colleges have almost without exception held true. In the same number Mr. Cole begins a new series of engravings of the works of the Dutch masters, his first choice from which consists of five paintings of Rembrandt and one of Jan Steen. We have also the opening chapters of "Pudd'nhead Wilson," a new story of Missouri life by Mark Twain. Humorous, also, is an "open" letter from a gentleman who seriously proposes that football should be recognized as a part of the college curriculum.

—The chief articles in the Christmas *Harper's* are a description of the "Old Dominion" and one of the House of Commons. In the "Editor's Study" Mr. Warner propounds a curious dogma when he declares that in America the public is as directly responsible for poor literature as it is "for low and degrading theatrical performances or for sensational newspapers," or for a false monetary standard. If literature means the magazines, as Mr. Howells would have us believe, this statement might in a vague way be true. For periodical literature the public may be responsible, in the sense that, if we all stopped buying the magazines, they would probably no longer be published, and the money invested in them would be put into other enterprises. But even in such cases the fault of bad or mediocre literature lies, not at the door of the people at large, but at that of the managers, who, by an adroit balancing of the gains of advertising and the expenses of publication, can, if they choose, tempt a susceptible public with the wares which they cleverly guess will be popular.

—*Scribner's* prints the first half of a long article on Constantinople by Mr. Crawford, Mr. Marquand's account of his search for Della Robbia monuments in Italy, and an unpublished work by Sir Walter Scott. The last, as Mr. Lang's introduction explains, is a collection of letters supposed to have been written in the reign of James I., which Scott amused himself by concocting in 1821. Part of the material, acting on very sensible advice, he worked over into the 'Fortunes of Nigel.' In the "Point of View" a writer criticises, with some show of reason, the part of Mr. Howells's article on the man of letters as a man of business in which he asserts that the prosperity of the man of letters would be much greater if the "great literary periodicals" were entirely literary—that is, if they printed nothing but "pure literature," instead of diverging into divers other kinds of interesting and amusing matter. As the critic observes, scarcely enough literature

of the kind Mr. Howells desires could be got together to fill the fifty volumes, reckoning by ordinary standards, which the magazines in question publish every year.

—"L'Europe féodale: Les Croisades," being the second volume of Lavisse and Rambaud's 'Histoire générale du IVe siècle à nos jours' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.), follows hard upon the first, reminding us that serials no longer linger luxuriously through a century, appearing just often enough to keep their memories fresh in the families of subscribers, but are turned out as if by the rapidity and remorseless regularity of a steam lathe. The present volume, which deals with a most interesting period in European development, new and strange, but not lying (from dearth of contemporary documents) in the semi-darkness where true learning languishes and false grows wanton, impresses the reader, like its predecessor, by the neatness of its workmanship and the thorough control of the editors. These men know how to make a good book, and that is a gift rarer even than good scholarship. It is significant that English names and titles, commonly the greatest stumbling-block to French —compositors, let us say, are given in the bibliographical lists with accuracy. Moreover, the lists are well up to date: Green's 'Short History,' for instance, is quoted in the illustrated edition now appearing. The influence of the editors does not stop at form: the book is not only written to scale, but its authors have worked from one point of view, with one aim. It is human character, modified by and modifying historical progression, that attracts all these writers. One-fourth of the book, and that the most attractive portion, is devoted to subjects which directly touch the condition of the people—the feudal system (M. Seignobos), the origin and characteristics of cities, the growth of commerce and industry (MM. Giry and Réville), the state of religion, morality, arts, and sciences (M. Langlois); while the chapters dealing with political and ecclesiastical history take frequent note of social changes. The history of all European countries and of Asia is brought down to the close of the thirteenth century. M. Ch. Seignobos, who writes the chapter on the Crusades, thinks that the fashion of attributing to their influence, direct or indirect, most of the changes taking place in Europe from the eleventh to the thirteenth century is ill-founded.

—An appeal has been issued in England and America on behalf of the Asia Minor Exploration Fund. It is addressed to all interested in the history, antiquities, and geography of Asia Minor. The results obtained during the last twelve years are familiar as embodied in Prof. W. Ramsay's 'Church in the Roman Empire' and in his 'Historical Geography of Asia Minor,' as well as in the acknowledgments made by Prof. Kiepert in publishing his new map of Asia Minor. The recent report by Messrs. Hogarth and Munro on 'Modern and Ancient Roads in Eastern Asia Minor,' articles well known to scholars in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique*, the *Ephemeris Epigraphica*, and various supplements to the Latin *Corpus Inscriptionum* published at Berlin, are all of them indications of the kind of work hitherto done and still remaining undone. If a sufficient sum is raised, it is proposed that Prof. Ramsay and Mr. Hogarth should resume the work of exploration in 1894. First there is the unexplored field of the Euphrates valley, where there are doubtless early monuments, as well as plentiful remains of the Roman frontier defences. Towards investigations in Eastern Cappadocia, the Royal Geographical Society has already made a liberal grant. A reëxamination of certain Phrygian districts is also proposed with a view to complete the data for Prof. Ramsay's 'Inland Provinces of Asia Minor.' Furthermore, the Asia Minor Exploration Fund, if the proper support is forthcoming, proposes excavations which, it must be remembered, have rarely been made in Asia Minor. There have been none excepting on the western coast, and not many sites there have been touched. Lystra would be the first site undertaken. Here was the temple of Jupiter, "before the walls," where worship was offered to Paul and Barnabas. Both Lystra and Derbe, an adjacent site, have been satisfactorily identified; they are uninhabited, and thus more promising and less expensive than Antioch or Iconium. In northwestern Cappadocia, at a place called Eyuk, sculptured slabs can be seen protruding from a mound of débris; here would be a second site, and one interesting for the study of the pre-Hellenic period. Tyana is a third place, with its "Semiramis" mound known to Strabo, and with a large surrounding tract which certainly would yield remains of all periods since. Tyana was one of the most interesting centres of religion and government in Asia Minor. To carry out all these explorations $10,000 would be necessary, but $3,700 would cover the Euphrates plan of work, the investigations in Phrygia and excavations at Lystra. Donations may be sent to the Hon. Sec., G. A. Macmillan, Esq., in care of Macmillan & Co., 66 Fifth Avenue, N. Y.

—In view of the proposal several times made to transplant the entire population of Iceland to one of our Western States, a recent Danish account of the extent of the dread disease of leprosy in that country has a special significance for American readers. While leprosy was introduced into both Denmark and Norway, and from the latter into Iceland, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, it died out (in the first) four hundred years later. Norway has three leprosy hospitals, all in Bergen, where the disease is carefully studied by specialists, to relieve the sufferers, and to prevent its further spread. In Iceland no scientific treatment is pursued, and the returns made by the pastors of the different parishes, as a result of personal inquiries only, must be regarded as extremely doubtful and incomplete. These show 128 cases in 1837, 66 in 1847, and 43 in 1872. An attempt is soon to be made, however, to obtain reliable statistics on the subject, a Danish physician, Dr. Ed. Ehlers, having already begun to make preparations to spend next summer in Iceland in order to ascertain the exact condition of the disease there as regards its extent and character. If his anticipations as to its actual extent are realized, the Icelandic transportation scheme will receive a considerable damper.

## THE GREEK HORSE.

*The Art of Horsemanship, by Xenophon.* Translated, with chapters on the Greek riding-horse and with notes, by Morris H. Morgan, Ph.D. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1893.

PROF. MORGAN has ingeniously made his book acceptable to widely different classes of readers. He has adorned the treatise of Xenophon with some choice and well-executed illustrations from the antique, adding notes and observations of his own on the Greek horse and the ancient ideal of the horse. Many readers are connoisseurs in the horse who are not connoisseurs in the Greek of Xenophon; and, in fact, this treatise is so sensible, and based on so thorough and sympathetic an acquaintance with the animal it treats of, that it still commands the respect of experts in its main features. No one who looks into the history of horsemanship can afford to neglect it.

Prof. Morgan's commentary and notes will, on the whole, bear the critical eye of horsemen, as his rendering will in general commend itself to the scholar. He notices, among other interesting facts, that the type of horse described by Xenophon corresponds very closely with that which is represented on the Elgin marbles. This is a cobby but spirited and corky creature, with a light and somewhat peculiar carriage of the head and neck. "It is thought by some," says Prof. Morgan, "that Xenophon based his description on these very reliefs, and it is of course possible that they may have served as a sort of guide to his words." Even among these, there are many differences in point of execution; some have faults when judged by Xenophon's canon, and only a few approach perfection. It must be remembered, however, that we have here the handiwork of craftsmen and not of Phidias himself. Prof. Morgan concludes that the horse has been more perfectly represented in modern art than in antiquity; but he warns us that, in this line, no complete work is left of Phidias, and not a trace of the legendary perfections of the painters Micon and Apelles.

The Greek horse was generally smaller than ours and not so tall, yet not so small, proportionately to the rider, as we should infer from the representations of the Parthenon frieze. Here the men are as tall as the horses, or even taller; but this appearance is due to the convention, called *isokephalismos* (misprinted on page 96), which required that in the frieze the heads of the figures should be nearly on a level. The legs of the riders also dangle some distance below the bellies of the horses; but this effect, again, is partly owing to the fact that they could be seen only from some distance below, and that the effect of perspective would alter their apparent length. Making all allowances, however, the evidence of the various works of art proves that the Greek horse was an undersized animal compared with ours, and this evidence is strikingly reinforced by Xenophon's direction, in mounting, "to lay hold of the mane *about the ears*." The size and height, of course, varied, and there is some evidence on Thessalian and Macedonian coins that the breed of these countries was larger than elsewhere. To the Thessalian breed belonged Bucephalas, noted for his size, whose biography is here fully detailed, and whose type, a favorite one in antiquity, is represented in the frontispiece.

As to the ever burning question of clipping manes and tails, Prof. Morgan has a learned dissertation which shows that the practice probably varied, and was more or less a matter of fashion at different periods. Xenophon does not approve of the practice, giving the same pious reasons for his opinion which are generally advanced now by old-fashioned horsemen. The fact that horses' manes were shorn on occasions of mourning (as on the deaths of Pelopidas and Hephæstion) proves, so far, that it was the fashion to retain them in their natural condition. The testimony of works of art might be thought to prove the opposite, for many of these repre-

sentations show us the mane "hogged." But here again the testimony is conflicting, for many vases and friezes show the mane in its natural condition, and, on the Parthenon frieze, only thirty horses out of a hundred have the mane hogged. This may therefore have been, as Mr. Morgan suggests, an old fashion which was just going out in the time of Xenophon.

The notorious temper of Bucephalas was not altogether exceptional. In this matter it is evident that the Greek horse was seldom what our jockeys call "kind." A great many passages prove this incidentally. Xenophon recommends the use of the muzzle regularly when the horse is led out for exercise or for a roll in the sand, and he gives many directions to the groom as to how he may avoid being kicked and bitten in the stable. In battle, too, the horseman is sometimes whimsically spoken of as an object of pity, "being in danger from his horse as well as from the enemy." This shows clearly enough that there was not that comradeship which now exists between the cavalryman and his steed. Generally speaking, the Greek rider did not regard his beast as a friend. This was partly owing to the less humane spirit of the period, partly, perhaps, to the change that has been since wrought by the continued domestication of the horse. No professional, however, could take exception to Xenophon's precepts for managing the horse, which are remarkably enlightened and modern, and may be summed up as follows: Always keep your temper, try to understand your animal, and reward his obedience with kindness. As to winning his affection for its own sake, this is a counsel of perfection more suited to a treatise on ethics than on horsemanship, and to this height Xenophon does not attain. Indeed, it would not always be easy to attain, as stallions were often used in the cavalry. Moreover, the Greeks did not ride for pleasure, as we do; the horse was associated in their minds with the notion of battle and the contests of the hippodrome, and Mr. Morgan suggests that this may be the reason why there was no love lost between horse and rider. Yet, even in battle and in racing, a mutual good understanding is so desirable that it must have existed to some extent. Pindar mentions with pride the victorious "Pherenicus" who ran without whip or goad; and Cimon's famous team of four mares which won the prize for three successive Olympiads, and were the means of restoring their owner from banishment, must have been well and skilfully tended for many years before they received honorable burial not far from their master's tomb.

We find the translation, generally speaking, as transparent as the original, following it with that closeness which the careful scholar is apt to prefer. When it is not transparent, the original is usually to blame. For example, Xenophon's cautions to the buyer of a horse run as follows (p. 24): "The exercise called the volte shows up a hard mouth, and even more the practice of changing the direction. Many horses do not try to run away unless the mouth is hard on the same side with the road for a bolt towards home." This last sentence is rather a hard saying. The excuse for it is the obscurity of the original. We should suggest "unless the homeward way lies on the hard side of the mouth." In the preceding sentence, Xenophon is evidently talking not only of a hard mouth but of an *uneven* mouth, which is the meaning of ἑτερόγναθος. Mr. Morgan explains in his note: "He seems to mean that if, for example, the stable lies to the right, the horse will throw his head to the left, and, advancing his right shoulder, will make a bolt for it. The left rein being loose and the right side of the mouth hard, the rider will have no control over the animal." This explanation is confirmed by the experience of horsemen, and is undoubtedly correct. The following passage is awkward for a different cause: "But you must beware of horses that are naturally shy. The over-timid let no harm come to the ene my from off their backs, and they often throw the rider and bring him into the greatest danger." But here the perplexity arises from the translator's following too closely the Greek idiom, and neglecting those humble particles μέν and δέ. The sense is, "The over-timid horse not only hinders his rider from harming the enemy with his weapons, but often throws him," etc. In a few cases, Mr. Morgan forgets that the strait-laced English requires a statement or a contrast to be definitely expressed, which the Greek simply suggests to the listener or reader. But these rare slips proceed from a failing that leans to virtue's side—the overscrupulousness of the conscientious translator.

The illustrations are selected with great care, rather for the sake of explaining points in Xenophon's treatise than simply for their beauty. They are drawn from the best sources and are exceedingly well executed and faithful to the originals, surpassing, as we can testify, the photographs ordinarily procurable of the same subjects. In this matter, Mr. Morgan is at his strongest, and his special studies in Greek art and antiquities make his remarks on the illustrations particularly valuable and interesting. On the whole, while gracefully disclaiming any originality for his work, he can hardly disguise the fact that he has stored away in it the results of much careful research, without making erudition a burden to his reader. Some points in his interpretation are new and will commend themselves to the judgment of experts. He has produced a compact little volume of about 200 pages, which, while wearing a certain daintiness of holiday attire, deserves to be treasured on the shelves of the connoisseur in horsemanship, or of the amateur in Greek art and literature.

## CABOTIANA.

*John and Sebastian Cabot:* Biographical Notice, with Documents. By Francesco Tarducci. Translated from the Italian by Henry F. Brownson. Detroit: H. F. Brownson. 1893. 8vo, pp. 412.

We are bound to experience a reactionary fervor, following upon the inordinate warmth sometimes used of late in sounding the glories which humanity has reaped from the exploits of Columbus and the Spaniards. We are doubtless to have a flood of discussion next year (1894) on the date of Cabot's discovery, as starting English and Protestant influences on the current of events in American history. Those who believe with Davezac and Tarducci in the year 1494 as being that fateful epoch, and those who are in the majority and find more evidence to make it 1497, will have their tilts. But there are questions more vital. There are those who, like Mr. Clements R. Markham, deem it essential, in defending the fame of Columbus, to make him the discoverer not only of San Salvador, but also of the mainland, and who contend that Cabot, on his first voyage, saw only an island, and not the continent of North America. Warmer still will be the discussion, started already with trenchant vigor by Mr. Charles Francis Adams—to name no others—whether the planting of Spanish Catholics in middle America was at all comparable in gain to humanity to the beginning of English and Protestant influence, which followed upon the doughty indifference of Henry VII. to the papal bull of demarcation. Even such writers as the present translator of Tarducci feel bound to say that "the world is better, nobler, happier for the discovery made by Cabot," and to ask, "Has any real benefit to mankind resulted from the lands south of us?" It is curious, however, to find Mr. Brownson discriminating between the influences that surrounded Columbus and the reflected character of that personage, when he speaks of the horrors of the early rule of the Spaniards at the South, as resulting "against Columbus's will and in spite of all he could do to prevent it." We might expect such a sentence from a blinded enthusiast, Roselly de Lorgues; but it is hardly creditable to one who would translate and edit a book like Tarducci's. Indeed, Mr. Brownson, in his failure to comment upon palpable slips of his Italian original, does not show that he is master of the details of this kind of study.

The orators who are bound to talk about the Cabotian discovery and make the most of their opportunity in contrasting influences at work in the fifteenth century and their outcome, will find that they can study, if they will, a plenty of critical material for their theme. They must remember that the best elucidations are quite recent ones, and not imitate the Oxfordian Payne, who, the other day, in his 'New World Called America,' showed himself so content with Hakluyt that he had never learned that there were two Cabot voyages. If these orators use the book now before us, they will find much at their service; but they will need to discover that neither Tarducci nor his editor knows all the results of late inquiries. Even Biddle must be corrected by the investigations of Charles Deane and of Harrisse, and, moreover, the correctors themselves must be placed in parallel columns. Mr. Markham, in his last work on the subject, in a recent volume published by the Hakluyt Society, found it essential to remember Mr. Deane's services, which neither Tarducci nor his editors seem to have heard of; nor does the Italian writer know, apparently, what the late Dr. J. G. Kohl accomplished except as a few excerpts from his work are quoted by Harrisse.

Students in this field not infrequently have occasion to notice a certain lack of knowledge in Italian writers of what has been done beyond the Alps, and it is perhaps owing in some measure to the deficiency of Italian libraries, particularly in English and American books. Nor are Italian writers quite possessed of the intuition which comes from close acquaintance to enable them to weigh justly these writers of other tongues. One sees this in Tarducci at times, as for instance when Gravier becomes a gospel to him in matters which you could hardly trust a Norman to be sane upon.

Upon two points respecting the great Cabot map Tarducci has opinions about which there is an abundance of controversial writing. One of these is accepting the date of 1494 for the discovery of Cabot, as against 1497, in which he puts himself down in favor of the earlier date and among the minority of critical scholars. The other point is his acceptance of the legend on the map as placing the landfall at Cape Breton Island, in which he is supported by Deane (not so decidedly, however, as by Markham), while Harrisse argues that the legend is fraudulent, and intended to bar the claims of Cartier for the first discovery of the regions about the St. Lawrence Gulf. The dubious character of the map is recognized both

by Deane and by Harrisse; but Tarducci does not seem to comprehend the points of doubt raised by those critics.

Another important question in which there is a contrariety of opinion is as to the personal character of Sebastian Cabot, and the fact of his participation in the discoveries of his father, John Cabot. Biddle made a hero of Sebastian and minimized the part played by the elder Cabot. Henry Stevens, in his quaint way, subtracted the father from the son and left nothing. Harrisse, strange to say, starting in the Stevens grooves—which he is not often inclined to follow—has made Sebastian a scamp, and Markham now tells us that Sebastian was not on the first voyage at all. Tarducci is a pretty good champion for the maligned son. With some of the various mooted questions involved in the career of Sebastian Cabot, Tarducci has done well, and he is somewhat frisky at times when he crosses lances with Harrisse. We may certainly thank him for full references and for printing many of the contemporary documents, or the essential parts of them, and the translator enables us to read them all in English.

The book will reach a revised edition, we have little doubt, and the editor will then have an opportunity to correct the various palpable errors of Tarducci. Why, for instance, should anybody repeat the often-expressed statement that no one at Columbus's death supposed the explorer had reached other than the coast of Asia, in the face of Peter Martyr's asseveration of doubt and the unbelief which appears in some of the contemporary maps? When shall we hear the last of that other statement, that La Cosa drew an uninterrupted coast line from Labrador to South America, when he studiously dodged the question of that continuity by interposing a vignette? It is this blind repetition of stock but unfounded statements that is so annoying to a student, and hardly less disagreeable is the commingling of forms of names, as when the editor of Tarducci eschews Amerigo and italianizes the Latin Americus in "Americo Vespucci."

## CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—III.

Since the tales of Weems, many attempts have been made to make the life of Washington interesting to young readers, but without success. The most recent experiment is embodied in 'The Story of Washington,' by Elizabeth Eggleston Seelye, edited by Edward Eggleston, and illustrated by Allegra Eggleston (Appletons). The compiler has followed closely the writings of Washington, and lightened them by a liberal use of tradition and camp gossip, without lending interest to them, while introducing an element that cannot be gauged by, and in fact is often opposed to, historical evidence. The "story" is a bald narrative of the Revolution, and not a study of Washington, and is pitched in that doubtful key—neither major nor minor—which appeals to neither young nor old. Still, it may serve a purpose.

In Hezekiah Butterworth's 'The Boys of Greenway Court' (Appletons) a story is told of one Harry Mendell, who remained through life under suspicion of telling a lie, but was finally exonerated. Washington was one of the boys at the Court, and his youthful adventures are related in his own and Weems's words. There was material here for a story of historical character—Lord Fairfax, Virginia life in the last century, Washington's surveys and mission to the French fort, negro superstition, Morgan's ride, and a number of other incidents, and Mr. Butterworth has fashioned a tale of some interest. It will, however, not excite curiosity in the reader: it is not history, it is not Virginia, it is not Washington. Any names could be substituted for those of Washington, Lord Fairfax, and Rouzé, and would do as well.

The scene of 'Doing and Daring' (T. Nelson & Sons), by Eleanor Stredder, is laid in the geyser country of New Zealand. An English settler arrives with his four children just on the eve of the terrible volcanic eruption of 1886. Their adventures and hair-breadth escapes form the theme of an entertaining story, which is, however, somewhat overloaded with incidents and at times is hard to follow. There are striking descriptions of the rain of mud and the widespread ruin caused by it, as well as of the efforts of the rescuers of the entombed. The account of the Maoris and their peculiar customs is the least satisfactory part of the book. The principal characters are two boys, the English Edwin and the Maori Whero, who are represented as manly, self-sacrificing, capable lads.

The adventures of Kate Douglas Wiggin's newest heroine ('Polly Oliver's Problem: A Story for Girls,' Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) can hardly fail of the sympathy, not only of younger, but even of older readers, who will be apt to fancy, rightly or wrongly, they detect in them an autobiographical ring. Polly Oliver, portrait or fancy sketch as the case may be, after trials and sorrows of an intimately personal nature, makes a successful venture into a hitherto unexplored tract of activity suited to young ladies endowed with fine imagination, a little skill in music, and a pleasing personality. She is sent, in the first place, by a benevolent lady to tell tales two hours each day in the orphan asylums and Children's Hospital in San Francisco, at a salary of twenty-five dollars a month. The success of this venture is so pronounced that she presently invents the plan of telling stories, illustrated kindergarten fashion, by song and drawing, in a private house to groups of children of wealthy parents, at a charge to each child of five dollars for twenty hours. The details of the plan are all so carefully drawn out that any young girl who chooses to consult the volume may find even the toilets appropriate to the private-house story hours sketched with a *modiste's* skill. As a further development of this pretty scheme, a class for child's-nurses is also hinted at, and visions are thereby evoked of the happy future awaiting infant minds when they have been freed from the terrifying or drivelling inventions of the unaided nursery-maid. There are also some hints for ways of becoming what the charity organization societies put down as "benevolent individuals," such, for instance, as "buying up splendid old trees in the outskirts of certain New England country towns—trees that were in danger of being cut down for wood," or putting stamps on the unstamped letters displayed in post-offices and "sending them spinning on their way." There is undoubted suggestiveness in all this, and to remark that judgment is a necessary ballast to suggestion, is merely to fall into a truism never fresher in the mind than in these days of profuse grafting of the old stock; and since it is so much easier to sit in judgment on all ideas than to suggest a new one of even the smallest value, thanks must always be due to the one who can see her way to the ounce of practicability in the hundredweight of objection.

*The Century Gallery:* Selected Proofs from the *Century Magazine* and *St. Nicholas.* The Century Co. 1893.

This publication is in the form of a portfolio. It contains sixty-four prints on paper of a warm tint, with broad margins, favorable to a display of the artistic quality of the work beyond the possibilities of the original publications, with their limited space and necessity for rapid production. Two of the pictures are from "half-tone" plates, and two from zinc etchings after pen-and-ink drawings; the remainder are from wood-engravings, which range in merit from high to the highest. A merely casual view of this remainder awakens a feeling of gratitude that the art of wood-engraving is still practised somewhere. That it has been given sufficient encouragement to maintain the high standard here shown is a most creditable exhibition of liberality on the part of the publishers, when one considers the patient endurance of the public, and the number of cheap makeshifts which might have been used to effect a saving in cost.

Mr. Timothy Cole, although not first on the list, assumes the place of prime importance on account of the number and standing of his subjects. There are nine of these, mostly after works of great masters. As specimens of engraving they display Mr. Cole's conscientious application of his best ability on all occasions. His utter mastery of his means is particularly brought out in the rendering of the "Madonna and Child" after Botticelli; but he reaches his highest attainment in "The Madonna of the Goldfinch," after Raphael. Here is pure line engraving; no help is derived from the white cross-hatch of the wood-engraver, but delicate graduations in sky tones, drawing of draperies, luminosity of flesh, to the expression of the Madonna's sweet, pensive face, are all reached through the medium of a black line as firm and simple as though engraved on copper, yet with a result much more grateful. Mr. Elbridge Kingsley has four subjects: "Twilight," after Rousseau; "The Setting Sun," after Daubigny; "The Wood-Gatherers," after Corot; and "Under the Greenwood," after Inness. His engraving is in very close sympathy with the views of nature here presented, and it is entirely his own, never suggesting the influence of any other person or school. Mr. J. H. E. Whitney also is represented by four subjects, of characteristic excellence. A female head after Maynard, entitled "Daphne," is very strong in its color relations and the variety of textures suggested; in the "Augustus St. Gaudens," after a painting by Kenyon Cox, the skilful drawing and the color of the original are well kept; and the nicely sustained tremor in the line of the silvery gray tints conveys a pleasure aside from that received from the subject. The same may also be said of the St. Gaudens bas-relief portrait of children, after a drawing by Kenyon Cox; the print is a veritable bas-relief with a beautiful line added, to wonder at and delight in.

Of Thomas Johnson's four subjects the "Head of a Man," after Rembrandt, is very striking, partly by virtue of the subject; but this engraver's feeling for drawing, and differentiation of textures, and manner in which he uses Bewick's white-line in picking out drawing and vivid chiaroscuro, are very painterish. Mr. Henry Wolf, one of the most painstaking and faithful of our engravers, is here represented by five subjects, all of considerable importance. Mr. Frank French has three subjects. In the first of these, "In the Beech Woods," the thoughtful English technique of

Mr. Alfred Parsons is well preserved. Apprehension of the artist's view is the crowning characteristic of Mr. French's work. To see this fully, we have but to pass to the "Izaak Walton," after G. H. Boughton. Sympathetically the treatment has changed its expression to suit the flowery mead wherein good Izaak stands and displays his speckled trophies to two milkmaids. The fluent line so well suited to the rendering of the Parsons is now exchanged for a crisp, free white-line, alive with every suggestion of the lush growth of damp meadows. The entire picture is seriously and studiously treated, but this field of spatterdocks and daisies is delicious. There are five subjects of Mr. William B. Closson's, the best of which are "Sheep Shearers," after Millet, and "The Turkey Pasture," after George Fuller.

Frederick Juengling has a print from "Able to Take Care of Himself," an independent boot-black, after a drawing by William M. Chase. One might almost take it for an engraving by Linton, because of its free use of "pure line." That the subject is not in Juengling's most characteristic manner, may be admitted. Mr. Gustav Kruell has gracefully accepted the mantle of Linton's free line, and with him that Nestor of xylography has no quarrel, for when, in his 'Masters of Wood Engraving,' he takes occasion to belabor the "American development," he puts Kruell out of harm's way by mentioning the fact that he is a German. Now Juengling, a most important figure in that development, was also a German; yet he was severely criticised by Mr. Linton, and in truth the development referred to is mostly American in the sense of its having taken place under American conditions, which seemed to favor it. But above all, an examination of the work of Juengling, Johnson, and Kruell will abundantly show to what an extent the teaching of Mr. Linton's own graver is responsible for a progress in art which he censures. The print by which Kruell is here represented is after a subject by E. H. Blashfield, entitled "His Lordship's Bedtime," in which the influence of his protagonist is very discernible.

Mr. F. S. King has given a very sympathetic rendering of Mrs. Mary Hallock Foote's drawing, called "Looking for Camp," a scene in the Far West, with its hills of solitude and far-away sky. No engraver could have transferred more of the spirit of the original into print than Mr. King has done. In his one other subject, "The Eugénie Verdier Rose," after a photograph from nature, he shows fruitful invention and great skill in manipulation. Mr. Robert Collins has the "Ponte Vecchio, Florence," an exquisite translation into wood-engraving of an etching by Pennell. It is a good lesson in the scope of the art of wood-engraving itself, which speaks in the language of every graphic art. To all but the technical etcher this print conveys the free quality of etching with the added charm of reduction. Mr. Wm. Morse's masterly facility is shown in "St. Paul's from Fleet Street," after Pennell.

We cannot particularize further. There are twenty names in this list, which includes a large proportion of the engravers through whose efforts American wood-engraving has reached its proud eminence, and of whom three, Messrs. Juengling, Morse, and Whitney, are no longer with us. In regard to the printing, comparison may be very favorably made with that of the hand-press artist's-proof. Several of the prints are produced in colored ink, and yet others with a tint, doubtless with a view to avoiding monotony; but it can hardly be maintained that they have benefited by this treatment.

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*Noah Porter:* A Memorial by Friends. Edited by George S. Merriam. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

It would be a misfortune if this collection of friendly sketches and appreciations should stand in the way of such a biography of Dr. Porter as could easily be written by one skilful in this kind of work. The Rev. Edward A. Smith gives a very pleasant impression of Dr. Porter's manner as a lecturer on theology, its modesty and reserve, so far removed from the dogmatism of the past to which by his affections he was ever closely bound. This was much better calculated to make his pupils think than to impose on them any body of opinion. It is evident that he put forth much more of his strength in the easy conversational talk of his library, where he met his pupils, than in his more formal discourse as a speaker and lecturer or in his books. Mr. Merriam adds at this point some interesting reminiscences. Dr. Porter's doctrine of endless punishment was, like his college discipline, "a rigid code with very mild enforcement." "In short, he maintained that there was everlasting punishment, while he allowed exemption so wide that practically almost every one would escape!" When a pupil asked him, "Suppose a man born so and so, circumstanced so and so, acting thus and thus, how can it be just that he should be subjected to everlasting punishment?" As to each case the answer was promptly given: "Such a man would doubtless not incur the penalty." And when another pupil asked him, "How are we to regard the spiritual prospects of a man like Ralph Waldo Emerson?" Dr. Porter answered, "The Scripture tells us that in every nation he that feareth God and worketh righteousness is accepted with him. I suppose that holds good even in Concord, Mass." He was always more liberal in his practical and personal constructions than in his formal theology. He could be very friendly with the heretics whom he joyed to meet in battle—with Theodore Parker, for example, whose last letter to him is full of tenderness. The date given is July 15, 1859. Evidently from the connection this should be January 15, a few days before Parker left Boston for the West Indies, whence he went to Europe never to return.

Miss Sarah Porter writes all too briefly of her brother's ancestry and youth. Born December 14, 1811, in Farmington, Conn., a place whose habits answered to its name, he had a fair share of industrial education, and his face never outgrew the New England farmer look. Entering Yale in his sixteenth year, he was the smallest and brightest scholar in his class. In the Divinity School he fell in love not only with Dr. Taylor's modified Calvinism—we were damned as much as ever, but not for Adam's sin—but also with his daughter, who came in time to be a grievous invalid, but was always the intellectual and moral companion of his deepest life. The story of his first pastorate at New Milford, Conn., is told in his own words, and they have no special interest except for his adroit avoidance of slavery as a question about which good men might differ and which might therefore be let alone. Like the Boston Unitarian clergyman who waited for God to "turn abolitionist," and was then duly rewarded by a place on the Republican electoral ticket, he was late in coming to the field. He was neither an abolitionist nor a Freesoiler, but joined the Republican party on the eve of victory, and it is written to his credit that the Independents never took him in their snare.

From New Milford he went for a few years to Springfield, Mass.—an important change if for no other reason than that it initiated his connection with the Merriams and opened the way to his editorial work on Webster's 'Dictionary,' through which he probably exerted his most important influence on the culture of his countrymen. His work began with the edition of 1847, and he supervised the great final revision of the 'Dictionary,' and was its salaried editor until his death. In 1846 he went back to New Haven as Clark Professor of Moral Philosophy and Metaphysics. Mr. Merriam's account of this phase of Dr. Porter's life is interesting not only for its bearing on the Doctor's own work, but also for its suggestions of what Yale College was about fifty years ago, when the senior year was spent in happy leisure for the most part, with a single eye to the commencement exercises at the year's end. Dr. Porter was every student's friend. "His manner was like an elder brother's." He found the college professors given over to hearing recitations, and to his conservative temper the need of change did not occur, but it was a method for which he was particularly unfit. He waited so patiently for the answer, he tried so hard to help the stupid and delinquent out, that he had little time for his own exposition. His students were not often strong in study or in recitation. When Dr. McCosh visited his classroom, he said to him afterwards, "Why, Dr. Porter, half the men had their books open behind the seats!" "Oh, well," was the answer, "I am glad to get them to open their books on any terms!" As theological professor he first let the students hear him and then solicited questions, without first fortifying himself from his tobacco-box, as Dr. Taylor had invariably done at this juncture. He was already sixty when, in 1871, he entered on the presidency of the college. His management was eminently conservative, made so less by his distrust of new things than by his optimistic and affectionate attachment to the old. The proposition to change the name of Yale College to Yale University aroused his eager indignation.

Prof. Duncan's outline of Dr. Porter's philosophical system is careful and instructive. The latter was as much opposed to metaphysics as a means of psychological inquiry as Locke or Mill, but equally averse to physiology, save as a kind of foil, a reminder of the absolute incommensurableness of psychological and physiological data. The review of Dr. Porter's ethical system has a special attraction as the work of his pupil, Dr. Rikizo Nakashima, now professor in the University of Tokyo. The substance of his ethical doctrine was that man's cognitive and emotional and voluntary powers are concerned in every moral action, and that there is no special moral faculty to legislate or execute the edicts of morality. But, better than any of these things, and more expressive of Dr. Porter's influence on those who knew him as a teacher or a friend, are the pages which reflect the more personal aspects of his life. The abstractness of his studies took nothing from his humanity, which was ever warm and bright. His personal relations were full of homely pleasantness. Mr. Dean Sage and Rev. J. H. Twichell describe his Adirondack days, and they were not vitiated by Emerson's surprising and uncanny eagerness to kill a deer. He made friends among all sorts and conditions of men, all schools of thought and forms of creed. Dr. Holmes

could write to him of Calvin as "the Genevan turnspit" and be certain of his smile. If he was slow to give up old methods and beliefs, he was eager for new light. He made his own the saying of Clerk Maxwell, "I assert the Right of Trespass on any plot of Holy Ground which any man has set apart to the power of darkness." Fundamentally he was as much a rationalist as Jonathan Edwards or Theodore Parker—a strange but not unwarrantable conjunction of great names.

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*A Wild-Sheep Chase:* Notes of a Little Philosophic Journey in Corsica. Translated from the French of Émile Bergerat. Macmillan & Co.

Not a few books, in the translator's hands, get out of their own language but never get into any other; they remain there in a mysterious sort of neutral region, suspended, like Mahomet's coffin, between heaven and earth. M. Bergerat's journey, instead of being "little philosophic," was superabundantly philosophic, in his fashion, so that he may not even care very much about the naïve over-literalisms, as above, that reverse the meaning of his title and aim to blunt his witticisms—aim but do not always succeed, for his points are generally good tangible ones, the humor is often in situations rather than witticisms proper, and, with one language or the other, we understand him. Émile Bergerat belongs with Aurélien Scholl and the rest in that set of out-and-out *boulevardiers* who conceive it their mission to keep alive the old sceptical, devil may-care Gallic gayety; they must continue in popular form the irony of Rabelais and Voltaire, and what Maupassant calls "the prodigious laughter of Molière." Their occupation would seem to be to go everywhere in Paris and have an exceedingly good time, to bring out occasionally a little theatrical piece—Bergerat has produced his at all the theatres, from the Comédie-Française to the Théâtre Libre—to fight an occasional duel, to chat for hours at the more luxurious boulevard cafés, and then to go off and write up a sprightly chronique about it all for some newspaper. They succeed best apparently when they have least to say. This type of man being borne in mind, the character of the new book may be understood without going largely into details. It is the *chroniqueur* gone to Corsica, and he laughs and makes skits about the things there that are unlike his boulevard.

He is evidently a good fellow, and good fellows are in demand. Prince Roland Bonaparte asked him to join him in a little trip to Corsica, and he did so. They had, besides, the Prince's librarian, his secretary, and a photographer It will be remembered that Prince Roland is one of the later scions of his great name, who married a daughter of the proprietor of the Casino of Monte Carlo. The Prince of Monaco devotes himself quite seriously to deep-sea dredging; this other magnate of the roulette dynasty does not go quite so far as that, but it is pleasant to see that he abates the enormity of his ill-gotten millions a trifle at least by taking an interest in 'Colomba.' We are assured that Merimée's charming story was the motive-power of his journey. He went to Corsica, not to revisit the homes of his ancestors—though of course, incidentally, he did that too—but to see how the island had progressed since the time of 'Colomba.' The author, truthfully enough in the main, sums up the result of the inquiry in this way (it is a good example of his lively style of putting things): "Corsica, since the time of 'Colomba,' has progressed as far as—'Colomba.'"

It must not be forgotten that they put their guns on their shoulders, too, and went more or less in search of the moufflon. But this chase for the all but apocryphal animal, about which it is a controversy whether he be not quite as much of a wild goat as a wild sheep, was only a facetious one. They never saw him, but what matters your moufflon, they say, so long as you have the chasing of him? M. Bergerat thought the Government did not really want to abolish the vendetta, "because this romantic nonsense attracts travellers to the island, and consequently brings capital." His own tone towards the gentry outlawed on account of these unpleasant affairs is even more liberal. He would speak of a certain district not as infested by bandits, but as infested rather by gendarmes; and he made interest to go and call on the famous Bellacoscia in his stronghold. A great chance for a writer of the realistic sort was here thrown away; this one giving only the sort of statement that might have been made up—by a vague imagination too—without ever leaving Paris. This was all in 1887, and important things have happened in the island since, which leave the account already somewhat antiquated. Paoli's ruinous house has been restored and made his mausoleum, the old Bellocoscia has been semi-amnestied and deported to the mainland, and escaped again and returned, probably to die in his *maquis* in peace. The railroad has been built across the island, and will probably be a potent factor in putting an end to disorders.

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*Camp-fires of a Naturalist:* The story of fourteen expeditions after North American mammals, from the field notes of Lewis Lindsay Dyche, A.M., M.S., Professor of Zoology and Curator of Birds and Mammals in the Kansas State University. By Clarence E. Edwords. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co.

Professor Dyche has passed an interesting life, and his adventures, though not exciting, are full of the romance always associated with out-door activity and the pursuit of wild animals. The son of Western pioneers, nursed by a squaw, pursuing a frontier life without education to the age of sixteen, our naturalist educated himself, and finally attained his present university position. This interesting human document is comprised in a chapter of four pages; the rest of the book is devoted to stories of hunting adventures, told without great art and containing little incident, and much less matter at all instructive to the student of natural history than the book's title would lead one to expect. Prof. Dyche has followed his pioneer instincts and pushed into the deepest woods and most rugged mountains to find his game, led on, if we may judge from what he says, quite as much by a sportsman's instincts as by love for his chosen study. He is evidently a good shot and a good woodsman, and his skill in mounting animals is probably greater than would appear from the accompanying illustrations, presumably taken from specimens of his work. The narrative is written in a rather exaggerated style, which magnifies a thunder-storm into a cloud-burst, and the usual misadventures of camp-life into hardships. A little frontier wit is inserted with scant success, and an attempt made at vernacular which is a distinct failure. Some statements are at least inexact. In speaking of bears the editor makes Dyche say that they do not hibernate in the ordinary sense of the word: "They do not become torpid." Bears certainly do become torpid to a great extent, so much so that it is regarded as no feat by Western hunters and trappers to go into a bear den in winter and kill the occupant. There is a very interesting account of a hunting trip in company with Chippewa Indians, containing a good many suggestions of Indian customs and character.

To sum up, Mr. Edwords may have made the most of his material, but in any case a hunter's field-notes offer a severe test of literary skill as a foundation for a story like this.

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*L'Ennemi des Lois.* Par Maurice Barrès. Paris. 1893.

Another book by the new light, Maurice Barrès. From behind the stalking-horse of a story, slender, nebulous, unreal, unnatural, unpleasant, and Parisian, intended to be Wilhelm Meister-y in flavor, the author aims to make converts to his social theories, by vague reflections upon laws, upon young ladies of the new intellectual type, upon Russian princesses highly emancipated, upon the French reformers St. Simon and Fourier, upon the German reformers Lassalle and Karl Marx, upon Louis II. of Bavaria, upon dogs as companions and as educators of children, upon vivisection, and upon feeling versus thinking. The book produces an artistic impression, but could not well be feebler. One wonders by what courses the author, after he had once resolved to put forward his ideas, could have managed so to reduce his powers of persuasion below the average of thinking men, or, if there be any people whom he influences, what excessively peculiar persons they must be. The doctrine may be classed as sentimental individualism. The proposition is that the time has come to throw off laws—not merely those which are enforced by the tribunals, but every means by which the ideas of the public are made in any respect to dominate the conduct or ideas of the private individual. Especially, all that is traditional should be broken up. The use of language is not disapproved; still, it is traditional, and those only should teach who cannot speak—that is, the "hairy," and particularly dogs. As all thinking rests more or less upon common notions, individual feeling is much to be preferred to thinking. The conduct of people is to be made social through their sensibilities, but is not to be governed by the public will. The last words of the book are:

"For these persons other egos exist just as much as their own, so that the conditions of others' happiness are at one with the conditions of their own; they crush not the flowers they love to breathe. That they should suffer would lessen their own joy. Their refined sensibility suppresses every immorality."

All this is set forth in exaggerated and shocking language. Yet as the author never says he would carry out the principle to its furthest possible limit, nor ever says how far he proposes to carry it, except that he means to carry it further than we now do, there is really nothing new in the substance of the book, nor anything (except an extravagant tone) but what multitudes of sober-minded people would be quite disposed to admit. The truth is, that the essence of what he wishes to inculcate is nothing but a tone, and that tone he contrives to render as disagreeable and as repugnant to good sense and to good taste as the Enemy of Laws' worst enemy could desire. Excessively one-sided works, vigorously executed, have many times done much good by stimulating reflection. They can never do much harm, be-

cause they convince nobody; they can at most cause those who already entertain the same opinions to speak out. But the present volume can hardly have any effect at all, beyond that of amusing a few people who may like to listen to the praises of Louis II., to analyses of modern libertinism, and to twenty-page dissertations upon St. Simon. The admirers of M. Barrès think him startlingly brilliant and original; his detractors treat him as little better than a vulgar *poseur*. The truth is, he has nothing definitely new to say, but often succeeds in imparting to old ideas a pretty well-emphasized tenor of expression. Here is a specimen or two.

"I say things abruptly, as I feel them. Besides, I agree with everybody who feels anything. No matter for the formulas by which we express our emotion, the important thing is to be warmed by life. If that lady interests herself in what does not interest me, what right or propriety would there be in substituting my feeling for hers?"

"Many of the ideas of St. Simon have filtered into modern Europe: but they have not been improved in their renewal. The industrial system of which he dreamed is just our moneyed society against which the reformers of to-day revolt."

"Clara Pichon-Picard, wonderfully intelligent, saw less accurately into life than the frivolous Marina, who decided all questions under the guidance of a sensuality which is precisely the sense of life."

"They slept, and met in dreams. There was an orchard surrounded by a high hedge, and they walked in procession towards the rising sun, amid children and animals, under the direction of Hairy the Second [a dog], their monitor. All busied themselves with burning their material humors in the open air. To expel the useless, to keep the essential, there lies the whole secret."

"Kennel, stable, hen-house, fish-pond clustered about a peaceful house, a copy of the Museum laboratory [a laboratory of vivisection], but a reversed copy. Here the problem is, not to destroy humble beings for the joy or material benefit of augmenting the sum of knowledge! Here, in an atmosphere purified of all dead ideas, are formed young persons who breathe nothing but what is living, and who develop that new sensibility which the new aspect of the world requires. Yes, here in the open air is a laboratory of sensibility."

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*The American Girl at College.* By Lida Rose McCabe. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE writer of these observations and reflections upon girls at college is an optimist. "Eventually a system [of college gymnastics] compatible with the best development of American physique will be evolved, leading to a race like the Greek prototypes," she remarks. Even this is not all. "As these opportunities broaden, fewer bookworms will infest our colleges, and careless or indifferently dressed able women will be numbered among the traditions of the past." The opportunities that promise this delightful consummation are for nothing less than more "social contact with the flower of Boston courtesy," and still more "vital touch with Philadelphia's most exclusive social life." A certain measure of the last-named felicity is said to be already provided for a fortunate few by women of social culture to be found on the "Board of Bryn Mawr." According to the published circulars of Bryn Mawr College, there are as yet no women on its board of trustees, but this is a mere matter of detail. More important to note are the lapses pointed out in the educational system in general. Thus, "when nature has not given a woman taste in dress it is the duty of education to supply it. The college that overlooks it does not discharge its whole duty." Again, "more attention to the speaking of the Continental languages is an imperative need in American education. There is certainly something radically defective in present methods, otherwise greater results would be secured." Moreover, there are "able educators and many laymen" who would eliminate the scientific course entirely from women's colleges. In the meantime, however, the sciences remain, so that the author is able elsewhere to observe tersely that of the classical, scientific, and literary courses at Barnard and other colleges, "the first leads to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, the second to Master of Arts, the trio to Doctor of Philosophy."

It would appear, too, that those captious persons who have been insisting on Harvard's injustice in thus far granting Annex students no more than an insubstantial certificate, or charging Johns Hopkins with interested inconsistency in bidding women to its dissecting-tables while still forbidding them a seat in literary or historical class-rooms, have, after all, been tilting at windmills. Harvard and Johns Hopkins, no less than Yale and the University of Pennsylvania, are here roundly declared to "have opened their degrees to women on equal footing with men, as quickly as the girls developed the disposition and proved the capacity to meet the requirements of the university curriculum." To attribute wrong intentions to the propounder of these airy fabrications would, however, be entirely erroneous. The head and front of her offending is nothing more than a sublime incapacity to understand the alphabet of what she writes about. Ignorance of educational methods and aims is compatible with many virtues, even with some degree of literary skill, though none is discoverable here; the only condition under which it becomes an unpardonable sin is when it exposes itself to the length of a volume.

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*A Japanese Interior.* By Alice Mabel Bacon, author of 'Japanese Girls and Women.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

MANKIND, for purposes of travel, may be divided into two classes. There are the selfish, unthinking, fault-finding people, who know no point of view but their own, enjoy being miserable wherever they live, and will pick flaws in the management of heaven if ever they enter its portals. There are also the intelligent, sympathetic, self-contained people, who know something of the variety of human life and can recognize real virtue and real vice in whatever garb it is concealed, who can measure humanity in different lands by universal standards, and not by the Pharisaic tests of their own nation, creed, or clique. To the former belongs one who has this year finished a month's tour in Japan, to whose astounding lucubrations we shall not give an unmerited publicity by mentioning his name in these columns. To the latter belongs Miss Bacon, whose little book is the most real picture we have yet seen in print of Japanese ways as observable by a foreigner. It contains, as her preface intimates, no profound conclusions, no eloquent descriptions, no careful research. But it furnishes what is in this field even rarer than profundity, rhetoric, or research—an unbiassed and lifelike chronicle of all that one may see and hear in a year's sojourn in that most enjoyable of cities, Tokyo. Space would fail if one were to quote the passages in which one meets just the comment or conclusion which the occasion merits. It is enough to say that the returned sojourner from Japan (provided he is somewhere within the circle of the second sort of people above mentioned) will nowhere find pages in which he can live over again with such relish the experiences, pleasant and unpleasant, of his Japanese holiday. If the spirit of the writer could be communicated to all Americans (we do not add "and English," for that would be hopeless) who intend to travel, the sum of the world's happiness would be much increased.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Annual of Photography. Scovill & Adams Co. $1.
Battershall, Fletcher. A Daughter of this World. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Benton, G. W. A Laboratory Guide in General Chemistry. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Blackmore, R. D. Lorna Doone. 2 vols Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $6.
Blennerhassett, Rose, and Sleeman, Lucy. Adventures in Mashonaland. Macmillan. $2.50.
Bolton, C. K. Saskia, the Wife of Rembrandt. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Booth, Josiah. Everybody's Guide to Music. Harpers. 75 cents.
Bridges, Robert. The Humours of the Court, and Other Poems. Macmillan. $1.25.
Bridgman, L. J. Odd Business: High Art in Fun, etc. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Browne, E. G. The New History of the Báb. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Bryant's Poems of Nature. Illustrated. Appletons. $4.
Carlyle, Thomas. Sartor Resartus. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Carpenter, Prof. G. R. Exercises in Rhetoric and English Composition. Boston: Willard Small.
Carroll, Rev. H. K. The Religious Forces of the United States. Christian Literature Co. $2.50.
Cartwright, Julia. Madame: A Life of Henrietta, Daughter of Charles I. Scribners. $3.75.
Chapin, W. O. The Masters and Masterpieces of Engraving. Harpers. $10.
Colby, F. M. Brave Lads and Bonnie Lasses: Stories of Young Folks who have Helped to Make History. Hunt & Eaton. $1.50.
Commons, Prof. J. R. The Distribution of Wealth. Macmillan. $1.25.
Coppée, Prof. Henry. General Thomas. [Great Commanders.] Appletons. $1.50.
Crandall, C. H. Wayside Music. Putnams. $1.25.
Creighton, Louise. A First History of France. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Cummins, Ella S. The Story of the Files: A Review of Californian Writers and Literature. B. Westermann & Co.
Dawson, D. L. The Seeker in the Marshes, and Other Poems. 2d ed. Philadelphia: Rees Welsh & Co. $1.50.
Dennie, John. Rome of To-Day and Yesterday. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $2.50.
Dobson, Austin. Proverbs in Porcelain. Illustrated. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Dumas, A. The Chevalier de Maison Rouge. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Elliott, Frances M. Old Court Life in Spain. 2 vols. Scribners. $7.50.
Ely, Prof. R. T. Outlines of Economics. Hunt & Eaton. $1.25.
Espinasse, Francis. Literary Recollections and Sketches. Dodd, Mead & Co. $4.
Evans, M. A. B. In Various Moods. Putnams. $1.
Familiar Letters of Sir Walter Scott. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.
Fife-Cookson, Lieut.-Col. J. C. Hannibal and Kathana: A Drama. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Putnams. $1.25.
Gaulot, Paul. A Friend of the Queen. Appletons.
Goodyear, W. H. Roman and Mediæval Art. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Gouin, F. A First Lesson in French. London: George Philip & Son; New York: Scribners. 90 cents.
Grant, A. J. Greece in the Age of Pericles. Scribners. $1.25.
Guild, Curtis. From Sunrise to Sunset. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
*Harper's Young People.* 1893. Harpers. $3 50.
Haynes, Rev. E. J. None Such? There Will Yet be Thousands. Boston: North Publishing Co. $1.25.
Hill, F. S. Twenty Years at Sea; or, Leaves from my Old Log Books. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.00.
Höcker, George. The Tell-Tale Watch. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Holland, Rev. H. S., and Rockstro, W. S. Jenny Lind the Artist. 1820—1851. New and abridged edition. Scribners. $2.50.
Holmes, Kate R. Pictures from Nature and Life. Illustrated. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50.
Ingelow, Jean. A Motto Changed. Harpers. $1.
Kennedy, Walker. In the Dwellings of Silence: A Romance of Russia. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Kennelly, A. E. Theoretical Elements of Electro-Dynamic Machinery. Vol. I. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Kernahan Coulson. A Book of Strange Sins. Ward, Lock & Bowden. 50 cents.
Kimball, R. B. A Student's Romance. G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.
King, J. H. Man an Organic Community. 2 vols. Putnams. $4.50.
Kinkel, Gottfried. Tanagra: An Idyl of Greece. Putnams. $1.75.
Kipling, Rudyard. Ballads and Barrack-Room Ballads. New ed. Macmillan. $1.25
Kostromitin, J. The Last Day of the Carnival. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Lees, G. R. Jerusalem. Illustrated. Newcastle-on-Tyne: Mawson, Swan & Morgan.
Lent, W. B. Gypsying Beyond the Sea. 2 vols. Randolph. $4.
Lord, Rev. John. Two German Giants: Frederic the Great and Bismarck. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Ludlow, Rev. J. M. The Captain of the Janizaries. Harpers. 50 cents.
MacLean, Prof. G. E. An Old and Middle English Reader. Macmillan. $2.
Marshall, Mrs. Emma. Penhurst Castle in the Time of Sir Philip Sidney. Macmillan. $1.50.
McKay, Mrs. Alfred A. A Latter Day Saint. F. H. Revell Co $1.50.
Michel, Emile. Rembrandt: His Life, his Work and his Time. 2 vols Illustrated. Scribners. $15.
Morin, L. French Illustrators. Scribners.

*Putnam's Monthly Historical Magazine.* Vol. I. Salem, Mass.: Eben Putnam.
Reade, Charles. The Cloister and the Hearth. 2 vols. Harpers. $8.
Rousseau, J. J. The Social Contract. Putnams. $1.25.
Russell, W. C. The British Seas. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.
Sadler, Rev. M. F. The Revelation of St. John the Divine. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Saintine, X. B. Picciola, the Prisoner of Fenestrella. Appletons.
Scott, Sir Walter. The Abbot. 2 vols. [International Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat: New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.
Scott, Sir W. The Fortunes of Nigel. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Seaverns, Adelaide S. Thoughts for the Thoughtful. Hunt & Eaton. $1.
Stoddart, William. Our Boys: What They Can Do and How to Do It. Hunt & Eaton. $1.
Swanwick, Anna. Goethe's Faust. First Part. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Swett, Sophie. The Mate of the "Mary Ann." Harpers. $1.25.
Tales from *Town Topics.* No. 10. *Town Topics* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Tetlow, John. The Eighth Book of Vergil's Æneid. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
The City of St. Louis and its Resources. St. Louis: *Star Sayings* Co.
The Delectable Duchy. Macmillan. $1.
The Diary of Col. Peter Hawker. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $9.
The Manufacturers of the United States: A Classified and Complete Reference Book for Buyers and Sellers. 4th ed. Manufacturers' Publishing Co.
The Memoirs of James, Marquis of Montrose, 1639–1650. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.
Thoreau, H. D. Summer. Autumn. Winter. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Each $1.50.
Thompson, F. D. In the Track of the Sun: Readings from the Diary of a Globe Trotter. Illustrated. Appletons. $6.
Truman, Maj. B. C. History of the World's Fair. Chicago: Mammoth Publishing Co.
Twining, Thomas. Travels in America 100 Years Ago. Harpers. 50 cents.
Vallings, Harold. The Transgression of Terence Clancy. Harpers. 50 cents.
Verse and Prose for Beginners in Reading. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Vogüé, E. M. de. Cœurs Russes. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Werner, A. The Humor of Holland. [International Humor.] London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Where to Stop in America and Europe. Boston: Moses King. 25 cents.


## *NEW FRENCH BOOKS.*

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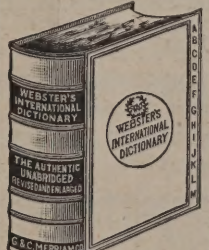


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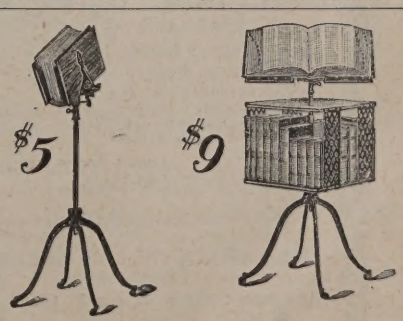


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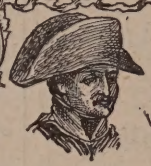

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 14, 1893.

## The Week.

THE discussion in the Senate on Thursday over the failure of the President to keep Congress informed of his acts and instructions in the Hawaiian matter, would have had more weight if the attacks on his reticence had not come mainly from those who avow their desire to see the present provisional government recognized and supported, or at least, let alone, by the United States, and who hold that any interference with this government now by the President will be an "act of war" which should, under the Constitution, be authorized by Congress. But not one word was said in the debate as to what a President should do when an unauthorized act of war has been committed in a foreign country by a representative of the United States, and a legitimate representative government thereby overthrown. This is exactly what has happened in Hawaii. This is clearly a wrong done by the United States. Has the President under the Constitution no power to undo wrongs committed in foreign countries without authority by his officers or agents? Somebody ought to answer this question.

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It is said, also, that the wrong done in Hawaii ought to have been righted at once, and that it is monstrous now, after ten months, to disturb the established order of things. But the wrong, if a wrong, consisted in the overthrow, with our help, of the government preferred by the majority of the Hawaiian voters. It cannot become a right as long as the majority of the voters have not acquiesced in it. Have they been consulted? Is it the American doctrine that ten months or a year legitimizes a successful usurpation, and that a minority has only to maintain itself in power by force during that period in order to deprive the majority of its rights? Who is the American public man who will become responsible for this doctrine? Any one who has read the history of the Republican party during the last thirty years would expect to see all the leading Republicans in both houses denouncing the President for not settling the Hawaiian trouble by taking a plébiscite in the Islands; but, strange to say, the only voices raised for justice to the men of color are Democratic voices. A plébiscite is the very last thing the Republicans desire.

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Great amazement is expressed in certain quarters over Ambassador Bayard's remarks about Hawaiian affairs. What he said was, that the President was simply following a policy of magnanimity and justice, and had never thought of interfering by force to set up or put down a government in Honolulu; his main wish being to give the Hawaiian people a chance to determine their own form of government without American dictation. This is spoken of as betraying the "secrets" of the Administration. But what reason has any sane mind had at any time to think that the President intended anything else? All the furious talk about his trampling on the Constitution and shooting down Hawaiian patriots has been purely gratuitous, without a shadow of support in anything he has said or done. In fact, it has been confessedly based upon what he was going to do, the critics being sure that they knew what that was. They showed some signs on Monday of being aware that their unconstitutional action may turn out to be all in their eye, and are already preparing to find a victim in another quarter.

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Ex-Minister Stevens has all along represented his action in recognizing the provisional government of Hawaii as in perfect harmony with the views of Capt. Wiltse of the *Boston*, "now in his honored grave." But there is an officer of the *Boston* yet in the land of the living, who gave a very different account of the affair to Mr. Blount. Lieut. William Swinburne, recounting the events of January 17, 1893, says that he was present at an interview between Capt. Wiltse and several gentlemen claiming to be the provisional government. They asked for recognition from the captain, but he inquired whether they had possession of the police station or the barracks. They confessed that they had not, as, in fact, their main object in seeking recognition was precisely to enable them to overawe the Queen's troops. "Very well, gentlemen," said Capt. Wiltse, "I cannot recognize you as a *de-facto* government until you have possession of the police station and are prepared to guarantee protection to life and property." This was undoubtedly the correct view, but Stevens regarded it as thoroughly un-American, and himself recognized the conspirators while they were still shivering with dread lest the Queen's 600 well-armed troops should fall upon their 60 raw recruits. Then President Dole thanked Stevens, and asked him to be kind enough to loan him the United States troops for the purpose of storming the police station.

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Mr. Charles Nordhoff of the *Herald* had a most destructive letter in that journal on Tuesday calling ex-President Harrison's attention to various fatal concealments and perversions in Mr. Stevens's report and that of the Hawaiian commissioners, as brought out by the evidence collected by Mr. Blount. Some of these concealments, as, for instance, the protest of the Queen's minister of foreign affairs against the landing of the troops, are most important. The evidence collected by Mr. Blount ought in fact to have closed the mouths of Stevens and his defenders long ago, but it will not. The manner in which they have conducted this controversy is in truth little short of a national disgrace. From Stevens down it has been impossible from the beginning to get them to discuss the evidence in detail. When he, after a long delay, appeared with a statement, it consisted almost wholly of rather vulgar abuse of Mr. Blount and the Administration.

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Another matter is not less important. Should Hawaii be annexed, we may be sure it will be a precedent under which other islands—probably West Indian—and other States, inhabited wholly or in large part by a colored population, will be brought into or under the dominion of the Union. It is most needful, therefore, that the political status of these people should be settled now. Are they to be voters who may any day decide a Presidential election, or are they to be subjects to be ruled by proconsuls sent from Washington once in four years in return for campaign work or money? How are they to be made to fit into the time-honored policy of the Republican party with regard to the Southern negroes? What will be the bearing on them of the fifteenth amendment? No more important questions than these have ever been submitted to the American people, and yet not one word in answer to them have we been able to extract from the *Tribune* or any other Republican organ. Nothing comes from them day after day but a dreary and monotonous bow-ow-ow at the President and Mr. Blount.

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The exportation of $500,000 of gold on Saturday, followed by further shipments on Tuesday, are regarded with indifference in the money market. The fact is that such a movement, under existing conditions, is a sign of health and not of disease. With call money as low as 1½ per cent. here, while it commands 2½ in London and 3 or 4 in Berlin, an exportation of gold is desirable. If the gold is owned by us, we shall get more for its use abroad than could be obtained here. If it is owned by foreigners, we shall no longer be paying interest for something that we cannot employ profitably. These are very ele-

mentary truths. They are properly appreciated now because we are not under apprehensions of a change in the standard of value arising from the purchases of silver by the Government. On the contrary, we are now witnessing large shipments of silver abroad, for which gold would have been required under the régime of the Sherman act; 450,000 ounces of the white metal having gone out on Saturday. Another fact of importance is the increased productiveness of our own gold mines, those of Cripple Creek, Colorado, having risen to $261,000 in October, as compared with $204,000 in September, a gain of 30 per cent.

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There is an Italian proverb which says that there can be no omelet without the breaking of eggs. The committee on ways and means are learning the truth of this every day. Whenever it is proposed to levy a tax on anything, a lot of people rise up and say that it must not be done, and they make such a "poor mouth" that most people take pity on them and agree that it would be a very bad thing to do. But obviously the Government must have more revenue, and somebody must pay it. The Republicans have been very cunning. They have used up the Treasury surplus, they have abolished from time to time the largest sources of revenue, and have finally swelled the pension list, nearly thirty years after the close of the war, to a figure that equals the cost of the large standing armies of Europe. That is the situation to be faced. It may be unjust, but it will not yield to scolding. It cannot be railed away any more than the seal could be railed from off *Shylock's* bond. The Democratic party must take the risk of imposing some new taxes. Let us see what the Government raised in the way of internal revenue in 1866 *aside* from the tax on manufactures and the tax on incomes. Here is the list:

| | |
|---|---|
| Stamps | $15,044,373 |
| Tax on gross receipts | 11,262,430 |
| Licenses other than liquor and tobacco | 14,011,132 |
| Sales | 4,002,283 |
| Legacies and successions | 1,170,979 |
| Banks, railroads, etc | 12,109,410 |
| Miscellaneous | 4,440,290 |
| | $62,040,907 |

It is safe to say that each one of these sources of revenue would now yield double the amount that it yielded in 1866, with the same rate of taxation. A stamp duty, for example, of the same kind that was imposed then, would now yield $30,000,000. At one-half the *rates* imposed in 1866 it would yield the same amount as then. Or the same amount might be raised by stamps on a smaller number of instruments, as, for example, conveyances of land, mortgages, and shares of stock transferred or created after a certain date. Probably a stamp duty would produce less trouble and encounter less opposition than any other thing that could be devised.

The drift of sentiment among Republicans in Congress regarding the position of their party towards the tariff bill seems to be rather with Senator Hawley in pronouncing for prompt action than with Senator Aldrich in suggesting the consumption of several months in discussion, simply for the wasting of time. Senator Sherman is quoted by the *Herald's* correspondent as saying that he thought a month or six weeks would be time enough for the Senate discussion, although it might run for two months, depending largely upon the course the debate might take, and that there would be no talk for the mere sake of talk. The policy advocated by Senators Sherman and Hawley is so obviously the only rational one, from a party point of view, that it will be quite impossible to secure much support for obstructive proceedings. The bill is surely going through, sooner or later, and nothing in the world is to be gained by making it later. Manufacturers and business men generally are everywhere anxious for promptness in the matter, and if the Republican party should try to prevent this, it would suffer.

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The Government of Chili has put in a claim for damages for the seizure of the *Itata* by our Government during the Harrison administration. It will be remembered that this vessel was lying at San Diego waiting for a cargo of arms for the Congressionalists; that a deputy marshal, or a person who supposed himself to be such, went on board and seized her, or supposed he had done so, in behalf of the United States, for violation of the neutrality laws; that the commanding officer of the *Itata* put him ashore, took on her cargo of arms and sailed for Chili; that the United States war-vessel *Charleston* was despatched after her, and pursued her to Chilian waters, where she was surrendered by the Chilian authorities; and finally that the United States District Court, in which a libel was filed against her, decided that the *Itata* had not violated our neutrality law or any other law. If the trespass committed by our Government had been committed by a private person, a judgment for damages would have been given against him at once. Whatever loss was incurred by the *Itata* ought to be made good without further delay. Chili paid us $75,000 for a very dubious claim growing out of a street riot in Valparaiso. We ought to show no less readiness in paying a bill which our own courts have declared to be valid in every moral point of view.

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Kansas and Colorado continue to pay the penalty for their folly in electing Populists as Governors. The Colorado executive persists in his determination to call a special session of the Legislature, which is not needed and can do no good, and which there is no money to pay for; and the people are petitioning the members to adjourn as soon as they meet, as the cheapest way out of the difficulty. The Governor of Kansas last week issued an executive letter to the boards of police commissioners throughout the State, ordering them not to enforce the law for the punishment of vagrants, and paying a warm tribute to the tramp as very likely a Diogenes or a Columbus in disguise. The result is already seen in a rush of tramps into Kansas from all parts of the West. "The army of vagrants," says a Topeka despatch, "are flocking into the State in great numbers. They throng the railroad yards, and boldly demand food and clothing at private residences. Reports of petty thefts and robberies are being received from all parts of the State, but as the officers have been forbidden to make arrests for vagrancy, they are powerless to rid the communities of objectionable characters."

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This sort of thing is hard on Colorado and Kansas, but it is good for the rest of the country. We have been told for many years that neither of the old parties had any capacity for government, and that what the people needed was a "people's party," which should rule in their interest. As long as the Populists were never tried, their claims were very effective with the unthinking. The farmers of Kansas at last became convinced that the condition of the State would be vastly improved if they tried the promising experiment, but they have already had more than enough of it, and are lamenting that Gov. Lewelling is fastened upon the commonwealth for another year. In Colorado even the mine-owners and workers are so far recovered from their craze as to see that Gov. Waite's policy only means an addition to their burdens. But nothing short of such an experience as that of Kansas and Colorado would ever have convinced the general public that Populism was really so great a humbug. As it is, the whole country now realizes the truth about it, and the organization has no future.

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The decision of the general term of the Supreme Court at Albany last week upon the conduct of the State Canvassing Board in consummating the theft of the Senate which Hill, Maynard, and Rice had planned, is a most appropriate sequel to the November verdict of the people upon Maynard's conduct. The general term not merely summons the members of the board to appear in court and show cause why they should not be punished for contempt, but it goes over once more the disputed question of the legal status of the Mylod return from Dutchess County, and declares that, whatever else the State

Board of Canvassers had a right to do, it had no right whatever to canvass that as either a legal or a valid return. Yet it was for the purpose of having this return canvassed by the State Board that Messrs. Hill, Maynard, and Rice removed the legal return from the official records of the State. The finding of the general term upon this point is directly in line with the decisions of Judge Cullen in the Emans case, and with the report of the Bar Association upon Maynard's conduct.

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The excitement over the question of giving Catholic schools a share of the school-fund in this State and in Maryland and New Jersey, where definite proposals have been made looking that way, seems to us unnecessary. With influential Catholics opposed to such a policy, and with a pronounced and almost overwhelming sentiment against it among the non-Catholic population, there is no likelihood whatever of any such measure being successful or even seriously pushed. Its revival just now may be due in part to the hard times, which have undoubtedly made the burden of supporting the parish schools unusually hard to be borne by their patrons. It may also have been taken up, in this State at least, on the theory that the control of the Legislature would rest in quite other hands than those in which the late election placed it. We believe that the American people are ready to consider any fair plan of compromise on the school question such as that proposed by Archbishop Ireland, but that they will never consent to appropriations of public money for Catholic schools—this, not because the schools are Catholic, but because they are sectarian. If the Catholics are entitled to such appropriations, so are the Jews, so is each of the Christian sects, so are the agnostics, and the Christian Scientists, and the Theosophists.

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The only practical effect of the gathering of the striking Danbury hatters in town meeting to vote themselves $50,000 will probably be the speedy bringing of the absurdity into the courts to have the sawdust let out of it. Meanwhile the incident should afford food for thought to those ardent socialists who look to see the state, when conducting all industry collectively, display heroic virtues and supernatural wisdom. As a writer in a current magazine justly remarks: "The new socialism freely constructs imaginary societies in which every fact of history is deliberately violated. The whole relation of man to things is cast aside, and a new man—a social creature with new instincts—is thrust into being, to enjoy a new relationship to things." What havoc the Danbury hatters make of the theories of such a man as the Oxford don who recently wrote, in a book on the 'Labor Movement':

> "If society were able to control industry and wealth for the good of its own members as a whole, I imagine that the only differences in this respect would be two. First, it would be *only* the incompetent and not also the idle who would be allowed thus to live on the surplus products of other men's industry. Idleness would be regarded as a social pest, to be stamped out like a crime. Secondly, the miscellaneous selection of the incompetent for suitable provision, at present effected by birth, fortune, favoritism, intrigue, quackery, and other means, would be superseded by a more scientific adjustment. All who could work would have to work."

Working simply because one can work! The mad hatters know a trick worth two of that, and vote themselves money out of other people's pockets without a suspicion of the New Era halo anywhere in sight about them.

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President Patton is reported to have said, in the course of an address at Philadelphia on Tuesday week:

> "All athletics are beneficial to the progress of students with their studies. . . . They sharpen his intellect and give him a stronger mind. The recreation and exercise thus derived enable him to more easily master the difficult problems his studies develop. While athletics are at their height in college, the student never neglects his studies."

We have found it difficult to believe that the president of Princeton used this language, and our doubts were strengthened by the following item in Thursday's budget of football news from Princeton:

> "The team received a communication from the faculty forbidding them to play any more games this year. The faculty are of the opinion that study should take the place of sport after Thanksgiving Day. This necessitates the cancelling of the exhibition game scheduled with the Columbia Athletic Club at Washington next Saturday."

How small the reporter must feel who put all that talk into President Patton's mouth. If his silly inventions had any foundation in fact, the Princeton faculty would urge the football team to play as many games as possible, and to keep it up all winter under cover in the Madison Square Garden, where, in fact, games have been played in cold weather, and in this way develop a set of intellects which would astonish the world by the way they mastered difficult problems.

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One cannot help feeling sorry for the new cabinet in Italy—Crispi's, it promises to be at this writing. It cannot do much better than the old one, unless it gets rid of the Triple Alliance. It is that which is gradually working the ruin of the Italian kingdom. The drift towards bankruptcy grows stronger every day, because the armaments ashore and afloat which Italy is compelled to maintain under the treaty are wildly out of proportion to her means. She is literally surrendering, for the sake of protection against a remote danger, most of the things which constitute national success and happiness. If her present situation lasts much longer, it will become a question whether she would not have done better to knock under to France years ago, live under her patronage, and take up a position of mere sufferance in the Mediterranean. The national finances are going to ruin; the destruction of public and private credit is destroying the character of public men and bringing parliamentary institutions into utter disrepute with the masses. That there is not more talk of a republic is undoubtedly due to the fact that nobody feels that a republican assembly would be any better than the present parliament.

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It looks more and more as if France would soon have another war on her hands. This will be unwelcome to her at a time when Siam and Morocco demand such close attention, not to speak of African boundary disputes with Great Britain, Germany, and the Congo Free State, unfinished conquests in Dahomey and the Sudan, an unsettled feeling in Europe, and various complications in her home politics. For years, letters from Madagascar have dwelt on the increasing friction between the government at Antananarivo and the French Resident. By the treaty of 1885 France has charge of the foreign relations of Madagascar, while she has nothing to do with the internal administration of the island. This seemed a new and convenient form of protectorate, a way of keeping off all rivals while quietly waiting for her convenience to pluck the pear, or until it was ripe enough to fall of itself into her lap. From the beginning, however, the arrangement has worked badly, as has a similar one between Italy and Abyssinia. It is hard to say what relates to external affairs and what does not. Such questions as the rights of granting exequaturs to consuls, and of giving large land or mining concessions to foreigners, have led to endless bickerings. The French have tried to make their protectorate as broad as possible; the Hovas, promptly regretting that they ever agreed to such a thing, have wished to minimize it; the English Protestant missionaries, who are a power in the land, and are naturally jealous of French and Catholic influence, have helped to envenom a quarrel that has now reached the point where hostilities may break out any day. The Hovas can perhaps bring into the field 50,000 men, more or less well armed and disciplined. They will be no match for European soldiers, but the country, with its dense vegetation and total lack of roads or navigable rivers, is admirably suited to prolonged guerilla warfare, entailing on the invader serious loss besides great weariness and expense. England will look on jealously and disapprovingly, though, as she recognized the French protectorate in 1890, it is difficult to see on what grounds she can interfere.

*THE EXPLOSION IN PARIS.*

THE explosion in the Chamber of Deputies in Paris is another of the acts of the war on society in which the lowest grade of the socialists are engaged. For it must be remembered that there is no distinction worth mention between the anarchists and the Continental socialists. It is true that the anarchists, properly so called, profess not to believe in the necessity of any government whatever. But the number who hold this opinion sincerely is probably very small indeed. The great majority of anarchists are simply socialists who think they can hasten the socialist millennium by violent means—that is, by frightening the bougeoisie with bombs; and the socialist millennium consists in the possession by "the state" of all the instruments of production, and the constant supply of employment and comfortable subsistence to everybody. The Paris *Temps* recently pointed out, in proof of this, that none of the socialist writers or orators in France ever pass out-and-out condemnation on bomb-throwing. They call it, at most, a mistake, not because it is inhuman or unjust, but because it prejudices the public against the socialist cause. The anarchists have good reason to slaughter their enemies, but they are unwise in doing it.

We fear we must be prepared for many more outrages of the same sort as long as the socialist craze lasts, and it will probably not die out without the trial of experiments which will do serious injury to our civilization. It is gaining ground in nearly every civilized country, and it cannot gain ground without calling into existence a large fringe of desperate and broken men who used to be considered, and to consider themselves, criminals or pariahs, but who now assume the rank and functions of the apostles of the new gospel. The examination of several anarchists in France shows how easy it is nowadays for a half-crazy fellow out of work to look on himself as a martyr in a great cause, and every man with a good coat on his back as one of his persecutors.

The causes of the spread of socialism are many and various. The chief, doubtless, are the extension of universal suffrage and of the art of reading among vast bodies of poor and really ignorant people, the increased facilities of communication between the workingmen of different countries, and the growing force of the principle of equality, which lies at the bottom of all democracy, and which, as Tocqueville pointed out in 1851, after levelling all other distinctions, is beginning to rage against distinctions based on property. Socialist opinions, like religious opinions, of course, take their tone and temper very much from the medium through which they pass. Among the philanthropists and ethical philosophers they make a mild form of human brotherhood, a sort of sublimated Christianity; but, down among the lower class of untaught workers, they become as fierce a fanaticism as ever offered an infidel the choice between the Koran and the sword.

But no analysis of the causes of the movement would be either complete or accurate which did not give a high place among them to the talk of the clergy, of the new political economists, and of the philanthropic public generally, on social topics. The behavior of these more or less instructed bodies at this juncture recalls irresistibly the way the French aristocracy before the Revolution played with the new ideas which were before long to cut their throats and confiscate their property. The clergy are almost everywhere seeking to retain their hold on the masses by taking up sympathy with the poor and intercourse with them as a sort of religious duty, and in doing so flatter them with preposterous accounts of what the community can and ought to do to make amends for "pangs of nature, sins of will, defects of doubt, and taints of blood."

Still more helpful to the socialists are the labors of the new school of political economists. The outgivings of these gentlemen are all treated in the socialist camp as confessions of guilt and proposals to surrender on the part of the "capitalistic" class and the well-to-do world generally. What name to give to their political economy it would be hard to say. The older political economy, founded by Adam Smith and extended by Ricardo and others, confined itself strictly to describing the manner in which the human mind plays on the various phenomena of trade and commerce. One can easily see here the possibilities of a genuine science. All that these economists had to say to the legislature was, "If you do so and so, such and such things will happen; the explanation of this and that phenomenon which puzzles you is this and this." To the new school this modest rôle is mere foolishness. Each professor is an economist, legislator, and preacher of righteousness all in one. He cannot write about value without getting hold of a "germ of ethical implication," or about cost without "taking up a concept into his ethical consciousness." One of their most distinguished text-writers, Prof. Marshall, lays it down that "the inquiry whether poverty is necessary" is "what gives its highest interest to economic science," and of course "economic science" decides with Dr. McGlynn that poverty is not necessary; that different social arrangements would banish it, no matter what demand the human race made on the produce of the earth, and no matter what kind of character men brought to the process of earning a living. The same authority says that political economy "is, on its more important side, the study of man," which makes it include almost everything which can in the slightest degree affect the condition of the race, and makes its professors the equals at least of Comte's corps of philosophers. Hence, as might be expected, "school" succeeds "school," each trying to outdo the other in inventing new distinctions about value, and cost of production, and rent, and the pains of labor, but all promising the workingmen, and the poor generally, a glorious future—when "the state" really takes their case in hand.

With real men of science this new political economy is falling into the contempt which long ago overtook theology and metaphysics; that is, they set it down as merely a collection of the opinions of all sorts of people, who cannot be called to account, and whose predictions there is no means of verifying. But with the socialistic poor it meets with a very different reception. It satisfies them that they are right in believing that society has for long ages been cheating and oppressing them, that the existing social organization is vicious and tyrannical, and that it is the duty of "the state" to take care of them. When professors in colleges, sprung from the capitalistic class and armed with all the learning of the Egyptians, talk in this way, all further discussion seems unnecessary. It only remains to get possession of the government in order to banish poverty; and any means which seems likely to frighten the well-to-do into capitulation seems lawful.

The mischief these various bodies do among the laboring class is worked mainly by spreading false ideas of the state and false ideas of human nature. For their talk about "the state" there is no excuse. They know well that the state cannot be in our time any abler, wiser, or more honest than the majority of the people who compose it, and would certainly be less so, and that any state in our day which was armed with control of the property of the community would simply be a sink of corruption, of which decent people would soon rid themselves by force of arms. Fancy Gilroy and Croker in possession of the "instruments of production" in New York city, and Flower, Hill, and "Billy" Sheehan in the State at large; how long would the working classes escape "precariousness of employment, of livelihood, of support for old age, and of freedom from employers' dictation," which one of the economical philosophers sets down among the crying evils of our time? Even if we escaped such worthies as these, where would the State get the talent and honesty necessary for any such a vast scheme of administration? Everybody knows that the working class does not contain it, any more than the middle class, in any country in the world. Venal and lazy leaders abound among the working classes, and there

is hardly a corporation in the world today which is not suffering or has not suffered from the folly or dishonesty of its managers. The régime of individualism and competition undoubtedly has its evils, but they are trifles compared to the probable evils of state socialism, and they diminish in proportion to the improvement of individuals in character and intelligence, and in no other way can or will diminish.

The false ideas of human nature which the economists diffuse consist in their ignoring the gravest fact in the history of the race, the desire of man to live on his fellow-man, in a greater or less degree—that is, to impose on some one else the cares, the labor, and burdens of life which properly belong to him only. It is this trait of human nature which has made government, laws, military discipline, philosophy, and religion necessary all the world over. Our whole civilization is based on a recognition of it. If the lazy, the selfish, the shirks, and the incompetent were allowed to have their way, it would not last two years. It is only the élite of the race who are exempt from the trait in question. Even people who would not steal for worlds are quite capable of letting other people do their work and bear their burdens. What keeps humanity at all up to the mark is the embodiment in the jurisprudence and philosophy of every civilized people of the apostolic precept that the man who will not work shall not eat. In other words, the fear of poverty is one of the greatest supports of our morality.

### *WHAT IS THE REMEDY?*

It is not now denied on any side that the *de-facto* government of Hawaii is a government set up by violence, with the aid of the American minister and of American troops, for the sole purpose of transferring the country to a foreign power, that power being the United States. President Harrison accepted this transfer in hot haste. President Cleveland has rejected it pending investigation, partly because the acceptance of it would be a reversal of the policy of the Government touching the annexation of foreign islands, and partly because he thinks the dethronement of the Queen a "wrong" done to a friendly government. In the meantime he has done what any rational man, one would say, ought to do under the circumstances, in sending the best man he could find to inquire and report. This man has reported, and the report confirms the opinion that the revolution was in the main the work of the United States minister. This is as far as the President has gone. The abuse he is receiving for his instructions to Willis assumes that he has ordered Willis to restore the Queen by force, but this is very unlikely. Anyhow, nobody knows as yet what Willis's mission is.

The affair may now be said to have passed out of the President's hands into those of Congress. Congress has now to act in the matter. It can do one of three things—recognize the provisional government as the permanent and lawful government of the country, and leave it to take care of itself; give President Dole notice to quit and restore the Queen; or, take the vote of the registered electors as to the kind of government they will have and recognize and protect *that*. Now the country is waiting to hear which of these policies Congress will adopt. As yet we have no indication of what the choice will be.

As regards the first, it will be observed that it would, if adopted, be an avowal that we had no remedy for the wrongdoing of one of our agents in a foreign country; that no matter how much his conduct might be condemned by his superiors, we had no choice but to accept the consequences of it. There is no doubt that the situation is one of great difficulty. We can recall no case like Stevens's except the dethronement of King Kamehameha by Lord George Paulet. But Paulet did not set up a government of his own, and he was promptly disavowed by his admiral. There have been cases, too, where a foreign minister has connived at and encouraged revolution in the country to which he is accredited, but no case that we know of where he has himself made the revolution—that is, no case in which the revolution could not have succeeded without his aid. In this absence of precedent Congress will have to make one for itself, and it will be not only a contribution to international law, but a rule of our diplomatic service. It can hardly be that the Congress of a Christian nation will confess that it has no remedy for the wrongdoing of its own agents. The law of nature ought to be drawn on here by some of our jurists as it was in the case of the seals.

As regards the second, the objection is made that it would be "declaring war" on President Dole, who is, according to one theory, a lawful government in good and regular standing. But it is to be observed that Dole does not claim this character for himself. He is, according to his own showing, only a provisional president pending the annexation of his country to the United States. Now, should Congress refuse to annex, would not the refusal operate as the service on Dole of a notice to quit? It seems to us that when his annexation scheme fails, he is *functus officio*, and ought to retire, and it would then be our duty to keep order until the Queen returned to possession. Anyhow, the "war" on him would never be anything more serious than writing him a note, and it is confusing counsel to talk or think of him as a national belligerent. About the restoration of the Queen we express no opinion. It is, however, to be observed that she has never been heard in her own defence, that extraordinary pains were taken to prevent her being heard, and that her character is now being blackened all over the country on mere rumor. The very same people who are maintaining that Dole is entitled to all the rights, privileges, and immunities of a lawful government in the forum of international law, are loudly proclaiming the right of the United States to dethrone queens for immorality. But both positions cannot be sound. If we have a right to depose the Queen for unchastity, we surely have the right to kick Dole out for illegality. Let us add that stories about immorality coming from missionaries and from enemies about either man or woman should be received with great caution. It is a matter on which missionaries and clergymen and women generally are exceedingly credulous. Moreover, we find from the evidence in Blount's report that no white ladies in Honolulu refused the Queen's invitations to the palace, and all were glad to get them.

The third policy, the taking of a popular vote, we should have said a year ago, was the truly American policy, and the one which Congress, in circumstances like these, would be pretty sure to adopt. We supposed, a year ago, that the policy of allowing a handful of white traders to set up a government without consulting the main body of the people, anywhere within the radius of United States influence, would be strongly condemned by both parties, and especially by the Republican party. And, above all, we never expected to see the Republican party arrayed against a popular vote on account of the color of the bulk of the voters, seeing that it was it which embodied in our own Constitution that famous clause which says that the right to vote "shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, *or any State*, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude."

### *AN ABANDONED POSITION.*

By an act of Congress, approved July 27, 1868, it was declared that "the right of expatriation is a natural and inherent right of all people, indispensable to the enjoyment of the rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," and that "any declaration, instruction, opinion, order, or decision of any officer of this government which denies, restricts, impairs, or questions the right of expatriation, is . . . inconsistent with the fundamental principles of the republic." These declarations, which were foreshadowed in the fifteenth section of the Free Soil platform of 1852, were worked into the revised statutes. They mark the first formal and complete adoption by the Government of the United States of the principle of voluntary expatriation,

Prior to their promulgation, differences of opinion had been disclosed in the expressions of our secretaries of state as to how far it was permissible to intervene in behalf of a naturalized citizen abroad, especially within the jurisdiction of his original country, if he voluntarily returned to it; and in several well-known cases our courts, following the doctrine of the English common law, had held that natural allegiance could not be shaken off without the consent of the sovereign. With one vociferous breath the act of 1868 swept all these doubts and differences away. Since expatriation was a natural and inherent right of all people, the naturalized citizen should (the act proceeded to declare) be entitled to receive the same protection as the native citizen, everywhere and under all circumstances. The country of his origin, if he saw fit to return to it, could no longer claim his allegiance, but must accord to him the same rights and immunities as belonged to the native citizen of the United States. Such was the position expressly assumed by the United States in the act in question, though no attempt has been made to impress it by other means than argument on governments like Italy and Russia, which do not recognize the right of their subjects to expatriate themselves without their consent.

The circumstances in which the act of 1868 originated were somewhat ridiculous, but it is not necessary now to narrate them. Nevertheless, that year was a notable one in the history of expatriation. Prior to the passage of the act, naturalization treaties were concluded by George Bancroft with various German states, including the North German confederation, and negotiations for similar treaties with other powers were begun. But of all the treaties of the year, the most remarkable in its declarations respecting expatriation was that with China, commonly known as the Burlingame treaty. According to the terms of her penal code, China had apparently treated the renunciation of her allegiance as a capital offence. By article 5 of the Burlingame treaty it was declared, in the very substance of the act of Congress: "The United States of America and the Emperor of China cordially recognize the inherent and inalienable right of man to change his home and allegiance." This declaration was absolutely unqualified, going in this respect beyond the stipulations of any other treaty.

The right of expatriation is the "right of man to change his home and allegiance." It comprehends both emigration and naturalization. It necessarily involves the right to leave one country and enter another, and the right to transfer allegiance from the former to the latter. It belongs equally to all races, and to men of all occupations not criminal or injurious to society. It is, as the Burlingame treaty declares, a "right of man," or, as the act of Congress expresses it, a "right of all people." Hence any law or rule of governmental action that abridges this "right of man," or "right of all people," to make a voluntary choice of home and allegiance, necessarily denies, restricts, and impairs the right of expatriation. If it be true that the right of expatriation is a natural and inherent right, it is not possible to deny to one government the power to forbid emigration and renunciation of allegiance, and to concede to another government the power to forbid immigration and the acquisition of allegiance. The two things are strictly correlative. The right of expatriation, as a natural and inherent right of the man as distinguished from the citizen, is as clearly denied and discredited by the government that refuses admission and naturalization to the foreigner, as by the government that refuses emigration and renunciation of allegiance to the subject.

While the truth of these propositions should seem to be self-evident, it does not appear to have been appreciated in the United States. In the correspondence of the Department of State even during the last ten years constant references may be found to the act of 1868 as a valid and subsisting law, binding in the full extent of its declarations on all officers of the Government. In reality it may easily be shown that, as the result of positive legislation which has been sustained by the decisions of our courts, the position we assumed in 1868 has been abandoned, and that the act of that year can no longer be considered as in force.

In 1875 Congress passed an act forbidding the immigration of persons under contract to labor. The right to enter into contracts to labor is inseparable from the right to labor, and is fundamental. It lies at the foundation of all organized society. The act of 1875 was designed to exclude not only immigrants who were not in themselves desirable, but also those who, in the exercise of the "natural and inherent right" to labor, might become competitors of laborers already here. It was an abridgment, for certain local purposes, of the paramount right of the individual to expatriate himself.

But it was three years later that our repudiation of the declarations of 1868, and perhaps their insincerity also, began to be demonstrated directly and comprehensively. In 1878 a Chinaman named Ah Yup presented a petition to Judge Sawyer, in the Circuit Court of the United States for the district of California, praying to be admitted to citizenship. His petition was denied, because an examination of our statutes disclosed the fact that they authorized the naturalization only of "white persons" and of persons of the African race—the extremes of color—and thus excluded all races of an intermediate hue, whether American red, Malayan brown, or Mongolian yellow. It further appeared that this state of the law was not the result of accident, but of design, and that the sweeping denial of change of allegiance, so far as we were able to deny it, to a large part of the people of the globe, was deliberately inserted only two years after the blast of 1868. Nor did we stop here. As some of our courts, either from ignorance of the law or from color blindness, did not observe the limitations of the statute, which still exist, Congress in 1882 enacted that no Chinese person should be naturalized, and thus specifically excluded that race from the enjoyment in the United States of the right of expatriation—that "natural and inherent right of all people."

Having denied the right of expatriation in respect to change of allegiance, by refusing citizenship to races neither white nor black, and to Chinese in particular, we have as completely denied it in its other aspect—that of change of home. Omitting from further consideration the contract-labor law, it is obvious that the whole course of our legislation in respect to the Chinese since 1880, including statutes passed in accordance with treaties as well as those enacted in violation of them, has involved an absolute denial of the right of expatriation as promulgated in the act of 1868. Adopting the disposition and ability to work with the hands as the rule of our proscription, we have not only forbidden Chinese laborers to come to us, but we have asked their Government to coöperate with us in keeping them at home.

As it appears that the act of 1868 was long ago implicitly repealed by inconsistent legislation, and as its principles are daily repudiated by us in practice, ought not our Government, in a spirit of fairness and of decent self-respect, to cease to hold it up as a reproof and a threat to other powers?

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*THE ACTUAL COLLEGE YEAR.*

ONE of the first lessons forced home upon the student of government and social institutions is the need of going behind written constitutions and declarations to arrive at actual practice. The Constitution of the United States would be a blind guide to any foreigner who should undertake to derive from it the real place and functions of Presidential electors. Churches have their formal charters and laws, their provisions for worship and administration; yet how much of the vital life of a modern church is not written down in any of these formularies! Nowhere can one find described in ecclesiastical canons the sewing societies and receptions and

sociables and amateur theatricals and young people's meetings and excursions and picnics and Christmas festivals which make up so large a part of the actual life of a church at the present. It is necessary to go back of anything you can find put down in books and get at the real mental attitude of real church people, before you can understand how much of the attraction of the church for them lies in such things as have been mentioned.

The same principle holds of the life of a college. You will not find it, or, at least, cannot be at all sure you have found it, in the college catalogues and reports of trustees or examining boards. There you may indeed get the theory, but the practice you must look for in the ideas and ideals of the young men actually in the college or looking forward to being in it. The undergraduate college paper is a far better witness to summon than the college catalogue. The staple talk of college students in their rooms and in public places and at their homes, the pictures they hang on their walls, the ambitions with which boys in preparatory schools anticipate entrance upon their college course, the real heroes of college life, the predominant interests which student correspondents of newspapers show they think the public most associate with colleges—all these sorts of evidence are of far greater weight in settling the real order of importance of the various phenomena of college life than any catalogue or report that was ever printed.

Now what, we ask, would any unprejudiced inquirer, making use of those classes of evidence, conclude to be the greater, and what the lesser, events in the modern college year? We think it to be beyond question that he would find athletic days to be the great and high days of the year, and that the average college student of the present day would graduate the attractions of his scholastic year something as follows: (1) Football, (2) baseball, (3) track athletics, (4) rowing, (5) tennis, (6) secret societies, (7) junior exhibition, (8) class-day, (9) library and reading-room, (10) "getting through" and taking his degree, (11) possibility of coming back as graduate "coach" to one of the teams.

The public has now a pretty fair inkling of the predominance of athletics in colleges, but a full perception of the truth can be had only by one actually on the inside. What the public sees is the few great spectacular games, but it knows little or nothing of the long preparation for them going on through months, or of the absorption of undergraduate attention in them both before and after the event. Football has been well in evidence for two months past, and everybody has seen how impossible it was for the members of the principal teams to give thought to anything but the game. We have perfectly authentic evidence that one Yale player, from the opening of the term late in September up to Thanksgiving, could give no more than an hour a day to his studies, after attending to his main duty of training and practising. And it should be understood that this thing is no longer confined to the fall months. Capt. Waters had the brilliant idea of starting the Harvard team training last June; and he had the men at Bar Harbor and Sorrento and elsewhere. Of course, Capt. Hinkey and Capt. Trenchard could not see themselves handicapped in that way, and they, too, called their men to various retired places and put them at work at intervals through the summer. Logically, there is no room for stopping at any time, and, if the thing keeps on, the team will not go "out of training" at all, but will begin immediately after the Thanksgiving game to make a new start for glory.

Even without this the college in winter is a vast camp of men "in training" for something. The crew are hard at work at the weights and on the "tank." The candidates for the nine are to be seen at all hours in the "cage." The aspirants for the Mott Haven games are getting up their wind and their muscle night and day. It is actually a fact that a student who is not "in training" for some athletic contest, unless plainly disabled physically, feels called upon to make an apology for proposing to do nothing for the honor of his class or college.

Before any objector charges this account with exaggeration, let him note that we predicate it only of the average student. We know that there are many exceptions, and that the professors and writers and successful professional men of the future are in college for study just as their fathers were before them. But we also know that the scholastic ideal now gives the first place to the athletic ideal, that the true college hero of the present, in college and out, is the college athlete. We do not know, but we fear, that college faculties are not acting up to their convictions in the matter of regulating athletics—that they make the rivalry of colleges an excuse for not doing what they really believe ought to be done. What is certain is, that, against their convictions or with them, the historic and rational idea of an educational institution has been turned upside down.

## SARDOU'S "MADAME SANS-GÊNE."

PARIS, November 27, 1893.

M. VICTORIEN SARDOU may be called the most fortunate of our modern dramatists. He abandons all pretensions to the dignity of a moralist; he does not profess to give us lessons or to analyze human passions; he does not even say, "Castigo ridendo mores." He does not, above all, belong to the gloomy psychological school, which delights in exposing the worst parts of human nature. I speak not of his earliest and lightest works, some of which were not devoid of a slight moralizing tendency. In his later years, Sardou has adopted a theatrical form which consists in making of a very simple and sometimes almost commonplace drama the pretext for the reconstitution of a period, of a society, of what Taine would have called a *milieu*. In "Patrie" this tendency began to appear, but the drama still has some importance; we are taken to the Low Countries and participate in the struggle of oppressors and oppressed. Since "Patrie," Sardou has given less importance to the dramatic part of his works and more and more importance to what I must call the operatic or picturesque part. To this end he has become a passionate collector of engravings, of *bibelots*, of old costumes, old furniture, tapestries, arms, etc. The collector has conquered the dramatist; the *milieu* has become the chief preoccupation of the writer. His *dramatis personæ* are hardly ever left to themselves: they move, and move rapidly, surrounded by a multitude of men. In "Theodora" we are taken to the circus; in "Cleopatra" we see numberless Romans, Greeks, and Egyptians; the "Tosca" belongs to the same order of operatic dramas; "Thermidor," which was played only a few times in Paris, gave us all the tumult of the great Revolution.

Sardou is very quick at following the popular taste or even fancy; he gave us "Rabagas," one of his best pieces, at the moment of the reaction against Gambetta and his friends, immediately after the war of 1870. The present current of literature is directed towards the Napoleonic period. I have dwelt several times on this curious tendency, which has been clearly marked since the publication of the memoirs of Marbot. The furniture of the Empire, which has been so long despised, is now coming out of its hiding-places, and you can see it in the shop-windows of the dealers in "antiquities." The dressmakers are returning more or less boldly to the fashions of the Empire. Sardou, who is very barometrical, rightly judged that the time had come for a thorough reconstitution on the stage of the imperial period. He had collected all his documents, and in his case the documents are chiefly costumes, ornaments, uniforms, pieces of furniture; the principal part of the work was done, for the drama proper was only an easy and secondary part.

Having made up his mind to sacrifice the pleasures of the mind to the pleasure of the eyes, Sardou always looks for a very attractive centrepiece for his dramas, which are, so to speak, operas without music. He must have what is called in the theatrical world a star; a renowned actress, be she renowned for her beauty, her grace, or her originality, is a necessity to him, especially as his dramas have become an article of export, and, after having been played in France, are to make a journey round the world. In "Patrie" Sardou, in order to introduce a very handsome actress, created a part which was entirely out of harmony with the spirit of his drama; many of his later dramas have been written in order to give full scope to Sarah Bernhardt. This famous actress has been able to show the most astounding costumes, to vary *ad infinitum* her graceful and serpentine attitudes; she likes to die on the stage, and she has invented I don't know how many different ways of dying. Her silvery voice is, to be sure, sometimes lost in the tumult of Sardou's dramas; we lose the delicate pleasure which Sarah once gave us when she was contented to recite the poetic and pure

verses of Racine on the severe stage of the French Theatre; but the public of the Porte-Saint-Martin and of the theatres of the boulevard does not care so much for delicate and refined poetry as for melodramatic effects. The elastic genius of Sarah Bernhardt can accommodate itself to all necessities. She can be *Andromaque*, she can be *Cleopatra* or *Theodora*.

"Thermidor" and "Madame Sans-Gêne" bring us so near our own time that people have asked themselves how far it was permissible to put on the stage historical personages such as Napoleon, Maria Louisa, the marshals of the Empire. Napoleon, to be sure, has been a hundred times put on the stage, but it has generally been in great military spectacles; he has appeared as the Napoleon of the bridge of Arcole, of Austerlitz, sometimes of St. Helena, as the Napoleon of the legend. Sardou shows (or attempts to show) us in "Madame Sans-Gêne" a real Napoleon, a "Napoléon intime," on seeing whom we cannot help thinking of all the private memoirs which have been published about him, not excepting the late volume of M. Frédéric Masson, which bears the title of "Napoléon et les Femmes," and which tells us with the most minute details all the love affairs of the great man. We have had the 'Napoléon Intime' of M. Lévy, we have the "Napoléon Amoureux" of M. Masson. But what we can very well bear in a book we cannot bear so well on the stage. There will always be something incongruous in a theatrical Napoleon behaving like the vulgar hero of a vaudeville; a "Napoleon Flirting" is a little too much for our patience, even if he flirts with such an admirable actress as Réjane, who plays with so much wit the amusing part of the *Maréchale Lefebvre*.

"Madame Sans-Gêne" might be called "Napoleon Jealous." The flirtation with the Maréchale Lefebvre takes but a moment, but Napoleon's jealousy with regard to Maria Louisa fills the whole drama. He is represented to be jealous of Neipperg, an Austrian, half diplomat and half soldier. We see this Neipperg in the prologue (which is, in fact, a first act) escaping from the Tuileries, which have been invaded by the mob. Neipperg is wounded and takes refuge in the shop of a washerwoman (Réjane) who is washing her linen while the patriots are making a revolution in the neighborhood. Cannon are heard all the time; she cares only for her lover, a sergeant, who is a great patriot. The sergeant arrives with his friends; he is Lefebvre, the future marshal of Napoleon. She has hidden the wounded Austrian in her own bedroom, and then ensues one of those pretty scenes in which Sardou delights and in which he can exhibit all his adroitness. Lefebvre becomes suspicious; he sees his mistress is uneasy, and thinks at first that he has a rival. He insists on entering the bedroom; he threatens to take the key from her by force. She tells him that if he does she will never see him again. He will listen to nothing; he takes the key, enters the room, and comes out, saying, "He is dead." She knows the contrary; she understands that Lefebvre has become her accomplice and means to help in saving the wounded Austrian. Her anger and indignation melt at once into love; she throws herself into his arms, she will become Mme. Lefebvre.

All this consumes very little time, but the emotion is intense, and the way Réjane plays this scene is simply admirable. In the second act the sergeant has become a marshal of France; the washerwoman, who has made herself a vivandière in order to follow him, and who has passed through a few campaigns, has become the Duchess of Dantzig. She washed in old times the linen of a young officer called Napoleon, and he still owes her sixty francs, which he was unable to pay. This impecunious officer, who lived in the sixth story, has become Emperor of France. We see him in his well-known uniform, in his cabinet in the Tuileries; and we see in turn Fouché, Savary, the Duc de Rovigo; we see his chamberlains, Duroc, Lauriston; we see his valet, Constant; his Mameluke, brought from Egypt; we see his sisters, Queen Caroline, Princess Eliza, with their ladies in waiting, and the ladies of the Empress, Mme. Vintimille, Mme. de Canisy, Mme. de Talhouët, Mme. de Bassano, Mme. de Mortemart, Mme. de Brignolles, Mme. de Bellune, etc.; Maria Louisa does not appear in person, she is only heard for a moment in an adjoining room. It is difficult to imagine a finer show of uniforms and of gowns in the style of the First Empire—a style evidently derived from the school of David and from imitation of the antique. The long gowns with their trains are an exaggeration of the tunics worn by the Romans and the Greeks; the arms are bare, and so are the shoulders; the hair is in disorderly curls, *à la grecque*. The uniforms of the *grande armée* are very gorgeous. Sardou has obtained what he delights in, an absolute reproduction not only of the dresses of the Empire, but of the furniture, the silks, the curtains, the bronzes; the illusion is complete. You might really think yourself at the Tuileries in 1809.

The Maréchale Lefebvre has modified her dress, is as gaudily dressed as the princesses, but she has remained exactly what she was before the Revolution; she has taken dancing lessons, but she does not know how to spell, and writes with difficulty; her vocabulary is unaltered; she has still "le cœur sur la main." She adores her Lefebvre, and he adores her, for she is a brave, courageous, faithful woman. The ladies of the court, and the princesses, think she is not fit to associate with them, and they try to persuade the Emperor that Lefebvre ought to divorce her. The Maréchale goes to the Emperor, and their conversation is one of the best scenes in the play. The Emperor recognizes in her his washerwoman of old times; she makes him laugh by telling him about the unpaid bill. "How much do I owe you?" he asks. "Three napoleons." And now again he finds that he must remain her debtor. When his sisters come to him, he takes the part of the Maréchale against them; they have a fine quarrel, and they become so excited in the end that they all three talk Corsican.

The great defect of the play is the Neipperg incident. It is very melodramatic and absurd. Neipperg is supposed to be in love with Maria Louisa, and is found in the Tuileries in the middle of the night. The real truth is, that Neipperg never saw Maria Louisa before 1814, when he took her, by Metternich's order, from Aix-les-Bains to her principality of Parma. He became her morganatic husband at Parma, after the death of Napoleon. He was handsome, though he had lost an eye in the wars, but he had nothing in him of the hero of a novel or a drama.

# Correspondence.

## GATE-MONEY AND EXTRAVAGANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have probably dwelt upon the rough and brutal aspects of football as much as you care to in the columns of the *Nation*. The "gate-receipts" phase of the large games you have also condemned several times. In connection with the latter, however, I wish to voice the protests of a number of Harvard and Yale men with whom I have talked about the matter to-day—protests which are specially relevant since the report of the treasurer in charge of the Yale-Princeton game was published only day before yesterday, on which day also a report of extravagance among the Harvard coaches was printed.

It is unfortunately true that financial demoralization is the concomitant these years of the large football games. The large amounts of money which are the share of the three larger colleges as the result of a big game encourages wild extravagance in the management of the team. As an example may be cited the bill for $1,575 for the new leather suits of the Harvard eleven, suits which irresponsible coaches whimsically ordered, and which the manager himself refused to pay for. It is, further, an outrage that $2.50 or $2—to say nothing of speculator's prices—should be charged for tickets to a game. Tickets to the big games were formerly 50 cents and $1. The price was raised upon the suggestion of grounds managers, who plausibly urged, "You can get more; why not charge it?" I have it on excellent authority that next year the management of the Yale-Princeton game purposes charging $3 for the best seats, simply "because they can get it."

A halt should be called. Not more than one dollar should be charged for the best seats, "a tariff for revenue only." Games should be played on home grounds, or at the most in small cities. If football were to be thus purified financially, and as a game be pruned of its savagery, conservative men and women, as well as self-respecting young men and girls, could enjoy the sport heartily and without fault-finding.—Very respectfully,

Collegian.

New York, December 9, 1893.

[The root of these evils lies in the toleration of intercollegiate contests. Rowdyism, brutality, betting, extravagance, will all be reduced to a minimum the moment athletic sports are confined to the college grounds, where they can be effectively supervised and controlled by the faculty, and to the students of the college itself. More slowly will disappear the bitter animosities engendered by the present rivalry, so detrimental to the cause of learning and of letters. Any other remedy is a mere makeshift.—Ed. Nation.]

## THE DUTY ON PIG-IRON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of November 30 occurs the following:

"Any duty at all upon pig-iron is now prohibitory. The price of the cheapest grade in England is now $8.01 per ton. A better brand of pig-iron is selling in Alabama to-day at $7.25 per ton, etc. Nevertheless, the bill retains a duty of 22½ per cent. on pig-iron."

Starting with your price of $8.01 for English iron, adding the duty (22½ per cent.) of $1.80, and freight of 25 cents per ton from Liverpool or Glasgow to New York, the cost in New York becomes $10.06 per ton. Landing the Alabama iron by rail and water at a cost of $4.01 at New York, your price of $7.25 becomes $11.26, or

$1.20 in favor of the English iron. If you thus bring the Alabama furnaces into direct competition with the English furnaces, what does it profit Alabama? Or what does it profit Pennsylvania, New Jersey, or New York, whose iron costs them to make 50 per cent. more than your Alabama quotation?

Of course I am aware that were any business of consequence done, the ocean freight rate would advance, as would the foreign price and the duty. I am stating only the conditions of to-day, using your initial figures of price.

Yours truly, C. L. P.

BOSTON, December 4, 1893.

[It may be true that some Middlesbrough pig (the kind quoted at $8.01) would be imported along the coast if the duty were entirely removed, but it could not go far into the interior. We learn by inquiry among shipping men in New York that the usual freight charge from Middlesbrough shipping points is 7s. 6d. to 10s., although Liverpool and Glasgow freights are cheaper—Glasgow being quoted at 2s. to 4s. and Liverpool at 3s. to 6s. To the freight charge must be added insurance and commissions, the latter being at least 50 cents per ton. Adding the lowest Middlesbrough freight charge and the commission charge to the $8.01, we have $10.31 as the cost of the iron landed here without duty. If a duty of 22½ per cent. is added, the cost comes up to $12.11, which is more than the cost of Alabama iron laid down in New York, as computed by "C. L. P."—ED. NATION.]

## A FRENCH VIEW OF FRANKLIN AS A DIPLOMATIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The allusion to Benjamin Franklin, made in your last number by your Italian correspondent, brought to my mind a very racy French estimate of our philosopher's work at Paris by Maxime de la Rocheterie in his 'Histoire de Marie-Antoinette.' It differs just enough from our current impressions to be very interesting. It would take a more skilful hand than mine to translate it without spoiling it, so I send a literal transcription of it.

Yours very respectfully,

S. N.

WASHINGTON, D. C., December 6, 1893.

"Faux bonhomme, cachant, sous une apparence de simplicité alors à la mode, un esprit plein de finesse; affectant des airs de rondeur et d'indépendance qui séduisaient par leur contraste même avec les formules solennelles de l'étiquette; ayant la patience et le flegme des races anglo-saxonnes; sachant attendre sans se presser, mais aussi sans jamais se décourager ni perdre de vue le but qu'il se proposait, Franklin, par ses qualités comme par ses défauts, devait plaire à une nation qui se paye de mots, se leurre d'apparences, s'engoue volontiers pour les étrangers et s'enthousiasme facilement pour des innovations.

"Il comprit vite que le vrai souverain de la France, à ce moment, n'était ni le Roi, ni la Reine, ni le ministère, mais l'opinion, et c'est sur l'opinion qu'il résolut d'agir. Tout chez lui fut donné à l'apparence. Sans préjugés qui le gênassent, allant à la messe quoique protestant, faisant l'éloge des rois quoique républicain, courtisant à la fois son curé et Voltaire, offrant le pain bénit au premier; sollicitant la bénédiction du second pour son petit-fils . . .; flattant les evêques et les francs-maçons, les salons et les loges, les hommes de lettres et les hommes d'affaires, les philosophes et les jolies femmes, qui l'embrassaient malgré ses lunettes; frondant les usages reçus pour mieux se faire remarquer, paraissant au théâtre avec un habit de drap brun uni et des cheveux plats au milieu des perruques poudrées et des habits brodés; tranquille et inactif en apparence, mais 'employant beaucoup de gens en sous-ordre'; mettant tout en œuvre, les arts, les sciences, les lettres, pour se faire connaître et célébrer, le bonhomme Franklin, comme l'appelaient les uns, le bon et vénérable docteur, comme l'appelaient les autres, ne tarda pas à devenir l'idole, ou, comme il le disait lui-même, 'la poupée,' des Parisiens, en même temps qu'il rendait son pays et sa cause populaires. On ne parlait plus que de l'Amérique, on ne rêvait que des Etats-Unis, on se coiffait aux 'insurgents,' on jouait au 'boston,' on se passionnait pour les idées républicaines et leur représentant."

## MR. STILLMAN AND MR. RUSKIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You reviewed, last winter or spring, a book entitled 'The Life and Work of John Ruskin,' which contains an attack on me so malignant in its utter misrepresentations of some personal relations between the great critic and myself that, as they appear to have been written under the shadow of Brantwood, with the range of the family documents and the assistance of the Severns, they seem to be official. I have therefore a right to consider myself absolved from any obligation of silence as to those relations. Those misrepresentations are not merely malignant, but malicious to mendacity, and as they point to matters which have been *res publicæ*, and are still subject of comment, and involve more than my own personal feelings, I beg you to allow me a place in your columns to put them right. I have never said, nor do I mean to be provoked to say, a word in disrespect of Ruskin or derogation of his noble humanitarian passion. I have never written a word against the man, though I consider his art doctrines disastrous; of his honesty and his earnest Christianity, in the truest sense of that word, I have never made a question, and to the vulgarity of Mr. Collingwood's attack on me I have nothing to reply. To Mr. Ruskin's kindness to, and interest in, me I owe the greatest misfortune of my life; besides that, I owe him various kindnesses which I have put in my life's account *per contra*, so that if on the other side of the matter nothing had ever been said, nothing would have been replied on mine.

Some years ago, while I was still in the East, Ruskin wrote a letter in abuse of my Government, in which he said that when it had transferred me from one consulate to another, he had been obliged to furnish me with the means to make the journey. I never saw the letter, and only heard of it long after through an imperfect résumé in an American paper; but that was the substance. It not only was an affront to my Government, but resulted in personal injury to me, as I learned later; but, hearing of it only after all the harm had been done, I kept silence from respect for Ruskin. This last shaft from headquarters deserves a return.

I was invited by Mr. Ruskin to spend the summer with him in Switzerland, because he thought I might be able to realize some of the things he wanted "his young pre-Raphaelites" to do. I believed in his knowledge of art in general, and was grateful for his interest in me, and did my best to conform to his ideas of painting. I had acquired a certain ability in painting from nature, and certain methods which he disapproved, and I tried to reform according to his instruction. I worked too hard, as he always did, and, as he had a way of breaking off abruptly in the midst of a drawing if anything discontented him, I tried to make the most of the time. Our evenings were passed generally in discussions till midnight, and our days in drawing. At Neufchâtel, after nine hours a day of hard drawing, I felt something give way and a cracking behind my eyes, followed by immediate loss of distinct vision. Everything was blurred before my eyes, and I had to give up drawing. A few days' rest seemed to remedy the trouble, and at Laufenburg I got to work again, to be stopped by a worse attack, which this time stayed, and I had to give up work, as the indistinctness returned when I attempted to look closely at anything, and I lost the perception of color, so that I was unable for two years to do any painting of any value. Immediately after I had discovered that I was practically paralyzed in my vision, Ruskin found it necessary to return to England, and left me in Switzerland. I returned to Paris, and from there maintained my old friendly relations with Ruskin, interrupted during the next ten years only by his indignation at the conduct of my Government once or twice. During my prostration and inability to paint, Ruskin had several times written me, with his usual generosity in money matters, that if I had need at any time of money to carry out my plans, to write him, "and not trouble yourself about money matters, but get well—or I shall never have any peace about that Chamounix walk and other such businesses." Later, when I was transferred from Rome to Crete, I wrote him accordingly, asking him, in case I should be in need, to allow me to draw on him for what I might need within the sum of £100, to which he replied by sending me the entire amount. Before receiving it, and being unable to get to my post, Mr. Marsh, our then minister to Italy, had lent me the money, so that in point of fact Mr. Ruskin did not serve my Government, but showed his kindness to me just the same.

I do not know whether the abrupt paralysis of my artistic faculties, due to Mr. Ruskin's taking me under his protection, was a misfortune to anybody but myself, but it is to that, and the long consequent suspension of work, with a chilling of all my enthusiasm and loss of headway at a most critical time in life, compelling me to seek other avocations, that is due my not continuing in the practice of art. I had acquired certain methods of working which Ruskin assured me were all wrong, and this added to my discouragement, for, not knowing that he knew less than myself of technical methods, I had added to my perplexities by adopting those which were purely whimsical and impossible, and altogether I made a complete wreck.

The sin which has called down on me the extinguishing wrath of the author of 'The Life and Work of John Ruskin' and his friends and those of Mr. Ruskin is that, having learned by bitter experience the utter futility of Ruskin's system of art teaching, I ventured to criticise it freely in an article in the *Century*, from which, in the spirit of fanatical insincerity which characterizes the book, the author of it has made some garbled and discolored quotations. I have said nothing against Mr. Ruskin, and perhaps hold as much reverence for the man and his higher mission as Mr. Collingwood—so much, at any rate, that I consider his book a derogation of the teacher; not as teacher of art, but of morality.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

ROME, November 21, 1893.

# Notes.

THE New York Shakspere Society purpose issuing, in their "Bankside" style, the Shakspere plays which were rewritten and remodelled by Dryden, Davenant and others in the period of the Restoration. Each play will form one volume, with brief historical prefaces, printed in an edition of 500 copies. Subscriptions may be sent to L. L. Lawrence, P. O. box 423, Westfield, Union County, N. J.

Mrs. Edwina Booth Grossmann is writing some Reminiscences of her father, Mr. Edwin Booth, and begs her father's friends who possess letters from him to send her transcripts of such as they may wish to add to her publication. They should be addressed to Mrs. Ignatius R. Grossmann, 12 West Eighteenth Street, New York.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in press 'Russia and Turkey in the Nineteenth Century,' by Elizabeth Wormeley Latimer; 'The Book-Hunter in Paris,' by Octave Uzanne; 'The Spanish Pioneers,' a book for young people, by Charles F. Lummis.

The Open Court Publishing Company, Chicago, announce 'The Redemption of the Brahman,' a novel, by Richard Garbe, Professor of Sanskrit at the University of Königsberg, Prussia.

Bishop Polk's biography, by the son of that prelate and Confederate general, will shortly be published by Longmans, Green & Co.

'Mental Development in the Child and the Race,' by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin; 'Pain, Pleasure and Æsthetics,' by Henry R. Marshall; lectures on modern mathematics, by Prof. Felix Klein, of the University of Göttingen; 'Catherine Furze,' by the author of 'Mark Rutherford'; and 'The King of the Schnorrers, and Other Grotesques,' by Isaac Zangwill, are in the press of Macmillan & Co.

Ginn & Co. will issue in January 'The Contemporary French Writers,' edited and annotated by Rosine Mellé.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, send us an illustrated edition of 'Tom Brown's School Days,' in which the photogravures are wholly of buildings and local scenery in Uffington and Rugby; and there is a portrait of the author by way of frontispiece. The binding is in dark blue cloth with much gilt. Perhaps this array of topographic "documents" is better fitted for the second than for the first reading of Mr. Hughes's story.

'Cathedrals of England' (T. Whittaker) is a collection of seven essays, on Westminster Abbey and half-a-dozen of the English cathedrals, each paper written by a canon or other dignitary of the church he describes—or, rather, illustrates, for there is little real description of the buildings in the essays. They are made up rather of such fragments of history, antiquarianism, and occasional criticism or description, as would naturally fall from any of their scholarly writers in a walk about the churches. Archdeacon Farrar, whose name alone appears on the title-page, leads the book with the longest paper, on Westminster Abbey, which is like the talk of a cultivated and instructed cicerone: the other papers are more or less in the same vein. The book contrasts, therefore, with Mrs. Van Rensselaer's 'English Cathedrals,' being of less importance as a record of the churches and their history; but it has the advantage in its weight of style and in the varying individual tone of the different writers. The illustrations show that they are from divers sources. In this American reprint they have suffered considerably, particularly those from Mr. Herbert Railton's drawings, for to blur the clear accent of his touch is to rob him of his most vital characteristic.

Mr. Samuel Adams Drake has added 'Our Colonial Homes' (Boston: Lee & Shepard) to the several books of antiquarian study by which he has been known. It includes a score of papers about old buildings in various parts of New England, which are described in his lively fashion, with all the zeal of the antiquary, and with abundance of collateral gossip. Most of the papers are reprinted from *Appletons' Journal:* they are set off with handsome letterpress and with good half-tone prints, albeit these have been spruced up for the service with brushwork which does not always improve their effect, though, in a way, it increases their brilliancy.

'A Gentleman of France,' by Stanley J. Weyman (Longmans), is a romance after the style of Dumas the elder, and well worthy of being read by those who can enjoy stirring adventures told in true romantic fashion. The time is the close of the civil and religious wars in the sixteenth century; the subject, the carrying off, for political purposes, of a very charming young lady by a graybeard of forty, who falls in love with her. The great personages of the time—Henry III. of Valois, Henry IV., Rosny, Rambouillet, Turenne—are brought in skilfully, and the tragic and varied history of the time forms a splendid frame in which to set the picture of Mersac's love and courage. The story rattles along bravely, notwithstanding occasional dull bits and weak points; the troublous days are well described and the interest is genuine and lasting, for up to the very end the author manages effects which impel the reader to go on with renewed curiosity.

The translation of Dumas the elder's 'Olympe de Clèves' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), in two volumes, is a very good translation in which the spirit of the original is well preserved. But are not the publishers in error when they claim that this is the first English version of the novel? In 1864 Brady of New York brought out a translation under the title of 'Olympia of Cleves,' and possibly there may be still another, for Dumas's romances have been as popular abroad as in France.

A fine edition of 'The Heptameron of the Tales of Margaret of Navarre,' newly and admirably translated into English, has been printed in London for the Society of English Bibliophilists. The text used is that edited by Le Roux de Lincy. Mr. George Saintsbury has contributed an erudite essay upon the 'Heptameron,' which, although interesting, is heavy and even somewhat labored. His conclusion, after a repeated and careful study of the book, is that the setting is almost wholly Margaret's work, and that other authors had a hand in the stories, or in some of them at least. And it seems to him that "the secret of the Heptameron," that which distinguishes it from other similar works, is "the fear of God, the sense of death, the voluptuous longing and voluptuous regret for the good things of life and love that pass away." Besides this essay there is prefixed a Life of Margaret, well written, and appended are the prefaces of the earlier French versions, a complete bibliographical summary of the various editions, the notes of the best French commentators, and a digest of the principal suggestions offered for the identification of the characters in the book with well-known persons of the Queen's day. The full-page illustrations, which are numerous, are printed from the plates engraved by Longueil, Halbon, and others from Freudenberg's designs, made originally for the famous Berne edition of 1778–81. The Clouet drawing in the Bibliothèque Nationale has been reproduced as the portrait frontispiece. The five octavo volumes are turned out in perfect fashion.

Mr. J. B. Bury's 'History of the Roman Empire,' from its foundation to the death of Nero, is the latest volume in the well-known Students' Series (London: Murray; New York: Harper & Bros.). Well informed as our students generally are about the Republic, the Empire is a period of which they are apt to know very little with any exactness, and this work is therefore welcome. Though it is evidently written chiefly from the ancient sources themselves, yet Mr. Bury has made the best use of the writings of Mommsen and Herzog, as well as of numerous monographs, and the result is a book brief indeed, but attractively written and certain to be useful. The exposition of the latest views about the development of the imperial constitution and the succinct account of the administration of the provinces may be particularly commended. Besides the political and literary history of the times, there are good biographies of the leading figures; and the subjects of private antiquities and religion, including the growth of Christianity, are not neglected. There are several maps and about seventy-five illustrations, both photogravures and woodcuts. The former are well executed; the latter are most of them old cuts already used in well-known books, uninteresting, and of little or no artistic value. Worse than this, many of the so-called portraits are unauthentic. All the illustrations have lately been the subject of well-deserved and searching criticism in the *Classical Review*, and the majority of them are certainly discreditable to the author of the book and to the two great houses which have published it.

By far the most interesting and important of the illustrations in the *American Annual of Photography* for 1894 (Scovill & Adams Co.) is the stuffed bird, a poll parrot, printed in three colors by Mr. Kurtz's Coloritype Co. We will not undertake to say how many impressions would be required by the methods heretofore in vogue, but the difference in cost must be very great. Strange to say, this outgrowth of "process," which promises an undreamt-of popularization of color work in the highest as well as the humblest walks of art, is undescribed in the *Annual*, or at least we can discover nothing on the subject in the very primitive index. For the rest the volume contains the customary articles from a wide circle of amateur and professional photographers, beginning with a brief account, with portrait, of Johann Heinrich Schultze, "the Columbus of Photography." There are the usual lists of American and foreign photographic societies, with their officers, and of hotels having darkrooms for the convenience of tourist photographers.

Robida's etchings detract from the general daintiness of the *Book-Lover's Almanac* for 1894 (New York: Duprat & Co.), nor are the other illustrations an advantage to the pretty presswork with variegated borders. We remark an account of William Bradford, New York's first printer, and a contribution in French from Octave Uzanne, who is very flattering to New Yorkers in the matter of private libraries. To Chantilly, London, New York, he says, for the richest collections.

The first volume of *Putnam's Monthly Historical Magazine* (Salem, Mass.: Eben Putnam) lies before us. Apart from the notices of Gen. Israel Putnam and Gen. Rufus Putnam,

the matter of most current and permanent interest is the New England pedigree of President Cleveland exhibited in six charts with annotations, but upon this we have already commented on its first appearance. No one medium of publication seems to satisfy the New England genealogical curiosity.

*Around the World*, the new monthly just founded by the Contemporary Publishing Co. of Philadelphia, and edited by Prof. Angelo Heilprin, has in it the promise of a very useful popular magazine scientifically conducted. It aims to keep its readers abreast of the latest tours, travels, and explorations, supplying "an analysis of the progress of research in all departments touching the physical history of the earth and of its productions," and reviews of geographical literature. Prof. Heilprin's taste goes hand in hand with his solid learning to produce a very handsome journal with charming illustrations. The price is very moderate.

The last number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* opens with an attempt to solve some of the problems connected with the geological history of Celebes by an examination of its lakes. This is followed by a similar examination of the plain lying to the east of the Sierra de Cordova in the Argentine Republic. Among the other articles are the first of a series of papers on the regions under German protection, beginning with an account of the Marshall Islands, a discussion of the variations of longitude through the periodic movements of the poles, and the distribution of heat over the earth's surface.

In late numbers of the *Historical Magazine* of the Imperial University of Japan, besides articles of local and national interest, there is an interesting paper on the *soroban*, or abacus, showing its comparatively late introduction among the Japanese. In the summer of 1612 a Chinese came to Nagasaki with one of these handy calculating-machines, then in use from Moscow to Nanking. An officer named Shobei Kataoka, attendant upon the *bunio*, or governor of Nagasaki, requested the loan of the mathematical machine, and, after learning how to use it, made a copy. This identical original copy and first Japanese abacus was on exhibition in Tokyo at the recent second National Exposition, confirming by visible proof and contemporaneous documentary evidence the ordinary accounts in the popular histories and the annals of the Kataoka family. The original Japanese maker, on going to Yedo, showed the instrument to the Shogun's Government, and explained its great value. Besides ordering a number for the Bureau of Accounts in the Treasury Department, the Shogunate, after examination and approval, issued seals patent, and the public were allowed to buy it. Its use soon became general. With it one can quickly add, subtract, multiply, divide, extract square and cube-roots, and work decimals and fractions. A valuable paper on the philosophy of the soreban, by Cargill G. Knott, formerly chief constructive engineer of the imperial railway system, is contained in the Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Japan, volume xiv.

The catalogue of the library of the late Dr. Döllinger, the completion of which has been so long delayed, is now published under the title of 'Bibliotheca Döllingeriana.' It is a stately volume of 672 pages, containing 18,495 numbers, and costs ten marks ($2.50). Offers for the purchase of the library as a whole will be received until June 1, 1894; if none of them are satisfactory, it may then be divided and sold at auction. Further information can be obtained from the "Verwalter der Döllinger-Stiftung der Universität," Munich, Germany. Breviaries and prayer-books are excluded from the catalogue, with the exception of two (Nos. 383 and 384), which are interesting and valuable from a bibliographical point of view. We may add that this noteworthy collection of books shows marked deficiencies in some departments, owing to the fact that Dr. Döllinger had the Library of the University as well as the magnificent State Library of Munich at his disposal.

The literary and artistic collections of the eminent Austrian encyclopædist, Dr. Constantin Ritter von Wurzbach-Tannenberg, who died at his villa in Berchtesgaden, August 18, 1893, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, have been secured by the Vienna City Museum, where they have been placed in a distinct compartment bearing the name and adorned with a bust of the deceased. About a year ago we called attention to the proposed sale of these choice and really unique collections, and it is to be regretted that they were not purchased by some institution in the United States. The library is not very large (6,500 volumes), but is very valuable, and among the 50,000 portraits of distinguished persons, consisting of copper-plates, steel engravings, woodcuts, etchings, etc., are many exceedingly rare prints. The municipal council of Vienna has also named one of the streets of that city Wurzbach Strasse.

With the death of Dr. Julius Froebel at Zurich, Switzerland, on November 6, in the eighty-ninth year of his age, a remarkable man has passed away, whose scientific attainments won the respect and friendship of Alexander von Humboldt, and who played an important part in the political history of Germany before and during the Revolution of 1848, and exerted no small influence upon the course of events which led to the reconstitution of his fatherland in 1866 and the final founding of the Empire in 1870. The two volumes of his autobiography were reviewed in these columns soon after their publication in 1890 and 1891. He was a man of the strictest integrity and sterling merit, and might have died a millionaire if he had used the opportunities for accumulating wealth which were opened to him and fairly thrust upon him during his connection with the Austrian Government from 1862 to 1865.

—The fortunes and character of Montrose are of perennial interest to all good Scots. Yet the "Commentary" concerning his "Deeds," by his friend and chaplain, Wishart —a book which probably did more than any other save the 'Eikon Basilike' to win sympathy in Europe for the royalist cause—has not been printed in an English translation since 1819, and the Latin original has never been reissued at all since 1649. The new translation (followed by the text) which has just been prepared by Messrs. Murdoch and Simpson ('Deeds of Montrose,' Longmans), ought to be welcome; the more so as it is accompanied by the text and a translation of a "second part," or continuation, telling the story of Montrose's tragic end, which has apparently never before seen the light. The editors have added a wealth of notes which make the volume a very storehouse of historical detail, especially of that personal and genealogical sort so dear to the Scottish antiquary. They have also obtained and printed a number of documents from the Danish and Swedish archives, which add to our knowledge of Montrose's wanderings immediately before his last ill-fated attempt. The book is somewhat too ponderous and sumptuous for the shelves of the ordinary historical student, unless he is giving special attention to this particular theme; but every great library and every Scot of means ought to secure a copy.

—London's latest literary excitement has been Paul Verlaine's lecture on "Contemporary French Poetry." It virtually resolved itself into a reading from 'Sagesse' and 'Romances sans Paroles.' In M. Verlaine's estimation, apparently, contemporary French poetry begins and ends with his own. In the few words with which the reading was preluded, he referred to De Musset, to Baudelaire, to Mallarmé, to Merrill, to *les Jeunes*. But, so far as can be gathered, with this reference he was content. He was more concerned to set forth his theory, to repeat that which he has said before in his poems: The poet should *live;* he should be sincere. "*L'art, mes enfants, c'est d'être absolument soi-même.*" And then, at once, he passed on to the reading of proofs of his own sincerity, of his own truth to himself. About the wilder period of his career, that period when he plunged into what —as he expressed it—the church calls sin, the world debauchery, he held his peace. 'Parallèlement,' its record, he never opened. But the emotions of the years that followed, years when he wore his robe of penitence, found expression in some of the most exquisite religious poems in the little volume 'Sagesse,' the cry of repentance which he sent to the world from his monastery in Picardy. It is worth adding that he drew, for London, a small audience, but still, one large enough to repay him for his visit, the tickets selling for a high price. He has lectured before, as he reminded his listeners—in Belgium, in Nancy, in Metz, his birthplace. A couple of years ago a benefit was given him in a Paris theatre, and "tout Paris" crowded to it; twenty francs, however, was all it represented for him. London has proved more profitable, as it probably did in the days of his first visit, some twenty years since, when he played the incongruous part of teacher. It would seem impertinent to dwell on this side of his latest venture, were not his poverty a fact impossible to forget; he himself, with his inveterate tendency to autobiography, not having hesitated to help make it conspicuous. Invalid as he now is, it is a pleasure to know that something has been done to add to his comfort.

—Early in the year we directed attention to the speculations of Mr. Charles Johnston on the multifarious inhabitants of India, as discriminated by color. These speculations he has continued to prosecute in the last issue of the *Asiatic Quarterly Review*, to which he contributes a well-written article entitled "The Red Rajputs." In sequence to every scientific ethnologist, he dismisses, as being altogether without even shadow of foundation, Colonel Tod's idea that this race is Scythian by derivation. In general physical features, and more especially in point of stature and color, not to speak of customs and habits, as he goes on to particularize, the Rajputs differ from any other of the various tribes scattered over Hindustan. Yet their color, though in all cases sufficiently marked to distinguish them, is not uniform, but varies, as we are told on the best authority, from light red, or almost orange, to dusky reddish or reddish brown. In fact, a Rajput is, to the eye, in many respects very like one of our own red men, whose hue is much more coppery in some cases than it is in others. And, according to Sanskrit literature, a complexion styled *rakta* or *lohita*, "red," was one of the differential peculiarities of a highly important division of the Hindus of

olden times. Dependent on the statements premised is Mr. Johnston's contention for the identity of the Rajputs with the Kshattriyas, or Râjanyas, the second of the four ancient Hindu classes, that to which, it is noteworthy, belonged the founder of Buddhism. Not only for venerableness of ancestry is the Kshattriya quite on a level with the Brahman, but, as indicating his status at one time in the distant past, a remarkable passage in a work of indisputably considerable antiquity, one of the Upanishads, speaks of the latter as sitting at the feet of the former. Whether the actual representatives of the primeval Kshattriyas are "Aryans," is a question which the essayist contents himself with admitting to be insusceptible of present solution. The term *ârya* is often found applied to the royal or martial caste; and he endorses the supposition of recent investigators, that it may have a wider denotation than that which was long attached to it. Mr. Johnston's conclusion that the Rajputs are descended from a race wholly distinct from the Brahmans will doubtless provoke discussion.

—An esteemed correspondent who found himself in disagreement with our review of Naomi Tamura's 'Japanese Bride' last April, calls our attention to the fact that the reverend author was reprimanded "for having falsely slandered his countrymen" in the book just named, by "the local synod of the Church of Christ in Japan," held at the Shiba Church, Tokyo, October 3-7. Further, that, pending Mr. Tamura's appeal to the General Conference, which meets in July, 1894, his appeal to the central church body at Kyoto has resulted in the confirmation of the local body's action. And finally, that the Japanese press censor has just suppressed the translation into Japanese. We have not overlooked these proceedings. In spite of the heat of the prosecution, the vote was a tie, and the reprimand was carried only by the casting vote of the moderator. Mr. Tamura alleged in his own behalf that his American literary advisers exposed him to misconception by striking out from his MS. the oft-recurring phrases, "in old Japan," "in old time," "under the feudal system," as repetitious and wearisome. We are not concerned with this defence or with Mr. Tamura's character, since our judgment of his book was based upon its intrinsic merits as tested by our own experience. On its face, we are disposed to regard the incident as a symptom of the present temper of over-sensitive Japan. The press censor who, as late as last year, punished Prof. Kumi for historical criticism, might have been expected to fall foul of a trenchant social criticism like that contained in 'The Japanese Bride.'

—We have received Catalogue No. 2 of Alinari's new photographs, comprising the various works of art in the wide-extended province of Umbria. The reproductions have all been made afresh, for an artistic spirit has found its way even into professional view-taking, and photographers are beginning to realize that the skill required in keeping a building or a piece of sculpture in focus is no less than in making creditable reproductions of pictures. The photographs Alinari Brothers (Florence) now offer, although they remain at the same low price, are indescribably superior in quality to those of a few years ago. The catalogue contains a number of works of primary importance that have never been photographed before, such as the many fine churches and public buildings at Todi, and that gem of Renaissance architecture just outside its walls, the Madonna della Consolazione. The Bramantesque Cathedral porch, the early Christian basilica, the Romanesque decoration on the portal of S. Pietro, and the so-called "Temple of Clitumnus," all in or near Spoleto, are now to be had in perfect reproductions. Another item of great value in the catalogue is Rocco da Vicenza's sculptured altar at Terni. Much space would be needed to give an adequate idea of the importance of many of the pictures which these new photographs for the first time make accessible to the public. Benozzo Gozzoli can now be appreciated in his first bloom without the long drive and weary climb to Montefalco; a painter like Fiorenzo di Lorenzo, a great figure in Umbrian art, is at last brought within the compass of comparative study; and an adequate notion can now be formed of such interesting but not over-delightful masters as Niccolò Alunno and Lo Spagna without the tedious pilgrimages hitherto required. The Giottos, Simone Martinis, and Lorenzettis at Assisi, the Signorellis at Orvieto, Perugia, and in the upper valley of the Tiber, the Pinturicchios at Spello, and the Peruginos scattered all over Umbria, have been photographed isochromatically, and are to be had even in carbon prints. In short, no work of art of the first importance has been overlooked in this catalogue. It is, however, to be regretted that, while they were in the Cathedral of Gubbio, Messrs. Alinari failed to photograph the finest and most interesting picture it contains, Timoteo Viti's "Magdalen"; and one would like to see the series of Signorellis made complete by the addition of those at Fajano and Umbertide.

—Baroness Jemima von Tautphoeus, author of the popular novels, 'The Initials,' 'Quits,' 'At Odds,' and 'Cyrilla,' died at Munich on November 12, in the eighty-sixth year of her age. Her maiden name was Montgomery, and she was of Irish birth, with a strain of Scotch blood in her veins. In 1836 she visited Munich, where she married Baron von Tautphoeus. The fruit of this union was one son, who died some eight years ago as Bavarian ambassador at Rome. The shock occasioned by the sudden death of their only child so affected her husband that he fell into a decline and expired a few weeks later. Baroness von Tautphoeus was a cousin of Maria Edgeworth, and one of the pleasantest and most vivid recollections of her youth was her association with this charming lady and with the versatile and somewhat eccentric Lady Morgan. She was endowed in an eminent degree with the fresh and kindly humor which is the heirloom of her race, and which in her case age could not wither nor the severest blows of fate wholly destroy. It was this genial quality which in her childhood and early maidenhood caused her family and friends to pun on her name and call her "the gem." Her novels, like Jane Austen's, have taken the rank of English classics, and seem to have suffered no diminution in popularity during the forty years that have elapsed since she published her first work of fiction. Edition has succeeded edition with remarkable regularity up to the present time, and only a few weeks before her decease a new German translation of 'Quits' appeared at Weimar, and was warmly greeted by the German press. It is also pleasant to note that she received from the sale of her works in the United States, where there was no legal obligation to pay her anything, a much larger sum than from her London publisher. In her contract with the latter she was far too modest, and consented to accept whatever pittance he chose to offer, so that her pecuniary compensation was very trifling, and bore no proportion to the literary and commercial value of her writings. A like modesty led her persistently to refuse to furnish editors of biographical dictionaries and compilers of cyclopædias with any information concerning her life; to the numerous applications of the kind received she uniformly replied that her place in literature was not sufficiently conspicuous to render personal items of this sort of any interest to the general public. For this reason her name nowhere appears in such books of reference, and not the slightest sketch of her life derived from authentic sources has ever been printed. No urgency on the part of her friends could overcome this native reserve; even her husband knew nothing of her literary work or ever saw her engaged in it, and was as surprised as any stranger would have been when the finished volumes lay on the table before him. After his death she shrank from forming new acquaintances, and confined her social intercourse to a sympathetic circle composed of her nearest kin and a few congenial friends. She now lies at rest by his side in the family vault at their country-seat, Castle Marquardstein, in the Bavarian Highlands.

## DODGE'S 'RIDERS OF MANY LANDS.'

*Riders of Many Lands.* By Theodore Ayrault Dodge, Brevet Lieutenant-Colonel U. S. Army. Harper & Bros. 1893.

MR. HOWELLS has recently said in *Scribner's* that the author who is so fortunate as to have his articles gathered together from the numbers of a magazine and made into a book, must expect little pecuniary reward—that he should regard the money it brings him as money found in the road. But this handsome and attractive book, which has made its pilgrimage through *Harper's Magazine*, looks as if it were destined to bring its author substantial returns. It is attractive in its outward form, attractive in its sixty-eight illustrations, ranging from the statue of Alexander the Great by Lysippus to an Hawaiian girl riding astride in her divided skirt; attractive in its subject, which is literally as wide a one as its title indicates, for its discursive comments run from the treatise of Xenophon to the platitudes of an Anglomaniac. It is the work not only of a horse-lover and critical observer, but of an old soldier, and contains no end of odd bits of information, as that, in the Loyal Legion, "whoever refers to politics at a meeting of the commandery is for the first offence fined thirty dollars, and for the second is dismissed the order"; that in Persia a viceroy is appointed with a salary and emoluments of, say, four thousand lashes per annum; that, "after making himself agreeable to his new subjects and getting settled in his duties," he sends word to a rich man of his district that "out of his own loving kindness he awards him two hundred of his four thousand annual lashes"; that St. Paul was mistaken, and if he was not that his translators are, etc., etc.

It is one of those delightful books in a conventional world which one comes upon not once in a decade, wherein the author says just what he pleases and when he pleases and where he pleases. The reader who has a grain of humor in him no bigger than a pinch of snuff will find endless entertainment in it. At page 178, in the midst of a discussion on "the high school of equitation," a paragraph bursts forth with "I once knew a charming old maid in England," and then follows a disqui-

sition on old maids which many silly young men may read with interest and profit. On the next leaf Colonel Dodge tells a story about a well-bred Englishman, a visitor in this country, who was fed by his American cousins "constantly"—we fear that this is an exaggeration—"on that confection yclept Washington pie." One day, after he had been fed too much of the confection, unless, perhaps, it was underdone, he felt uncomfortable. Instead of growling and grumbling, and alluding to the blasted climate, like the proverbial Englishman of fiction, he meekly and quietly remarked: "Doubtless General Washington was a great and good man, but d—— his pie." Then the Colonel has something to say about Browning, and then he goes back to "the high school of equitation" and "delicacy in the use of the legs."

It is just the book for a good, old-fashioned *London Quarterly* criticism of an American book. When we reflect what delicious mince-meat it would have made in the hands of a British critic fifty years ago, it seems a book born out of due season. It is of the sort in which you can never find something you want where you expect to find it, and in which you unexpectedly come upon it the moment you have stopped looking for it. Of course there is neither index, nor table of contents, nor explanatory note, nor preface—the nominal preface is not about the book, but about the author and an old Yankee who read Webster's Unabridged through from beginning to end. Col. Dodge frequently refers to Col. Dodge: "Dodge" tells us this and "Col. Dodge" records that. The reviewer of course knows that he is citing that remarkable and not half appreciated book, 'Forty Years on the Plains'; but a reader who has not met with that most instructive and interesting study of Western barbaric life must wonder why our Col. Dodge speaks of himself sometimes in the first person and sometimes in the third, unless his eye has noted in the middle of a page the unexpected declaration: "When I refer to Dodge I mean Colonel Richard Irving Dodge of the Army."

A person "well up" in the matters discussed will gather new facts and ideas and suggestions, and will have little difficulty in deducing the real views of the impulsive author. But a youth going to the book for practical information on a given topic must be a good deal mystified as to what *our* Colonel Dodge really does think about it. The explanation is that he consistently says what he thinks, when he thinks it. Thus, at pp. 24, 51, 52, he thinks that the Indian is a brute, "a lazy brute," "a brute pure and simple who has always been so," "the most vicious brute that the sun ever shone upon," "a brute whose nature is a fit hotbed for our worst vices"; that the only good Indian is a dead Indian, and the problem "a simple question whether this broad land of ours is for the paleface or the redskin." But at p. 59 he thinks that "if the Indian could be given over to the army to care for, he would behave himself." Why? Because he is in deadly fear of the army? No, but because "he knows that he receives justice from the bluecoats." Again, at pp. 24, 90, he thinks that when the Indian "has sated his passion for adornment by wearing Uncle Sam's uniform for a few months, his greed for ease overcomes all sense of discipline, and he relapses into the indolent savage," and that the enlistment of Indians in the army has been attended "with questionable results." But at p. 55 he thinks that "the Comanche is capable of making as fine cavalry as exists, if subjected to discipline and carefully drilled"; and at p. 93 that the Indian has "two qualities which make him a servant of the republic equally tractable and reliable"; and finally, that "we are indebted to him for much of the best service, and in his ranks have been numbered many men whose names are household words." Really it seems to one accustomed to turbulent Caucasians, that a race which will behave itself on the extremely reasonable condition of "receiving justice" from Government officials, must be a mild and well-mannered people; and if it be the duty of the crowned heads of Europe to disband their armies and restore their soldiers to the ranks of industry, why should not the crowned heads of America do likewise, and content themselves with making Comanches into "as fine cavalry as exists"?

The trot is a gait which, metaphorically speaking, exercises Col. Dodge a great deal. On the one hand, he appreciates the trot, and on the other he abhors the Anglomaniac. On the one hand, he cites the Englishman who claims that a "horse can go seven miles on a trot for six he can go on a canter" (and "our cavalry officers on the plains—and they are the best judges of distance-riding alive"—"have arrived at a similar conclusion"), and he confesses that "the trot is unquestionably an easy gait for the horse." On the other hand, he avers that "nine-tenths of all animals belonging to the horse tribe in the world" use the other gait; that it is "more natural for a horse to rack than to trot." "Unquestionably," he cries, "*quoad* the saddle-horse, the rack must be called natural, the trot artificial." In one place he tells the young inquirer that "it [the trot] is the perfection of gaits [for the rider] if you rise to it"; in another, when advising the young inquirer as to the true requisites of a saddle-horse, he says: "If you have to choose between a good single-foot and a good trot, by all means take the single-foot, unless you prefer fashion to comfort."

Col. Dodge's "field is the world," and he has certainly gone around his field with commendable care, yet there are still two spots within it concerning which we greatly desire his criticisms. The first is Spain. We wish that he had taken illustrations from the wonderful canvases of Velasquez, showing, as has never been shown by artist, the graceful ideal seat of the gentleman rider of his time. And Spain, the home of the Andalusian steed, the horse of romance, is also an historical link in an important chain; for both the horse and his saddle passed from the Moor to the Spaniard; from the Spaniard to the Mexican; from the Mexican to the American. The second overlooked spot is Brazil. We confess it to be most unreasonable to ask Col. Dodge to take so long a sea voyage merely to make a study of the mounted Gaucho, but he might have found material for criticism in Sir Francis Head's 'Journey across the Pampas.' In this connection, too, we call his attention to a remark of Darwin's in the 'Voyage of the *Beagle*.' The Gauchos, it seems, ride with such apparent ease that it has been supposed that they use no muscular force; that they exercise no grip, but stay on a horse's back as a girl in a circus does, by being there. But, says Darwin, a Gaucho who had been employed for fifteen years as a porter in a warehouse was sent on a ride of twenty miles and back which required haste, and the next morning he was as stiff as any other old man would have been. Hence, concludes the great observer, he must have used muscular force, unconsciously and unapparently, for if there had been no strain on the muscles there would have been no stiffness.

We regret, too, that Col. Dodge should have quoted, as a rule for riding, the cockneyism, 'ands and 'eels low, 'ead and 'eart 'igh, instead of telling his readers of the Englishman who laid a wager of £50 (which we rejoice to say he won) that he could state all the essential principles of good riding in a stanza of four lines—which, for the benefit of younger readers, we repeat:

> "Your head and your heart keep boldly up;
> Your hands and your heels keep down;
> Your legs keep close to your horse's sides,
> And your elbows close to your own."

## RECENT NOVELS.

*David Balfour:* Being Memoirs of His Adventures at Home and Abroad. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*A Native of Winby, and Other Tales.* By Sarah Orne Jewett. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*Two Bites of a Cherry, and Other Tales.* By T. B. Aldrich. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*Balcony Stories.* By Grace King. The Century Co.

*Sweet Bells Out of Tune.* By Mrs. Burton Harrison. The Century Co.

*The Petrie Estate.* By Helen Dawes Brown. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*The White Islander.* By Mary Hartwell Catherwood. The Century Co.

*Pastorals of France, and Renunciations.* By Frederick Wedmore. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*True Riches.* By François Coppée. D. Appleton & Co.

*The Prince of India; or, Why Constantinople Fell.* By Lew Wallace. Harper & Brothers.

If there were no other reason for pleasure in the appearance of 'David Balfour,' it is enough that Mr. Stevenson has shaken off the spell of the South Seas and returned to those scenes which have provided his strongest literary inspirations. In his dedication he anticipates for the continuation of 'Kidnapped' the common doom of sequels, even going so far as to suggest a reception of hoots and missiles, but his fears were groundless, for he has achieved the exception and established a precedent. His foot is as free on the heather as if he had never known the shadow of the palm, and his long absence in the flesh seems only to have bound his spirit more closely to his native land. Early and loving attachment accomplishes description more vivid and—alas! for the photographer of the moment and the spot—more exact than the most careful observation consciously undertaken for artistic purposes.

There is no gap between the end of 'Kidnapped' and the beginning of 'David Balfour.' Davie has his hand on Fortune's hair and his foot on Respectability's threshold, but he is still in the thick of the trouble brought about by his accidental association with a detested cause in the person of his beloved Alan Breck. His capacity for hatred of an issue is laughably small in comparison with his personal loyalty. If all of the professed Jacobites had worked for their cause with half the heartiness of David's devotion to one of its representatives, how different might have been the course of English history. Mr. Stevenson plays a very clever hand when he exposes the dastardly Whig policy in Scotland after the '45 through the lips of a Lowland Whig. His arraignment of the Duke of Argyle and lesser Campbells, with their attendant

horde of spying, trafficking ex-Jacobites, may well be considered history rather than fiction.

For sustained imagination and breathless action, there is perhaps nothing in this volume equal to the chapters in 'Kidnapped' narrating the flight through the heather of David and Alan after the murder of the Red Fox, Colin Campbell. There is no situation so passionate and touching as the quarrel at the fag end of the flight between these queer comrades in peril. The interest, on the whole, is not so keen, but it has more scope, more side issues of character and event closely allied to the heart of the narrative. Compensation for speed is great in such characters as Charles Stewart the lawyer, disposed to peace, books, and a game of golf, but obliged to dance when the clan pipes; in Prestongrange, the Lord Advocate, willing to be human when not imperatively political; in James More Drummond, the "long false fleeching" son of Rob Roy. As Alan Breck stands for Highland virtues, loyalty, courage, and reckless generosity, so James More stands for their vices—vices to which only Mr. Stevenson's dauntless pen can give a just expression. How beautiful here is the spectacle of a modern novelist calmly ignoring science, not so much as touching his cap to that *bête noire*, heredity! Side by side with the despicable father stands the passionate, sensitive daughter, Catriona Drummond. Mr. Stevenson has hitherto shown women the cold shoulder, but now makes ample amend. Catriona's nature has serious, even tragic, depths, while her foil, Miss Grant, is gay and mischievous, with an eighteenth-century touch at once dainty and stately. The charm of each is indisputable, defying curiosity about its essence and baffling definition. If David had not first fallen in love with Catriona, he must have grovelled abjectly before Miss Grant. His love was, however, fortunate. Like his friendship, it appealed instantly to his fighting instinct and his sense of moral responsibility; it chastened his self-conceit and rubbed the edge from his asperities. A character so thoroughly realized and developed in circumstances of extraordinary interest cannot easily perish. The volumes of David's adventures make the author's most substantial claim to fame, and may well endure to testify to the sincerity, beauty, and living force of the art of fiction in these later years of our century. Such work is the solution of the case of subject versus style. The subject is worthy, and worthily supported by the style; the result seems to be literature.

Miss Jewett's 'Native of Winby' is another example of the natural and proper unity of idea and expression. It would be hard to name stories better from any point of view than are four at least of those included in her latest volume. There was a time when she trembled on the verge of fashionable art, the art of writing a tale wherein no tale is discoverable; but she never went over to the unintelligibles, and is now firmly reëstablished on the old, sure ground of something to tell. One of the most vivid of general impressions about New England is given by those innumerable women very interesting for reasons which have nothing to do with being in love or being made love to. Most of them have passed, happily or unhappily, the years when love-making is very important. They are reticent and inexpressive to the stranger, who can only guess at their sorrows, personal or vicarious, from physical signs and tokens. It has been given to Miss Jewett to express these women, to paint their external life and manners, to reveal the secret emotions of the heart and yearnings of the soul. The dominant tone is sad, but the wail of despair is seldom heard; poverty does not shriek for alms, nor sickness of body or soul for pity. The "Stern Daughter of the Voice of God" compels repression, and the beneficent spirit of national humor in its most delightful mood lightens profoundest misery. A poorhouse would not be half bad if one could be sure of the company of a Betsey Lane. Several writers have won success in Miss Jewett's field, but not one has a similar grasp of situation and character, her tenderness or anything like her sense of proportion. So free is she from strain and extravagance, so easy and adequate in expression, that she goes far to remove any doubt about whether great naturalness is or is not the final phase of great literary art.

This great naturalness is just the phase which Mr. Aldrich, with all his skill, has failed to reach. He is inexpressibly neat, his polish is brilliant, but one smells the ink. Then he has that trick of the surprising end which, though very clever, has for years been confidently counted on. He is, however, supremely ingenious, and nobody else can do his trick half so well. In the volume entitled 'Two Bites of a Cherry,' he is far from dependence on the trick for success. The episodes are interesting and the characters clearly though sketchily indicated. The mission is not to furnish thought, but distraction. The story which best bears a second reading is "My Cousin the Colonel," which, to use a school-girl phrase of approbation, is simply splendid. Though the material of which Col. G. W. Flagg is created has been frequently used, Mr. Aldrich has given the tattered and torn wanderer from Dixie the spirit and freshness of a genuine inspiration. The predicament into which the genial colonel forces poor Tom Wesley, not to mention his wife, is perfectly comic, and the fun is admirably sustained. The Wesleys' joy in him would be purely reminiscent, creeping slowly, after assurance of safe return to their lonely status of people without a relation, temporarily disturbed by Flagg; yet the hour must have come when the thought of him brought inextinguishable laughter, and when they agreed that it was better to have known and suffered than never to have known at all.

Miss King's 'Balcony Stories' resemble an exercise in composition for the abolition of the verb. An attempt to boycott the adjective might be commendable, but what the unobtrusive and useful verb has done to be so slighted, and why the dash should be treated as the most enlightening symbol known to typography, are things past finding out. Aside from the studied insult to the verb, Miss King appears to have taken great pains to achieve the unintelligible. Her compositions are not stories, but hints at stories, and most of the hints are so vague, so mysterious, that to take them with certainty would need phenomenal acuteness. Miss King is an impressionist; her observation is colored by her temperament, and she aims at the production of effect by suggestion. An impressionist who has not positive literary genius, like Pierre Loti's, for instance, is apt to appear to be a person quite bereft of human reason. Miss King has sympathy, decided ability for graphic description, and a very great tenderness for various kinds of misfortune; but all these things can avail her nothing so long as she clings to a declamatory, interjectional manner, and scorns the counsels of common sense.

There is nothing fragmentary or elusive or incomprehensible about 'Sweet Bells Out of Tune.' It has no more mystery than have newspaper descriptions of social functions, and much of it might have been written primarily for a "society column." In justice to Mrs. Harrison it is to be assumed that she intended to satirize her sordid and vulgar assemblage of snobs and flunkeys, but in defence of letters it must be said that she has quite missed her point. The force of social satire largely depends on that sense of his perfect aloofness from his subject that the satirist contrives to give the reader. Here the author is thoroughly identified with her subject. She gives no sense of standing apart and scorning an ill-bred, ill-educated mob, insistent about its butler and footman, and imagining that perpetual iteration of a few phrases which are sparingly used by a limited number of English people proclaims rank and distinction. To use one of these phrases, she appears to be "awfully in it." So much is the author taken up with this mob, its external gorgeousness, its ignoble strivings, spats, and bickerings, that she has no space in which to develop rationally the estrangement between Mr. and Mrs. Vernon leading to the crisis of separation. They are mere shadows of a virtuous woman, sentimental and incapable of tackling a serious situation, and of a selfish and worthless man. It is useless to assert that Gerald is a good fellow, all right at heart, etc., and to effect his reformation through an attack of typhoid fever. Not one circumstance supports the assertion, or inspires the belief that Gerald's reformation could be a bit more sincere than that of the devil in the ancient saw.

The 'Petrie Estate' is a conscientious endeavor towards solid construction and character-drawing. Conscientiousness is its conspicuous quality, and enough of that applied to any undertaking generally produces something respectable, if not brilliant. Miss Brown has boldly anchored her plot to a lost will, and has managed to do great things with her testament during the period of concealment. Her story covers the doings of Miss Coverdale during her brief enjoyment of the Petrie estate. Miss Coverdale is an elaborate evolution from the author's mind; she is intended to realize that high standard of all-round perfection, to attain which the modern teaching and writing women are always lashing the others on. We may say at once that she *is* perfection, that she is compounded of all that's best in man and woman, and that she is securely removed from human proneness to error. It is our unbiassed opinion that no living woman has yet reached Miss Coverdale's height, but we have little doubt that if all women keep on shouting, some one athletic woman will get there some day, then immediately and gladly die. Several minor characters are very well sketched, particularly John Hathaway, the overworked business man. Mrs. Bisbee represents one of those pits that the young-lady novelist often digs for herself. She is heralded as a sparkling wit; her past witticisms are enthusiastically referred to; she herself is not above mentioning that on such and such an occasion she said a pretty good thing. But, cruellest of her sex, she refuses to gratify us with even one scintillation, and obliges us to part from her with a feeling of extreme vindictiveness.

Mrs. Catherwood's 'White Islander' is a French girl, the adopted child of a Chippewa chief whose lodge is on the Island of Mackinac. The incident is the double rescue of an English trader, first from the tomahawk on the mainland and afterwards from the stake on the island. Here is matter for raising the hair and curdling the blood, but the manner of

narration is so heavy and lifeless that the pulse declines to hasten its beat. If it be possible for an Englishman with peril of a hideous death hanging over him to conceive a violent passion for a woman, Mrs. Catherwood's instance carries no conviction. What chiefly strikes one in the scene where Henry, bound to the stake, the flames licking his feet, calls on the priest to marry him to Marie, is not the intended pathos or tragedy, but the novelty of such attachment to the marriage rite. A man here and there may prefer the prospect of the altar to that of the stake, but who ever before heard of one voluntarily adding to the horror of death by flame that of the nuptial ceremony?

Mr. Wedmore's volume of stories is well named 'Pastorals of France.' In the tales of Pornic, of Croisic, and of Chartres, the influence of nature on character and the harmony between them are admirably marked. The sentiment of scene is beautifully given, and the particular description is neither dry nor categorical. The incidents illustrate sadness in love rather than joy, yet are not oppressively melancholy. Even the old Curé of Chartres is not a wholly desolate figure. One knows that he has run the gamut of earthly disappointment, and also that he cannot be overwhelmed. His character is drawn with great strength and delicacy, which qualities are indeed conspicuous throughout the book. The first of the "Renunciations" is a good sketch of a prosaic life illumined by one wonderful incident. It may be objected that the incident is too fantastic for probability, but it is so well imagined that the objection can only be an afterthought. The volume closes with a tragedy swift and shocking in fact, and told with fine restraint.

'True Riches' could be easily spared from the works of François Coppée without injury to his reputation. It is a great pity that a French author cannot be good without also being dull or trivial. Here M. Coppée is very, very good, and fairly prattles forth his illustrations of the happiness to be achieved by the practice of virtue. The translator's method is a childish one of literal rendition of French forms and idioms, whereby the infantile air of the volume is much heightened.

An obvious reflection on 'The Prince of India' is that General Wallace builds his novels with single reference to the dictum of the prosaic *Director* in Faust:

"Die Masse könnt ihr nur durch Masse zwingen."

He means to appeal to the multitude, and relies on quantity to see him through. He has hitherto been so successful with his multitude and his quantity that he can afford to disregard the handful that feebly sigh for quality. To give concisely any notion of the contents of the two volumes lies not within the modest powers of a reviewer. There are arguments political, philosophical, religious, the latter taking cursory notice of the controversy about the procession of the Holy Ghost; there are wars and intrigues and abductions; there are princesses and Hegumens, sheiks and emirs, a Gul Bahar, an Emperor, and a Sultan, all madly loving and hating, and all as wax in the hands of the Prince of India—the Wandering Jew.

The shining characteristic of this legendary figure is, according to the author, vindictiveness. He got up a splendid scheme (somewhat similar to the Congress of Religions at Chicago), which was designed eventually to bring all nations and creeds to worship one God—a God, to quote Gibbon, "without a rival and without a Son." When Constantine declined to consider the project, its instigator turned to the Sultan, Mohammed II., and conducted him, by the aid of the stars in heaven, even to the temple of St. Sophia. Both the Jew and the Sultan are picturesquely imagined, and their genuine life shines through the dense cloud of distressing verbiage. The Emir Mirza, presumably adapted from Scanderbeg, is an attractive person, relieved from the burden of inevitable treason by Mohammed's generosity. When so much is done it can hardly be expected that it should be done well. Still, more care might have been exercised in the distribution of pronouns, and it would seem easy to avoid telling us that people shot "menacious" glances, and that roses, or trays (we are uncertain which), "rouge" the daylight. As for the salaam "left outside the door," we are consumed with curiosity to know whether the author thinks that a salaam is portable property, and if so, whether the gentleman who left it came back for it.

## IN MASHONALAND.

*Travel and Adventure in South-East Africa.* By Frederick C. Selous. With numerous illustrations and map. London: R. Ward & Co.; New York: Scribners. 1893. 8vo, pp. xviii, 503.

THE author of this very timely and interesting book is the most famous of living sportsmen. He went to Africa in 1871, at the age of nineteen, and the greater part of his life since then has been spent in hunting in the region bordering on the Zambesi. A hunter by profession, he is also favorably known as a naturalist, and his services as an explorer have won for him the gold medal of the Royal Geographical Society. During the last four years his employment has been that of a pioneer, and to him more than to any other man, except Mr. Rhodes, the occupation of Mashonaland by the Chartered Company is due. When the Matabele war broke out, he was in England, but immediately returned to Africa and acted as guide to the detachment of imperial troops. In the battle of November 3 he is reported to have been slightly wounded.

The first part of his book, containing an account of the incidents and adventures of his various hunting trips during the years 1882-'88, though less valuable, will prove to the general reader more entertaining than the historical part. Many of the stories are, naturally, of experiences common to every hunter of the great game of South Africa, but several of the incidents narrated are very remarkable. Mr. Selous has been specially fortunate in the number and variety of his encounters with lions, and in the story of the two night attacks by them upon his camp he is seen at his best as a writer. A powerful piece of description, also, from its simplicity, is the account of his escape from the Mashukulumbwi after the looting of his camp. It would be hard to parallel his situation for desolateness and danger—alone in the heart of Africa, more than three hundred miles from his wagons, surrounded by hostile natives, with nothing but what he stood in and a rifle with four cartridges—and he was robbed of this the next night.

Pictures of life in camp, or in the bush, or while "trekking" across the plains, are frequent, and give one a vivid idea of its fascinations. And though the reader may become weary and at times wax indignant over the continuous slaughter, still the author's protest should not be forgotten, that he shot only for specimens for museums or for meat for his people. He has an unfavorable reputation for the wanton killing of large game, mainly because, in an account of his earlier adventures, he gave, in an appendix, an extraordinary list of his various "bags," a mistake which he has not repeated here. The speedy extinction of the larger South African animals which some have predicted does not seem to him likely, with the exception of the white rhinoceros, of which only a few individuals are now known to exist. The chiefs Khama and Lobengula, and the British Government also, if we are not mistaken, carefully "preserve" the hunting in their respective countries, and the day of indiscriminate and wanton slaughter has past. The only serious difficulty which Mr. Selous had with the famed Matabele chief was in regard to killing a hippopotamus without permission. In some regions, especially those raided by Lobengula's "impis," all wild animals of late years have greatly increased.

Mr. Selous had little elephant-shooting, but one encounter with a herd was remarkable for the extraordinary conduct of his horse. Being suddenly charged by an elephant at close quarters, our author resolved to dismount and run for the rocks.

"My stallion was, in some respects, a perfect shooting-horse, and immediately I leant forward and seized his mane he stopped dead. I was off and in front of him in an instant, and running for the rocks, which were not twenty yards away. As I got round the first rock I turned, and this is what I saw: The horse was standing absolutely still, with his head up and his fore feet planted firmly in the ground, as if carved in stone, and the elephant, which had then ceased to scream, and was making a curious rumbling noise, was standing alongside of him, smelling about with her trunk. In front of my saddle was tied a leather coat, with a red flannel lining—a present the preceding year from my friend poor Montagu Kerr—and I suppose that the elephant must have touched the horse with her trunk, as he suddenly gave a jump round, throwing the red-lined coat into the air. He then walked slowly to the rocky ridge behind him, and again stood still about fifteen yards away from the elephant."

This might have been ascribed to the paralysis of fear, had it not occurred a second time in the same hunt. Incidentally Mr. Selous gives some account of the habits of the animals he hunted, though less than might have been expected from one with so strong a taste for natural history; nor has he much to tell of the different native tribes with whose manner of life he was so familiar. On the other hand, references to his guns are not infrequent, while hints to sportsmen are scattered throughout the volume. Occasionally there is a graphic bit of description, as when, writing of a thunder-storm at night, he says, "the rain came down solid, in such a way that, although the soil under foot was deep loose sand, the lightning showed a sheet of water, for the sand could not absorb the rain as fast as it fell."

The pioneer work began in 1889 with the conducting of a gold-prospecting party through eastern Mashonaland. This necessitated a visit to the Portuguese settlements on the Zambesi, of which Mr. Selous gives an interesting account, as well as of the whole expedition. On his return to the Cape his favorable report of the apparent richness of the gold region, and also of the active preparations of the Portuguese to occupy it, led Mr. Rhodes to take immediate steps to anticipate them, and the author was engaged to act as guide to the Chartered Company's pioneer force. Before telling this part of his story, however, he describes, at some length, Ma-

shonaland, its resources, inhabitants, and antiquities. In treating of these he argues strongly against Mr. Bent's theory that a high form of civilization once existed here, which, with the foreign race of gold-seekers who brought it, was destroyed in some great catastrophe. As the natives within fifty years washed and mined gold, built stone walls round their kraals, and ornamented their knife-sheaths and pottery in a manner similar to the builders of Zimbabwi, and as there is to be seen in them a tendency to revert to the Asiatic or Semitic type, he holds that there has been a "gradual fusion of a numerically small number of a race of traders and merchants, who were themselves in a low state of civilization, with the aboriginal inhabitants of the country."

At the time of the British occupation in 1890 Mashonaland was almost an uninhabited wilderness, though before the Zulus settled in Matabeleland, about 1840, it had a large population who cultivated the ground, were rich in herds, lived, many of them, in walled towns, and practised some rude arts. Now the miserable remnant have fled to the top of almost inaccessible rocks, where existence is made yet more wretched by ceaseless dread of their terrible neighbors. Of this abject state of fear Mr. Selous had frequent experience. In one of his hunting trips his whole party "only numbered ten; yet, after crossing the Manyami, until I passed the extreme limit of the Matabele raids, the people everywhere fled precipitately at our approach, the old women running from the cornfields, wailing and shouting, and the cattle-herds and goat-herds leaving their flocks to shift for themselves." A raid was described to him by one who took part in it:

"When the impi came to Musigaguva, they camped close to the Mashona kraals, the inhabitants of which brought down food and beer for the Matabele soldiers, who seemed on very friendly terms with them, they on their side suspecting nothing. On the day of their arrival everything remained quiet, but the following morning the Matabele, acting on the orders of their endunas, suddenly surrounded the different small kraals, and then at once fell upon the unsuspecting inhabitants. None were spared, but men, women, and children were ruthlessly slaughtered, many of the infants, according to John Matoli, having been seized by the ankle and their brains dashed out against stones. It was in April, 1883, that this cruel massacre took place, and towards the end of the following November, on my way back to Matabeleland, I passed through the country, and, camping one night amongst the ruins of the deserted kraals, saw with my own eyes the devastation that had been wrought."

These Mashonas, it should be said, were tributaries of the Matabele, had large herds of their cattle in their keeping, wore the dress and spoke the language of their lords; nor was any reason ever given for their massacre except that it was the King's command.

The rights of this robber-clan seem to have been even scrupulously respected by the Chartered Company. The only wagon-road to the Mashonaland plateau from the British frontier led through Buluwayo, the residence of Lobengula, and when he refused to permit the pioneer force to use it, a new road was cut, under the guidance and superintendence of Mr. Selous, to the south and east of Matabeleland through a trackless wilderness for 460 miles. This was finished in the extraordinarily short time of two months and a half. Had the author foreseen the nearness of the inevitable conflict, which was successfully avoided in this and several other instances at that time, he would probably have given some description of the now fugitive king. As it is, he only leaves upon his readers the impression of a once strong personality somewhat weakened with age and infirmities. Of Khama, chief of the Bamangwato, he speaks, as all other writers have done, in terms of the highest commendation, calling attention at the same time to the ungracious return made by the Government for the great services which he has rendered the English. Mr. Selous naturally feels much confidence in the future of the new British territory, regarding it as valuable, apart from its mineral wealth, for stock-farming and agriculture. Although well within the tropics, its elevation of from three to six thousand feet above the sea-level gives the higher portions a "thoroughly temperate climate," with cool nights the whole year round. In winter it is "apt to become so keen and cold that an Englishman suddenly transplanted from home, and deposited, without knowing where he was, on some portion of the Mashona uplands, would never dream that he was in tropical Africa, but would rather be inclined to believe that he stood on some wild moorland in northern Europe; and the sight of a bed of bracken, looking identical with what one sees at home, would only lend color to this belief."

After the completion of the wagon-road, the author was engaged for two years in various ways in opening up the country and in making treaties with the Mashona chiefs, returning to England at the end of 1892. During this time he had an exciting night adventure with five lions which he describes admirably. It only remains to say of his book, which is by far the most interesting of recent works on Africa, that it is very attractively got up, with illustrations of unusual merit, a good map, and an index.

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*French Illustrators.* By Louis Morin. Preface by Jules Claretie. With fifteen plates and many text illustrations. In five parts. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

It is somewhat curious and not uninstructive to compare this sumptuous publication with the similar one on 'American Illustrators' brought out some time ago by the same firm. The comparison is not altogether to the disadvantage of the Americans, even though the ranks of the Frenchmen are filled with foreign recruits whose only claim to be considered French is that they reside in Paris. Caran d'Ache, though half-Russian, may properly be considered French, but Rossi and Marchetti are thoroughly Italian in their art as well as in their names, and Vierge is a Spaniard to the marrow. Kaemmerer is a Belgian, and Lynch a South American, and there are a number of other names with a suspiciously foreign sound. Even with these reinforcements, however, the "all Paris" team is not unquestionably victor. The Americans are as decidedly superior in some directions as the Frenchmen are in others, and the particular points in which each group excels are worthy of note. In some cases the result seems at first rather surprising.

France is the home of classic draughtsmanship, and the first of these surprises is to find that French illustration, as here represented, contains nothing in the line of the serious treatment of the human figure, nude or classically draped, that can compare with such American works as Vedder's 'Omar Khayyám' or Low's illustrations to Keats, to name no others. The men in Paris who can do that sort of work do not condescend to illustration, it would seem. It is perhaps so much the worse for our men that they are obliged to put much of their best thought into black-and-white, but it is certainly the better for our books. Neither can the Frenchmen match Abbey for delicate fancy, charming handling of pen-and-ink, and the dainty presentation of seventeenth and eighteenth century types and costumes, or Pennell for architectural drawing. In pure landscape the Frenchmen show little, while in pure decoration the honors are perhaps divided. Where Paris beats us thoroughly is in caricature and humorous drawing. The group of men headed by Caran d'Ache and Forain, and which includes such names as Renouard, Jeanniot, Steinlen, and Willette, is unapproachable. In some of them the humor is only in a slight accentuation of the type, in others it takes the form of broad farce, but in all of them the power of draughtsmanship, the vigor of line, and the economy of expression are such as to make our work in the same sort seem feeble and amateurish by contrast. The French comic draughtsmen are many of them the strongest and most vital draughtsmen of France. Ours are too apt to be either untrained artists, in whom fun supplies the place of knowledge, or trained artists who make pretty drawings and leave the fun to the text. We are improving in this respect, but we have still much to learn from the French.

Another class of men that we have not, and are not likely to have, in America are the purely "military painters," like Detaille, who figures here by right of his remarkable series of drawings of the "Armée Française." The precision of gaiter-buttons, the intense interest in the smallest things that touch the life of the soldier, is a French trait, and the *peintre militaire* is a French institution. Perhaps it is to the extension of this love for precision in military matters to other things that is partly due what is, after all, the distinctive note of this collection. Certainly some of the military subjects are among those most clearly belonging to the photographic school. The school, however, is everywhere, and the extent to which realism has been pushed in France is astonishing and disquieting. One turns to plate after plate which is almost deceptively like a photograph from nature, as accurate and as stupid, until one begins to wonder if art and style and the personal element are all to disappear from modern art together, and, if so, why the artist might not as well disappear too and leave the field to the camera. We remarked recently on the degree of success with which the late Mrs. Cameron tried to turn photography into art, but here are men turning art into photography with even more complete success. Fortunately, the reaction has already begun. In painting we have Puvis de Chavannes and others. In illustration there seem at present to be only the humorous draughtsmen and the frivolous draughtsmen who maintain the tradition of selection and personal style; but even in serious illustration we are sure, sooner or later, to be delivered from the tyranny of the photograph.

The text which accompanies the drawings is of no importance whatever, and may be dismissed with a word. M. Morin is himself an illustrator, and, to avoid criticising his brothers-in-arms, has invented a tiresome fiction of an American millionaire and his friends visiting the studios of the artists and conversing with them. There are a few personal facts about the artists represented and some mention of what they have done, and, occasionally, a remark by one of them of some interest; but most of the writing is at the same time slight and dull. Fortunately no one need read it. The reproductions are admirable, and leave

little to be desired from the point of view of mechanical perfection.

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*Twenty Years at Sea;* or, Leaves from My Old Log-Books. By Frederic Stanhope Hill. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

This is a very readable book, having the genuine flavor of the sea and sea life. In addition to being as interesting as the fiction of Clark Russell, it gives in a healthy and natural manner many interesting and exciting phases in the life of the author in times of storm, battle, and blockade. Capt. Hill, who in the narrative uses the *nom de plume* of Capt. Kelson, had a long and successful career in the merchant service, followed by an active and honorable experience during the civil war as a volunteer officer in the navy of the United States.

The description given of his first voyage, as a boy of thirteen, from New York to Rio, is excellent, without glamour or apparent exaggeration. Service in the merchant marine was chosen by the author's father as affording the best test for the strength of the boy's sea-longing, and also providing the quickest relief if sea life proved unpalatable. Good judgment was here shown, and when the first voyage confirmed the author in his desire for such a life, he still remained in the merchant service; his observations of the gray-haired lieutenants of our navy stationed on board vessels in Rio harbor assured him of the better possibilities of advancement in the merchant service. That he was not mistaken in the latter his narrative shows, for he commanded a full-rigged ship before he reached the age of twenty-one. The merchant service holds forth fewer opportunities in these days, at least under the American flag, while the naval service is about the same if not worse, so far as the possibilities of advancement are concerned; command rank being now attained in the neighborhood of fifty years of age, and retirement following at sixty-two years.

While serving as a mate on board of the ship *Thomas H. Perkins*, the writer accompanied a detachment of Col. Stevenson's regiment of New York volunteers in its somewhat famous voyage to California before the days of the discovery of gold. These men were a rough set, and the experience with them at the time must have been far from pleasant. An amusing incident occurring shortly after the arrival at Rio, on the part of the company of Captain (now General) Lippitt, must in these later years provoke a smile from him, no matter how vexatious it was at the time.

Captain Hill had a trying experience with his first command. It reads like a romance. While detained in Santiago in Chile, securing a permit to ship copper, the mate left in charge of the ship at Valparaiso tampered with the crew, secured a gang of beach-combers from shore, and ran away with the ship and seventy thousand dollars in silver on board and disappeared from the sight of man. Falling in, fortunately, with an old boon companion of the runaway mate, the writer ascertained the probable whereabouts of the ship, and, fitting out an expedition in a fast-sailing schooner, found his lost ship on the other side of the Pacific in the Admiralty group north of New Guinea. Recapturing his vessel after some fighting, he proceeded upon his way to Hong Kong, and, after a later encounter with a typhoon, finished his voyage most successfully.

After seventeen years of constant sea-going, the sea was abandoned for business life on shore. In two years, however, our author was afloat again, this time in the navy, at the beginning of the late war, as a volunteer officer. His first service was upon the *Richmond* in a stern chase after Semmes, then in command of the *Sumter*, and the service was continued through the blockade of the mouth of the Mississippi, the passage of the forts below New Orleans with Farragut, the fights off Vicksburg and Port Hudson, and finally the passage of the forts and the following engagement which ended in the possession of Mobile Bay. Promoted to be an acting lieutenant for his creditable service, he was given the command of a sailing vessel transformed into a man-of-war, and stationed upon the coast of Texas for blockading purposes. Here the tedium of blockades was relieved by the excitement of narrow escapes from seizure on shore and by some clever captures of blockade-runners. Transferred to the upper Mississippi River in the latter part of the war, he was engaged, while in the command of several vessels, in the patrol of the river to prevent the trans-Mississippi forces of the Confederacy from crossing over and joining the main armies of the Confederacy. This monotonous but most important duty was faithfully performed, and a hitherto unwritten episode of the war is related of a proposed betrayal and delivery of a steamer by a Union naval officer of the volunteer service, who, bewitched by a beautiful Southern girl, was about to be faithless to his trust when the timely discovery of his treason was made.

We can commend this book as one of the best of sea tales recently issued, and a worthy successor of the classic book of Dana, written also by a fellow-New Englander.

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*Schuld oder Unschuld des Templerordens:* Kritischer Versuch zur Lösung der Frage. Von Dr. phil. Julius Gmelin. Mit einer besonderen Mappe enthaltend 20 Tafeln. 8vo. Stuttgart. 1893.

In the long-debated question as to the guilt of the Templars the scale seems at last to be inclining in favor of the accused. Prof. Hans Prutz of Königsberg is now almost alone in maintaining that they were infected with the heresies ascribed to them, and, while his special studies on the subject naturally give his opinions weight, even he has felt obliged to modify those opinions considerably, and in his latest work on the subject he contents himself with attributing to the members of the order a far less flagrant deviation from orthodoxy than he had asserted in his earlier publications.

We have now to welcome a new combatant in the lists—one who has already won his spurs by a learned and exhaustive essay on the Templar Rule, printed not long since in the *Mittheilungen des Instituts für Oesterreichische Geschichtsforschung.* Dr. Gmelin has devoted many years to the investigation of the subject in all its aspects—no previous writer has probably examined with such searching minuteness all the voluminous evidence extant relating to the trials; and the result is his conviction of the false and fraudulent nature of the charges put forward by Philippe le Bel, on the strength of which hundreds of Templars were tortured to confession, scores of them were burned alive for retracting, the order was suppressed, and its large possessions were confiscated, nominally for the benefit of the Knights of St. John, but to a great extent seized by those who were in position to profit by its ruin. One special feature of Dr. Gmelin's work will render it indispensable to all future students of the subject. He has been at the infinite pains of tabulating the controlling points in the confessions of about four hundred Templars in France—the cases on which the prosecution mainly relied—and he presents the results in a form admitting of ready examination and comparison, with such indications concerning the individuals as have a bearing upon the credibility of their statements. With this aid it will be comparatively easy hereafter for any one familiar with the general circumstances to estimate for himself the character and weight of the evidence, and to recognize the contradictions which deprive it of all significance, save as an illustration of the facility with which the inquisitorial methods of torture enabled a judge to secure from the accused whatever admissions were desired.

The Templar catastrophe is one of those dramatic events in history which can never lose their interest. The distinguished station of the victims, the suddenness and completeness of their fall, the horrors to which they were subjected, the sordid motives of the prosecution, and the savage means by which that prosecution was conducted to a successful issue, all conspire to invest the affair with a sombre picturesqueness akin to that of the most skilfully constructed tragedy. The whole course of action is dominated by the unflinching ferocity of Philippe le Bel, in striking contrast with the initial irresoluteness of his accomplice, Clement V., whose easy good-nature becomes even more remorseless than Philippe's rapacity when he finds himself inextricably compromised, and recognizes that, if he cannot destroy the order, the failure of the attempt will morally destroy him; while between the two stands the pathetic figure of De Molay, who abandons his comrades in the delusive hope of self-preservation, and then, after seven years of harsh incarceration, redeems his error by the voluntary self-sacrifice of an heroic death.

In such a story there is no element of interest lacking, and its able and vigorous presentment by Dr. Gmelin ought to secure many readers for his book, albeit it is not written for a popular audience, but is a scholarly investigation into all disputed points, polemical sometimes to the point of combativeness, but informed throughout with a thorough knowledge of the subject, in the light of the most recent research.

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*The Pilgrim in Old England:* A Review of the History, Present Condition, and Outlook of the Independent (Congregational) Churches in England. By Amory H. Bradford. London: James Clarke & Co.; New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 1893.

One of the pleasant signs of the decadence of that spirit of hostility towards England which characterized the average American of the first half of this century, and which demagogues do their best still to foster, is the interest now manifested in the details of English social, political, and religious life by a large portion of the reading public. The book under review is an outgrowth of this interest, and it makes a further appeal to the curiosity of a large American religious body to know something of the habits and thought of its counterpart in name on English soil. Under the fanciful title of 'The Pilgrim in Old England,' Dr. Bradford has put into print a number of addresses, chiefly made to the students of Andover Theological Seminary. His aim is modest; as he states it himself in the preface, his book "is not intended to be an exhaustive

study of ecclesiastical polity, nor a history of the rise and growth of an ecclesiastical order, but rather an exposition of the working of the principles which are taught and illustrated in the Independent, or Congregational, churches of England." Under these self-imposed limitations, Dr. Bradford gives a colloquial account of the rise of the body of which he treats, running hastily over its history, its organization and methods of government, its doctrinal tests, its present preachers and leaders, and its attitude on problems of the relations of Church and State. With his facts and impressions Dr. Bradford interweaves much of his own theories, and he writes with the American churches of his own fellowship always in mind. His admiration for the leaders of English Congregationalism is intense and rather undiscriminating, and his appreciation of the services of the body of which he treats in English religious development is always warm; but he believes that disestablishment would largely end Dissent.

Nothing is, perhaps, very new or very profound; but these addresses, as a whole, constitute a pleasant guide to a general acquaintance with the present condition and tendencies of one of the oldest of English Nonconformist bodies. They are of importance in that they gather together, as no other work does, the scattered facts of denominational life in the Independent churches; and the spirit in which they are written is that of hearty international good-fellowship.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adler, Liebman. Sabbath Hours: Thoughts. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Aspects of Modern Oxford. Macmillan. $2.
Barrows, Rev. J. H. The World's Parliament of Religions. Vol. I. Chicago: Parliament Publishing Co.
Black, Alexander. Photography, Indoors and Out. A Book for Amateurs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Black, W. The Strange Adventures of a Houseboat. Harpers. 80 cents.
Bradford, Rev. A. H. The Sistine Madonna: A Christmas Meditation. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 35 cents.
Briton, E. V. The Face of Death: A Westmoreland Story. Macmillan. $1.25
Brown, Rev. J. B. Stoics and Saints. Macmillan. $2.50.
Bosanquet, Bernard. The Civilization of Christendom, and Other Studies. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Buchheim, Prof. C. A. Goethe's Dichtung und Wahrheit. Four Books. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.05.
Burney, Frances. Cecilia. 3 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Byerly, Prof. W. E. An Elementary Treatise on Fourier's Series and Spherical, Cylindrical and Ellipsoidal Harmonics. Boston: Ginn & Co. $3.15.
Church, Rev. A. J. Pictures from Greek Life and Story. Putnams. $1.25.
Creamer, E. S. Adirondack Readings. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton.
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Davis, R. H. The Rulers of the Mediterranean. Harpers. $1.25.
Davis, J. C. B. Mr. Fish and the Alabama Claims. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Edgerton, George. Keynotes. London: Elkin Mathews and John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Fenollosa, E. F. East and West, and Other Poems. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Field, Rev. Henry M. The Barbary Coast. Scribners. $2
Filon, Augustin. Garrick's Pupil. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
For the Fourth Time of Asking. Boston: Roberts Bros. 50 cents.
Garbe, Richard. The Redemption of the Brahman. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. $1.
Gore, Prof. J. H. Congressional Manual of Parliamentary Practice. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.
Green, J. R. A Short History of the English People. Illustrated edition. Vol III. Harpers. $5.
Greer, Rev. D. H. From Things to God. Whittaker.
Harley, Cecil. The Shadow of a Song. G. M. Allen Co.
Holden, Martha E. A String of Amber Beads. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Hood, Thomas. Humorous Poems. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.
Hughes, Thomas. Tom Brown's School Days at Rugby. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $3.
Hyne, C. J. C. The Recipe for Diamonds. Appletons.
Johnston, Dr. James. Reality versus Romance in South Central Africa. F. H. Revell Co. $5.
Keith, Alyn Y. A Spinster's Leaflets. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Latimer, Elizabeth W. Russia and Turkey in the Nineteenth Century. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50.
Longfellow, H. W. Evangeline. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Lorimer, Rev. G. C. The Baptists in History. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.
MacArthur, Arthur. Biography of the English Language. Washington: W. H. Lowdermilk. $1.50.
Mallock, W. H. Labor and the Popular Welfare. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
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*St. Nicholas.* 1893. 2 vols. The Century Co.
Stoddard, W. O. Tom and the Money King. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co.
Stuart, Esmé. Through the Flood. Whittaker. $1.25.
*The Century.* May—October, 1893. The Century Co.
The City Government of Philadelphia. Philadelphia: Wheaton School of Finance.
The Heptameron of the Tales of Margaret, Queen of Navarre. Newly Translated into English. 5 vols. London: Society of English Bibliophilists.
The *Mother's Nursery Guide.* Vol. IX. *Babyhood* Publishing Co.
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Wallaschek, Richard. Primitive Music. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
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Wratislaw, Theodore. Caprices. London: Gay & Bird.


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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 21, 1893.

## The Week.

It is an unmistakable fact that the demand of the country at the present time is for speedy action on the tariff bill, and that a conclusion of some sort is really of more importance than the nature of the bill itself. The reason for this is very easy to see. With a duty of 1,000 per cent. or with absolute free trade, the manufacturer, the importer, the jobber, the country merchant, the moneylender, and the housekeeper, all know what to expect. Foresight is the first element and factor of commerce. Foresight is impossible in the present state of uncertainty respecting the new tariff, which is to go into effect on the 1st of June—perhaps. Carpet-making, for instance, one of the country's greatest industries, depends on foreign wool as its chief raw material. The duty on these wools is 32 per cent. There never was any reason for any duty at all on these wools, as they are not produced in this country. A duty was enacted, however, in obedience to the dictates of the grand tariff "combine." The wool-growers were afraid that some carpet wool would be used in the manufacture of clothing if there were no duty. So it was enacted that 32 cents tax should be paid on every dollar's worth of carpet wool, and then goat's hair, and camel's hair, and other materials never produced here were taxed lest they should be used as substitutes for wool. In respect of carpet wools the McKinley tariff became a perfect hornet's nest of difficulties to the honest manufacturer. No legislation of the middle ages could be worse. Nevertheless, the manufacturers know now what it costs to get wool. They have measured all the difficulties and have fixed the prices of carpets accordingly. But what can a manufacturer do now, with the prospect of free wool after the first of June? He cannot "stock up" with wool at 32 per cent. duty. He cannot load the market with carpets made at high cost when he has reason to think that low-cost carpets will make their appearance by the 1st of July.

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President Cleveland is criticising the former administration, say the Hawaiian annexationists. That is true if it is a criticism to present in very clear light the fact that President Harrison sent in the treaty of annexation on the 15th of February, 1893, or about two weeks before the expiration of his term, evidently hoping that it would be ratified and become an accomplished fact before the new President and Senate could assume the offices to which they had been chosen. This was an attempt to forestall not only the new President and Senate, but also the people of the United States. Time and again it had been proved that the people were opposed to the annexation of distant islands. They had rejected the island of St. Thomas against the most urgent efforts of Mr. Seward to compass its acquisition. They had rejected San Domingo against the repeated and persevering efforts of President Grant. They would even have refused Alaska but for the feeling that its rejection would be in the nature of an affront to the Czar of Russia, to whom we stood under some obligations at that time. The traditional policy of the country, handed down from George Washington—and he left us nothing better, nothing which time has more fully approved—was opposed to such acquisitions. It was a most unjustifiable act on the part of Mr. Harrison to attempt a snap judgment on the people in the brief interval of two weeks before leaving office. It was also discourteous to his successor. The offence is aggravated by the fact, that in order to take the snap judgment, it became necessary to ignore the Queen's very reasonable request for a hearing. To give such a hearing would have involved delay till the new President and Senate should come in. If such a transaction in the ordinary concerns of life should come for review before a court of law, it would be characterized in terms which we should not like to see applied to a President or an ex-President of the United States.

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Senator Hoar is often amusing in debate, but was never more amusing than when he said on the 13th inst. that of the three hundred-odd cases of appointments of diplomatic commissioners by the President, without the consent of the Senate, only twenty or thirty were exactly like the appointment of Blount. Twenty or thirty will do. The fuss made over Blount's appointment and about the use of the word "paramount" in defining his authority is as childish as most of the other talk in this affair. Mr. Blount's report has put our Minister Stevens and the insurgents in the wrong, and has therefore set their friends in this country raging like angry fishwives. The insurgents now see their mistake. They see that they ought to have risen against the Queen without Mr. Stevens's help or connivance, and have overthrown her in a stand-up fight, and proclaimed themselves an independent republic if they had succeeded. Their position then before the world would have been unimpeachable, and President Cleveland would have had no right to investigate them; and they could have based their government on anything they pleased—men, cattle, sugar, or bananas. But they did not want to expose themselves to the Queen's bullets, and therefore got Stevens to lend them the United States marines; and when the Queen gave way to the United States, they hurried to Washington to get themselves into the Union, not foreseeing that this move would expose them to unpleasant inquiries, and would throw the ægis of the Constitution over the brown men whom they are trying to disfranchise on account of race and color. They now say of themselves that they are "Americans," and the only "respectable" people on the island, but this is what the Southerners said in the reconstruction period, and what they said when the Force bill was passing in the House. How did Reed meet this, and Lodge, and Hoar, and Frye, and the *Tribune*, and the whole Republican phalanx? We could, if we chose to give the space to it, dig out from their speeches some sad passages about the denial of the suffrage to poor colored men by respectable and rich whites; and yet the native Hawaiians are far more civilized than the negroes of the South, for they have had for eighty years a government with which we have had diplomatic relations and made treaties.

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Ex-Minister Stevens has suddenly discovered that he found authority for all that he did at Honolulu in instructions given by Secretary Bayard in 1887. He cites from Mr. Bayard's despatch to Minister Merrill the statement that "American citizens in Hawaii must be protected in their persons and property by the representatives of their country's law and power, and no internal discord must be suffered to impair them." Now, if Stevens considered this sufficient authorization for his conduct, why did he ask, from both Blaine and Foster, explicit instructions to aid the revolution? Was it because he noted Bayard's injunction, in the same despatch, to "abstain from interference with the domestic affairs of Hawaii"? However that may be, it is a pure afterthought for Stevens to pretend that he landed the troops to protect the persons and property of American citizens. He was asked by the committee of safety to land troops because "we are unable to protect ourselves without aid, and therefore pray for the protection of the United States forces." Not a word in their appeal referred to American citizens. When the local and the general government protested against the landing without permission—a thing which had never before been done in Hawaii—and asserted that life and property were per-

fectly secure in the city, Stevens himself was not able to say, in his evasive replies, that there was any danger to American interests. Indeed, there is overwhelming evidence that the city was quiet and business going on as usual, and that the landing of the troops was a great surprise to all not in the secret. For example, Vice-Consul-General W. P. Boyd testified that there was "no suggestion of disorder," and that it was the general impression that the troops had landed because they were "friendly to the movement of the committee of safety."

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The reported agreement of the city banks to furnish $30,000,000 of gold for export, if so much should be required in order to prevent a drain on the gold reserve of the Government, is an apt illustration of the changed condition of affairs brought about by the repeal of the Sherman act. Not only have the gold resources of the banks largely increased, but the mental attitude of the bankers on the subject of gold and gold hoarding is very much changed. Before the silver-purchase act was repealed, the yellow metal was much more highly prized than it is now. Everybody wanted all he could get. The apprehension of a time coming when gold would be at a premium caused a mental premium to exist all the time. Now, however, the bankers as well as the public are perfectly content that the gold standard exists and is not to be shaken. This point being settled, it is immaterial whether the banks have $30,000,000 more or less of that metal, provided the supply in the Treasury remains sufficient. If the country must part with $30,000,000 gold, it is better that it should come from the bank vaults, for the reason that people are accustomed to keep an eye on the Treasury stock, which is published every day, and to draw certain conclusions therefrom, while they are not in the habit of scrutinizing the bank returns, and, even if they were, they would not be likely to draw any unfavorable conclusions from a diminishing gold balance. In other words, the public imagination is worked upon by the gold in the Treasury, while it remains unaffected by that of the banks.

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Really there is no difference between the two sources for paying an international balance. As long as the Government is solvent the banks will remain so, and the distribution of gold between them is of little consequence. It is of much less consequence now than at any former time in our history whether the gold reserve of the banks is large or small. As time advances, we learn more and more clearly the priceless advantage we hold by reason of our distance from powerful neighbors, which enables us to dispense not only with a large army and navy, but also with a large hoard of gold, of which an over-supply is useless and costly. We learn that, to a nation which is not on the *qui vive*, expecting the tocsin of war to sound at any moment, gold is useful only for two purposes, viz.: as a test of the soundness of its paper currency and as a means of settling international balances.

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It is not strange that the bill for the admission of Utah as a State passed the House last week without a division, and that the Republicans did not feel anxious to go on record upon it under a call for the yeas and nays. Their party in 1890 admitted Idaho, which had only 84,385 people by the census of that year, and Wyoming, which had but 60,705; whereas Utah had three years ago a population of 207,905, and is growing much more rapidly than either Wyoming or Idaho. Nevertheless, it is a mistake to admit Utah or any other Territory now. Because we have several States which ought to be Territories is no reason for making another mistake of the same sort. Congressman Harter of Ohio put the argument against the proposition very forcibly when he said that we do not want any more States until we can civilize Kansas; in other words, that so long as Western States of the age of Kansas are capable of the follies we have seen in the past three years, we ought not to increase the risks of the nation by making new States of even less promising material.

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One reason why the Republicans in the House made no more serious opposition to the bill for the admission of Utah is the hope, which many of them entertain, that their party, instead of the Democratic, may profit by the movement. Although the present Democratic delegate from the Territory was elected by nearly 3,000 majority last year, the Republicans have been gaining ground of late years, and it is by no means impossible that they will be in control before a great while. But it is the height of folly for either party to pin its faith to the future of a new State. The Democrats consented to the admission of Colorado in 1876 because they thought they were sure to carry it, and then found that, but for Colorado, Hayes could not have been seated even after South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana had been counted for the Republican candidate. When Idaho was admitted in 1890, with only 84,385 people, the Republicans regarded it as sure for their party, and yet only three years later the Republican candidate for President lost its three electoral votes.

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The proposition to make Arizona a State is most indefensible. The population of the Territory in 1890 was but 59,620, and the gain in the ten previous years was only 19,180. The case of Wyoming was bad enough—a Territory which, we repeat, had only 60,705 people when it was made a State in 1890; but Wyoming had trebled its population during the previous decade, while Arizona gained less than 50 per cent. during the same period. It is to be hoped that the Senate will show more discrimination than the House in this matter of making new States.

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Senator Voorhees has recovered from the lucid interval with which he was mysteriously afflicted when the repeal of the Sherman law was before the Senate, and is now quite himself again with his bill, introduced on Thursday, to "go the Sherman law several worse" and play the mischief generally with the currency. He acutely remarks that "no one will be surprised by my introduction of such a bill." Neither by that nor by any other bit of demagogy on his part. The Indiana Senator talks in his large way about the bill's being certain to pass the Senate "by a large majority" and to "cure the present deficiency in the Treasury," but that, of course, is only part of the farce. All he wants to do is to prove to his followers of the baser sort that he is just the same old Voorhees that he always was, and that his heart still beats true to all that is wild and dangerous in finance. He thinks his ridiculous bill will do that; and if it is never heard of again, as we believe it never will be, it won't trouble him in the least.

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The official returns of the election in this State make it perfectly clear that the Democratic defeat was due entirely to Maynard's candidacy. The majority against him exceeds 101,000, while the highest majority against any other candidate on the Democratic ticket is only a little more than 25,000. It is very plain from these figures that it was Maynard's candidacy which pulled down the entire ticket, for it is strictly within the bounds of moderation to say that the entire adverse majority against the other candidates on the ticket was cast by Democrats who were so indignant over Maynard's nomination that they voted the straight Republican ticket. It would be necessary for only 12,500 Democrats to do this to bring about the result recorded. Undoubtedly a great many more than that number did so, for the fact that Maynard was beaten by 76,000 more votes than any other Democratic candidate shows how strong the Democratic opposition to him was. The surprising thing, under the circumstances, is, that the remainder of the ticket fared as well as it did.

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The sentence of John Y. McKane, the boss of Coney Island, to thirty days in

the county jail for contempt of court, in disregarding an injunction, at the time of the recent election, will be welcomed by all good citizens. The only regret will be that the punishment for such an offence cannot be more severe, the extreme penalty having been inflicted. But criminal proceedings have also been instituted against him, and there are strong hopes that he may ultimately have to suffer an adequate penalty for his crimes. Meanwhile it is a consolation that the scandal of his serving as a Sunday-school superintendent is to be abated for a month.

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One of the commonest forms of flattery of the American people, by politicians, is the assertion that "they are the most confiding people on the face of the earth." Croker evidently holds this view, for he printed an interview in the Sunday morning papers which is a wonderful attempt on popular credulity. As we have often pointed out, the only subject on which Croker, Gilroy, and the like, can possibly give the public any information is the source and amount of their own revenue and that of Tammany Hall. Croker's opinions, for instance, about the new anti-Tammany movement can be interesting only to people who expect him publicly to declare that it is good and formidable. And did any rational man expect him to admit that Tammany government was wasteful, and that blackmail was levied on liquor-dealers or gamblers, and that there was politics in the School Board, and that it would be a good thing for the Legislature to investigate the city departments? What he says on these subjects is what everybody knew beforehand he would say. It is only when he begins to talk about his own wealth and "position" that his talk becomes interesting. What his "position" is, he never mentions, but he speaks of resigning it, and not resigning it, and of "his duty to Tammany Hall and the Democratic party to retain it." Be it remembered that he holds no public office, and has no visible means of livelihood, and yet he talks as if he were mayor of the city or governor of the State. What is his "position"? What are its powers and duties? Is it a salaried "position"? What is the salary? Who pays it? These are questions to which his answers, if truthful, would be very instructive.

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With regard to his wealth, his confidence in the popular simplicity is almost amusing. We have his own oath that in 1888 he was a poor man. He has a stock farm now worth, he says, $250,000. He has a house which cost, he says, $80,000. He has race-horses which, he says, won $91,000 last year, evidently hoping we will believe that it was these winnings which put him in possession of the horses. But no man sets up a racing stable, buys a large stock farm and an $80,000 house who does not feel himself a very wealthy man. Racing and keeping stock-farms, far from being money-making employments, are, in fact, the amusements of very rich people. It is true there is a mortgage of $50,000 on the $80,000 house, but it was put there after the house was bought, probably in some temporary financial stress. Moreover—and this is the most important thing of all—this sudden accumulation of wealth was coincident with the acquisition by Tammany of complete control of the city and of the Legislature.

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The Richmond *Dispatch* comes down heavily on the proposed State-bank laws of Virginia and of the other Southern States which have passed or are meditating such laws. It can see no points of superiority in any of them over the present national-banking law, except, perhaps, in greater facilities for enabling speculators to get away with the money of a confiding public. As regards the bill pending in the committee on banking and currency at Washington for the issue of State-bank notes, it says very correctly that not a single bank would be established under it, or a single note issued, because the old system would be better. The new Georgia bank law gets a deserved whack also. This law provides that the capital of the banks shall be divided into two parts, one half specie and the other half bonds, and that both halves shall be locked up tightly before the bank begins business. In all these State-bank laws there is one controlling idea—the idea of the slot-machine. You drop in gold dollars (first invested in bonds), and then paper dollars come out. There is no economy in that except in the mere matter of luggage, paper being lighter than gold. The object of banking is to offset debts with credits, with just sufficient gold to insure continuous solvency. This is effected with a variety of instrumentalities, of which the bank-note is one. The true theory of banking is as foreign to the slot-machine methods as it is to the Eleusinian mysteries. Yet whenever a State legislature sets itself to work to frame a new banking law or to amend an old one, it begins as a child does with a tin savings bank that it has received as a Christmas present. It impounds the bank's capital and then tells it to go ahead. The present national-banking law is subject to the same criticism.

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Mr. Damrosch deserves and unquestionably has the support of the public in his struggle with the Musical Mutual Protective Union, which succeeded in preventing him from giving a concert on Sunday evening. He is making the same fight which Theodore Thomas made several years ago, and which every conductor who tries to maintain a competent orchestra will have to make until the power of this union is broken. Mr. Thomas was subjected to constant annoyance for years, and was put to heavy expenses in various legal proceedings in his efforts to recruit his orchestra with satisfactory players without first obtaining the consent of the union. So long as the union's rule that no musician shall be allowed to play with its members until after a residence of six months in this country is in force, conductors are practically estopped from bringing from Europe such artists as they consider necessary for their orchestras. As the union is controlled by men who are not artists, but very indifferent musicians, their rule acts as a compulsion upon conductors to accept the services of unfit or second-rate players. They place the fine upon their members for playing with artists who are not members so high that it is ruin for members to incur it. The members of Mr. Damrosch's orchestra endeavored to get him to assume the risk of their fines, but he very properly refused to do so. The consequence is that his men are put to the alternative of either abandoning the union or their contracts for twenty-five weeks' employment at good wages. At present they say they will stand by the union and remain idle rather than abandon the union and retain employment. Under these conditions they can expect no sympathy from the public, for they are suffering in an unjust and indefensible cause.

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The sworn returns of candidates under the British "Corrupt Practices Prevention Act" for the elections of 1892 show that the amount spent in England was £796,588 (against £864,190 that would have been permitted); in Scotland, £111,761 (against £129,460); in Ireland, £50,182 (against £135,780). The average expenditure in England per candidate was £831, averaging per elector polled 4s. 2d.; in Scotland, £740 and 4s. 8d.; in Ireland, £253 and 2s. 9d. The dearest and cheapest elections in England are noted as £1,968 and £28 respectively; in Scotland, £1,717 and £94; in Ireland, £1,231 and £20. The average number of electors in an English constituency is 9,715; in Scotland, 8,401; in Ireland, 7,222. The following are the percentages of total expenditure: Sheriff's expenses, 20.6; agents, 20; clerks and messengers, 10.4; printing, advertising, and postage, 32.3; meetings, 2.1; hire of committee-rooms, 3.1; miscellaneous, 6.3; candidates' personal, hotel, etc., 5.2 = 100. From the above it will be seen what a happy hunting-ground Ireland appears to be for aspiring legislators. Yet perhaps nowhere throughout the United Kingdom are a man's principles more closely, and, alas, his general character or fitness more lightly, scanned; and nowhere has the carpet-bagger, pure and simple, less chance.

### *THE HAWAIIAN MESSAGE.*

No one who cares for the honor of American diplomacy and statesmanship can read the President's Hawaiian message without a touch of honest pride. One of the most distinguished judges on the Federal bench writes to us concerning it: "What a superb thing this is of the President! I never read a state paper of such lucid, forcible, caustic narrative, and yet as smooth as a chapter of Macaulay." Nothing that Mr. Cleveland has written, nothing, as far as we can recollect, that any of his predecessors has written, has surpassed it as a feat of rhetoric. There are but few adjectives or epithets, but the march of the narration is as close, as orderly, as irresistible, and for the Hawaiian oligarchy and poor Mr. Stevens as crushing, as that of a Roman legion. From the first sentence to the last, the writer drives them before him in disorder, never allowing the smallest pause or stand in their flight. And the secret of this rhetorical success is, of course, that he had a good story to tell. Every step taken, from the moment he found himself face to face with the treaty of annexation down to the last instructions to Mr. Willis, was what every American who cared for the honor of his country must have wished. The situation as he found it had all the marks of what the French police call a "ténébreuse affaire." The haste with which the treaty was sent to the Senate in the very last days of the Harrison administration, the pains taken to prevent any representative of the Queen getting to Washington simultaneously with the representatives of the Oligarchy, the passionate interest of the American minister, the eagerness to launch the country on an absolutely new policy in the matter of territorial expansion without discussion by Congress or the country, were all signs that there was in the transaction something that would not bear the light; something for which haste and secrecy were absolute necessities.

As soon as the President reached this conclusion he did what every statesman and every business man does when he suspects. He sent the best person he could get to inquire and report, the *locus in quo* being 2,000 miles away, and only one side of the story having been heard. The abuse which the Oligarchs and their organs began to heap on Mr. Blount from the day he started was further proof, if further proof were needed, of the irregularity of their proceedings. When he made his report, it developed into positive raving, Mr. Stevens leading them all in vituperative incoherence, in falsehood and tergiversation. But luckily the President was not obliged to rely on Mr. Blount's report. The documentary evidence which accompanied it was a complete exposure of the annexation plot. Mr. Stevens was destroyed by his own despatches, and by the dates of the various events of the revolution. These showed beyond question that there would have been no revolution, and the Queen would have remained easily mistress of the situation, if Mr. Stevens had not literally put himself at the head of her adversaries and lent them the aid of the United States troops. Mr. Cleveland has here only to narrate clearly, but his account of Stevens's activity becomes at times almost picturesque.

In passing judgment on Stevens, however, simple justice requires us to mention that he was in diplomacy as well as in journalism the protégé and pupil of Mr. Blaine, and that almost the first act of Mr. Blaine's administration, when he took charge of the State Department in 1881, under Gen. Garfield, was to formulate designs on Hawaii. He wrote a despatch to Mr. Comly, the then American minister to Hawaii, in December, 1881, instructing him that the native population would soon disappear; that Hawaii "was part of the productive and commercial system of the American States"—whatever that may mean; and that "the problem of the replenishment of the vital forces of Hawaii presents itself for intelligent solution in an American sense—not in an Asiatic or a British sense." "A purely American form of colonization," he says, "would meet all the phases of this problem," and he hints that it would be a good place to send our Southern negroes. After a good deal more of the rather cloudy jargon in which he knew so well how to envelope a subject of this sort, he commended the matter to Mr. Comly's "earnest and immediate attention." We may be sure, then, that when Mr. Stevens went to Hawaii as our representative, in 1889, under Mr. Blaine, he was carefully filled with these same ideas, and acted in perfect confidence that any measures he chose to adopt to secure the political control of the Islands would be welcomed, *as they were welcomed*, at Washington. Mr. Blaine's life-long jealousy of the British, which he never lost an opportunity of expressing, became in Mr. Stevens a fixed belief that the British were trying to get the Islands away from him; and probably if we knew the secrets of his heart, we should find that no man was ever more astonished than he when he found that no protest against his proceedings came from London.

In his refusal to send the annexation treaty back to the Senate, and in his refusal to use force to restore the Queen, which his enemies were sure he would do, Mr. Cleveland leaves the Oligarchs on the Islands to get along as best they can. They have, as they openly avow, got nearly all the real and personal property in the Islands away from the natives, and perhaps it is best that they should now be allowed to carry on the government as long as they are able.

In washing his hands of them and their affairs, Mr. Cleveland has rendered the country the inestimable service of closing what must be considered the most discreditable chapter in our diplomatic annals, to which we can give no better name than that of Blaine diplomacy. It has consisted in the main, ever since Mr. Blaine took office in 1881, of a series of departures of the gravest nature both from the old and fixed traditions of the Government and from the rules of international morality. His first encounter with Lord Granville about the Nicaragua Canal showed only ignorance, but his quarrel with Chili, which President Arthur nipped in the bud, had all the marks of an indecent commercial enterprise. His "Pan-American" schemes, too, though probably a product of pure restlessness, promised for us, in case of success, a series of mortifying, because ridiculous, complications. His seal imbroglio was possibly an idea borrowed from Mr. Phelps. In the Barrundia affair he openly discarded the settled law of the land in dealing with a weak but friendly power; and the annexation of Hawaii was probably the last conception of a disordered and reckless ambition. To Mr. Cleveland, for ending this confusion, the country is under the deepest obligations. His statement of the reasons why we cannot annex Hawaii is the finest expression of real Americanism which this century has heard. Foreigners could not have a better report of the law of our national life in peace and war, and the best of it is that it is not new. It is the old gospel preached first by the founders of the republic.

### *THE CONDITION OF THE FARMERS.*

THE publication of the advance synopsis of the year's crop figures by the United States Department of Agriculture gives an opportunity to compile some important statistics on the prices and profits of wheat and corn production. Prices for 1893 were the lowest for years. The following table of prices at the farms, averaged for the whole country, tells the story briefly:

| | Ave. 1870 to 1879 in cts. | 1880 to 1889 in cts. | 1890 cts. | 1891 cts. | 1892 cts. | 1893 cts. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corn per bu.. | 42.6 | 39.3 | 50.6 | 40.6 | 39.4 | 37.0 |
| Wheat per bu | 104.9 | 83.7 | 83.8 | 83.9 | 62.4 | 52.1 |

Although the decline in average prices for the last four years is apparent, we must take the matter a little more in detail to understand its significance. Certain States produce all the surplus wheat and corn consumed in the rest of the country or exported. Four representative States are treated below. The figures are taken from the official publications of the United States Department of Agriculture, except the yields per acre for 1893, those being estimated from the best obtainable sources. The following tables

give the gross receipts per acre, the amounts being found by multiplying the average farm price into the average yield for each crop, for each State, and for each year:

CORN.
Gross receipts per acre.

| | 1890. | 1891. | 1892. | 1893. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ohio | $19 33 | $14 27 | $16 93 | $14 00 |
| Illinois | 14 53 | 15 06 | 12 21 | 9 30 |
| Iowa | 11 44 | 12 30 | 10 88 | 8 75 |
| Nebraska | 6 00 | 10 17 | 9 38 | 7 50 |

A few years ago the Illinois Board of Agriculture made a careful computation by counties of the cost of producing corn and wheat. In corn the cost of working averaged $5.50 per acre, including ploughing, planting, tending, gathering, and marketing. The census gives $36 as the average value of an acre of land in Illinois, including improvements, and 7 per cent. as the usual interest. Adding $2.50 for rent of land, we have $8.00 per acre as the cost, including interest, of raising corn in Illinois. Allowing for differences in value of land in the States named (adding for Ohio and deducting something for Nebraska), it is seen that the returns of the corn farmers were large in 1891 and 1892, and about even with expenses in 1893. Producers of corn are not suffering as are their wheat comrades, but the former, nevertheless, have this year no large sums of money to spend for anything but the necessaries of life. Four representative wheat States were also chosen:

WHEAT.
Gross receipts per acre.

| | 1890. | 1891. | 1892. | 1893. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Illinois | $11 23 | $15 56 | $11 91 | $5 61 |
| Missouri | 10 71 | 14 08 | 8 64 | 4 70 |
| Minnesota | 10 29 | 15 52 | 7 44 | 4 59 |
| North Dakota | 4 83 | 15 26 | 7 49 | 4 30 |

The average receipts for the present year are less than half those of 1891. The first two States grow winter wheat, the two latter spring wheat; but both classes show the same decline. The Illinois estimate of the cost of working an acre of wheat is $6.50, which, added to $2.50 for rental of land, gives a total of $9.00. A glance at the table on the basis of $9 cost per acre (which would more than cover interest on mortgages) shows a very large surplus for 1891. At a profit of $6 per acre a farmer who had 100 acres in wheat would clear $600 over all expenses and interest from that crop alone. All the wheat States, winter and spring, shared in this great profit. Another glance at the table reveals the fact that the receipts for the following year, 1892, about covered expenses, including in the latter term interest on investment or mortgage. But trade with the farmers was brisk in 1892 because the large profits of 1891 were not yet all spent. There was enough in 1891 to pay off some of the mortgages and to indulge besides in a better house, or a piano, or whatever the fancy dictated. These good times were continued through 1892.

But the figures for the present year tell a different story. The receipts per acre in wheat did not meet the cost of production. If any surplus remained from the phenomenal year 1891, it was needed to make up deficiencies. We enter the year 1894, therefore, with the resources of wheat-producers exhausted. It is, indeed, most unusual to find low prices concurrent with a poor yield per acre; just as we were conspicuously fortunate two years ago in having heavy crops and high prices. The present situation, of course, cannot continue indefinitely, but when the change will come is a matter of conjecture. Statistically, it was declared last fall that low prices for wheat could not long rule, but the demand—consumption—is a factor which varies with the ability to buy. If our own people, because of the silver struggle and the panic of last summer consequent thereupon, and if foreign peoples, because of business depression and money losses, find themselves unable or unwilling to purchase large quantities of grain and flour at high prices, figures setting forth the world's supposed need of wheat are to be received with caution. And as to business generally it is to be observed that if a large part of the Western farmers are working without profit and even selling their product below cost, it follows that their purchases of manufactured goods must be reduced, and that trade, so far as they are concerned, must be dull until better prices or larger yields, or both combined, restore the normal condition of a reasonable profit.

## *THE POPE ON BIBLE STUDY.*

POPE LEO'S latest encyclical has been long preparing and has been awaited with much curiosity, inasmuch as it was going, so report said, to set at rest many vexed questions about Biblical interpretation. We believe that those who know most about those questions have been somewhat sceptical in regard to the power of any one man, even an infallible man, to speak the last word on them, but nevertheless they have been anxious to learn from the Pope, if he had anything to teach them, and doubtless turned with eagerness to the epitome of the encyclical given out on Tuesday by Cardinal Gibbons.

It is a document which will doubtless seem to some timid Catholics as innovating and dangerous as some other of Leo's utterances, but which, tested by the real achievements of Biblical scholarship, must be pronounced commonplace where it is not self-contradictory. It would scarcely seem to require twenty-three quarto pages of Latin to prove that the Church ought to study diligently the supernatural revelation it has to communicate to men. Yet the Pope goes gravely and painfully at it, with citations from apostles and saints and fathers, in a way that irresistibly reminds one of the Committee on Political Reform of the Union League Club powerfully arguing that a government without a revenue cannot exist. All this is simply by way of preparation for the really important part of the encyclical, which lays down, in twenty quarto pages of Latin, "detailed rules for a thorough and scientific course of Biblical interpretation."

This looks promising, but on examination we find that his Holiness has simply got himself into two contradictions from which no one who tries to reconcile the historic Catholic position with modern methods of investigation can possibly escape. One of them is his certificate to the text of the Vulgate, "as the true and generally accepted text," conjoined with his the exhortation to a diligent use of Greek and Hebrew originals. Now it is precisely the use of the Greek and Hebrew originals which shows that the Vulgate is not the true text, the decision of the Council of Trent to the contrary notwithstanding. No conclusion of modern Biblical scholarship is better established than that the Vulgate is a poor translation of unsatisfactory original manuscripts, or that the comparison of documents and early versions and monuments which has been going on so busily for three hundred years has brought about a text of the Scriptures incomparably nearer the original than the Vulgate can possibly be. Thus the two parts of the Pope's exhortation eat each other up. He might have stuck valiantly to the Vulgate, or he might have come out boldly for the best Greek and Hebrew texts, but he tries to do both, and that is too much even for infallible dexterity.

The Tridentine decision that the Vulgate is the authoritative text was one great fetter laid upon modern Catholic scholarship, as regards Bible study, and in part accounts for the fact that so few names of Catholics appear on the long list of those who, since the revival of learning, have revolutionized our ideas about the Bible. The other great fetter was the equally historic Catholic view that the Church is the appointed and infallible interpreter of Scripture. With the text settled and the interpretation settled too, what was there left for scholars to do? Into this contradiction, also, the Pope plunges just as if he were an ordinary man. He speaks of the "divinely ordained sacerdotal faculty of ecclesiastical teachers," as the only ones by whom the Bible is to be interpreted, but then he goes on

to declare that "these must be well versed in Oriental and classical lore and languages." Why so? If it is a question of scholarship, why is not a man not divinely ordained competent to pronounce an opinion; and if it is all a matter of divine ordination, why summon scholarship into the question at all?

It is clear, in short, that the Pope is moving about in a world not realized when he undertakes to instruct mankind concerning the proper interpretation of the Bible. That question has been settled, just as other questions of historical and literary investigation have been settled, on scientific principles. Charles Kingsley's advice to the young fellow about to read for orders, to take words for just what they meant in the New Testament, precisely as he would in Plato or in Strabo, contains the gist of the matter. Cardinal Newman's assertion, on the contrary, that "orthodoxy stands or falls with the allegorical interpretation," is undoubtedly the correct position for an historic Catholic to take, and from which he cannot escape without getting into serious difficulties.

## THE DRY-ROT IN ITALY.

ITALY, December 6, 1893.

"DOVE ANDIAMO?" (Whither are we drifting?) is the title of a very remarkable article by the well-known professor (now Senator) Villari in the *Nuova Antologia* for November. The date has to be taken into account, as it precedes the public reading, in the Chamber of Deputies, of the report of the seven commissioners chosen by the president of the Chamber to inquire into the banking scandals, or, rather, to ascertain what ministers or deputies or public officials had, in their public capacity, any share therein. The seven commissioners, chosen impartially from all parties down to the radical republican Professor Bovio, after seven months of patient, unremitting, noisome toil, have done their level best to be impartial, to expose all sins of omission and commission which affect the public service. Taken as a whole, the "revelations" are far less scandalous than well-wishers feared or enemies of Italy hoped. Against successive ministers the one accusation brought is, that, knowing the financial conditions of the Roman Bank, they kept silence in order not to create a panic; that one and all urged the Roman and other banks to lend large sums to building and other societies, which is strictly against their rules; that more than one minister favored the loan of over three millions to a scamp who, it was well known, had received three millions from the Tuscan Bank ten years previously without paying a farthing—this to assist works in a part of the southern provinces where workers were many and labor scarce. None are accused of pocketing any of the loans. The deputies come off less cleanly: some had large loans while they were on the committees that were chosen to investigate the situation of the banks; journalists and editors of papers received annual subsidies, either to sustain or to oppose the vital question of a single bank. The individual chiefly affected by the revelations is the present minister of the interior and the president of the cabinet, Commendatore Giolitti. He is shown to have known the state of virtual bankruptcy of the Roman Bank, yet to have proposed and stanchly supported the extension of its rights as a bank of emission for the next six years; and, despite his knowledge that a double series of notes with the same number had been issued by the director, Tanlongo, to have proposed him as Senator and to have obtained the royal signature to the decree. To the question whether the 60,000 lire handed over to the present Government by the Roman Bank had been expended in electioneering corruption, the commissioners answered in the negative; but the other facts were considered so serious that several members of the Extreme Left proposed the impeachment of the minister. The proposal could not be put to vote, as the Speaker left the house, and on the morrow the premier announced that the cabinet had tendered their resignation to the King, but that the ministers would remain in office for the despatch of current business.

I doubt whether even the United States, even a federal republic, could hold its own without the providential law which enables the President to choose his own ministers and prevents the chambers from upsetting them during the presidential term of office. Without the slightest sympathy for or belief in the statesmanship of Signor Giolitti (his total failure in restoring peace to Sicily proving the absence of this *sine qua non* of a prime minister), it seems scarcely fair to make him the scapegoat for all the previous blunders and concealments and the continuous impunity extended to all the banks of emission since 1866, nor will his downfall and the substitution of other men of the same party effect, without a change of system, any amelioration in the financial conditions of Italy, any betterment in the social or economical state of the working and agricultural populations which form two-thirds of the population of the continent and of the islands. There is something sadder than all the banking scandals in the present attitude of public men, in the comments of the press, on the question of the reconstruction of the ministry. With exchange at 16 per cent., rentes at 80, and now with the stoppage of the Credito Mobiliare, which till yesterday was the one mainstay of public credit, but which had too many irons in the fire and had been led to commit quite lately some gross financial blunders, it is pitiable to hear a discussion as to the partisan right of A, B, or C to this or that portfolio, without any relation to his technical knowledge of finance, of industry, of commerce, or of agriculture, but simply because he sits with the Left or the Left Centre or the Right Centre.

As Crispi, who has been brought before the public because of a debt incurred with the national bank before he became minister or had anything to do with banking commissions or committees, is, for the time being, out of the run, the King intrusted the present Speaker of the House with forming a ministry, and if perfect honor and honesty and purest patriotism could insure success, Zanardelli would have been enabled to present himself to the House on the eve of the day that he received the commission. But party spirit and personal antipathies stand in the way. Hence the question, "Whither are we drifting?" which Senator Villari asked before there was any idea of this sudden crisis, is even less easy to answer in a satisfactory manner now than then.

"Since the kingdom of Italy came into being," he writes, "we have had many anxious days; but all our past misfortunes resulted from a visible, or apparently visible, cause. All seemed to see the possible remedy, so hope never abandoned us. . . . This is the first time that we are assailed by apprehensions which make us doubt about ourselves and our future." He then portrays the situation in gloomy colors—the alleged corruption in high places; the financial position, which could hardly be worse (and this before the Credito Mobiliare had asked for a moratorium); the state of public insecurity, which does not brighten the picture, while "the spectre of socialism, which no one ever dreamed of as possible in Italy, suddenly presents itself in Sicily." He next examines the causes that have brought the country to such an *impasse*, and asks "how on earth despotism bred heroes while liberty has bred scamps," "while, what is worse, our moral decline, once begun, has continued, and still continues without showing any sign of stopping."

"In order to understand our political character, our present social conditions, we must bear in mind that the masses, especially the peasants, took but a slight share in our revolutions and none whatever in our political life. Everything was effected by the *borghesia*, the middle classes, which hence became arbitrators of everything. The history of other peoples teaches the dangers that society is menaced with whenever it is abandoned to the power of a single class, especially when that is the burgher class. Government assumes the aspect of a company of shareholders (*consorteria*), a *camorra*, an association of malefactors which exploits the country for the benefit of its members."

Ths writer here quotes Tocqueville's strictures on the burgher class, then points out their first acts on entering into their kingdom, built on the ruins of six dynasties:

"If the individuals who then directed affairs had possessed the moral, civic, and political qualities of freemen (*i. e.*, of men accustomed to the use of liberty), they would have annexed the provinces, and, on coming down to the south, have constituted a new government with a very simple programme—alliance with such honest men, few or many, as could be found, without counting numbers, and thus reconstructing the country, convinced that the only solid foundation for liberty is justice! And those who were in the southern provinces [in 1860] could see with their own eyes that this was the desire and the hope of the so long oppressed and ignorant multitude who understood nothing of politics. Each act of justice, each repression of violence and of arbitrary acts so common among us, gave a moral force, a prestige, an authority beyond words. It formed a propaganda far more efficacious than all the new laws, all political guarantees, all proclamations of principles. But the hopes formed were soon deluded. No one took into account, no one understood, the sentiments of the masses, who seemed to have no existence in the presence of the *borghesia*, of the so-called *galantuomini*, who were the all in all, who dominated everything, and often oppressed the others. The generous enthusiasm which had initiated and ennobled our revolutions vanished. It was said: The masses are ignorant, corrupt; honest men cannot govern them. Then began the search for the most audacious, no matter if they were dishonest, because it was believed that with such it would be easy to command, to govern, to found liberty. This conception, which was, in fact, a heritage of our ancient slavery, was accepted by our best men, even by true Liberals. . . . How often have we seen politicians of whose private life, of whose personal character, the most atrocious things were affirmed, sought after, caressed, flattered, by the same persons who attacked their private life, simply because they were eloquent, audacious intriguers! Did we not at one time adopt the theory that in order to combat the malefactors, the *malandrinaggio*, in the country, it was necessary to enrol other malefactors in the police? And then we were surprised when, instead, we saw that the evils rapidly increased, because the miscreants on both sides entered into a secret alliance."

At this point Villari shows how everything was corrupted—the press, subsidized by the

Government, transformed from an instrument of moral and civic education into a fresh instrument of corruption; how the law on public instruction was falsified; how the object in all financial questions was, not to repair the deficit, but to hide it, to deny its existence. "The agricultural inquiry revealed the awful condition of the tillers of the soil? What remedies were applied? The tillers of the soil, who, in Italy, are literally the producers of national wealth, in many of our provinces, after a day's toil longer and harder than that of any other worker in the civilized world, do not earn sufficient to satisfy the cravings of hunger." No communist or socialist or even anarchist could say harder things of the middle classes than does this representative of that class; but when it comes to proposing remedies, the mistrust, the fear, of "the people" paralyzes his pen. Professor Villari points to the people in Switzerland, in Scandinavia, in the United States, as cultured and civilized in comparison with the masses in Italy, and affirms that, "for some time yet, the burghers must remain the only class which can, which ought to, direct society and retain the reins of government." Of course the burghers are to get reformed, but who is to reform them? Villari recalls the fact that the Italian revolutions succeeded because all parties rallied round the house of Savoy and monarchy.

"We ought to have the abnegation and the patriotism to rally anew round monarchy, and call upon it, now that such supreme duties lie before us, to reassume its historical importance. Monarchy is placed and ought to remain superior to all parties and could easily unite us. It is not a party government which is necessary for our salvation, but an honest government of no party, which should reunite all, reëstablish concord and harmony between Parliament and the country, between social classes; a government based upon the enormous majority of the people who care nothing for Right or Left, or for this parliamentarism which has worked and still works so much evil."

Adverse critics of this article, which has excited considerable interest, accuse the professor of proposing a *coup d'état*. This was not his intention, assuredly, but it would have been well if he had entered into details as to ways and means. What could the monarch do in this special crisis? By the sixty-fifth article of the *Statuto*, "The King nominates and revokes his ministers." Now, the peculiarity of the present situation is, that the Giolitti ministry has a large majority in the House; it has not been overthrown by a hostile vote of either chamber, but has felt itself bound to resign on account of the verdict of the seven commissioners. This on the 24th of November. Today, the 6th of December, Zanardelli has not yet succeeded in forming a new ministry. Why should not the King, who well knows that the cabinet which will be formed sooner or later cannot hold its own because the House is divided on the question of taxation, nominate a working cabinet pro tem., and dissolve the House, intimating that this time there shall be no pressure exercised by the men in power? The general elections would thus be the result of the popular will, which they never have been yet save in one instance. The people would send up to Parliament men whom they really believed to be honest and capable; the workingmen would send representatives of their own class, and even the agricultural populations would unite in certain provinces to secure individuals who would demand certain urgent and simple remedies for their desperate condition. Thus we might have a government such as Prof. Villari demands, based on the enormous majority of the people. As, by their own confession, the burghers have brought the country to the brink of ruin, it does not seem an exaggeration to demand that the people who have a right to elect and be elected should be allowed, nay helped, to exercise that right. But even those who would not stickle at the King's exercise of his undoubted prerogative are too timid to advise it. They fear the people, fear that a really popular chamber would propose the diminution of the expenses of the army and navy, insist on the reduction by one-half of the bureaucratic expenses, on reduction of the civil list (it is affirmed that the King has offered to forego three of his annual fifteen millions) and of the salaries of ministers, on the diminution of the enormous numbers of civil servants and of the extraordinary expenses in which the provinces and the communes indulge, on a progressive income tax, to range from 2,000 lire of income, which should remain untaxed, gradually, at so much per cent., until the millionaires are made to contribute their just share to the *necessary* national expenditure.

These are the fears that assail the *haves*, who will keep the *have-nots* out in the cold as long as moral or physical force avail them. But, sooner or later, such steps must be taken. "To-day the country itself is in danger," writes this moderate professor, this Senator of the realm, but last year minister of the crown. "The fatherland is in peril; it is menaced not by foreigners, but by ourselves; it invokes an initiative, a common action, the concord of all. Our very moral existence is at stake."

J. W. M.

## TAINE'S POSTHUMOUS WORK.

PARIS, December 5, 1893.

"THE dead ride fast," says the ballad. Taine has not been dead long, and the posthumous appearance of the last volume of his 'Origines de la France Contemporaine' has passed almost completely unperceived. This volume, which is the sixth of the series, is the second of what Taine has called "Le Régime Moderne." In the first volume Taine attempted to describe the "ancien régime." He followed the modern documentary method, and took innumerable notes of the correspondence of the intendants, the tax-collectors, the *fermiers-généraux* during the last thirty years of that régime. He plunged into the one hundred and seventy-six volumes of the *procès-verbaux* and *cahiers* of the States-General. The conclusion was the condemnation of the political and social organism of the old régime, and in consequence the necessity of the Revolution.

Volumes ii., iii., and iv. were the result of an immense labor: in order to understand the work of the Revolution, Taine condemned himself to read and analyze the correspondence of the military commanders during the years 1789 and 1790, the letters, memoirs, and statistics of the committees of the Chambers, the correspondence of the administration with the departments and the municipalities. This somewhat tedious analysis was fortunately mingled with some vigorous portraits of the principal revolutionists, such as Mirabeau, Danton, Robespierre. Taine had deliberately killed in himself all party spirit. Having no political ambition, he deliberately devoted himself entirely to the search after Truth: he therefore described such men as Danton and Robespierre as a naturalist would describe a new species. His volumes on the Revolution caused great consternation in the camp of our revolutionists; they were condemned by the republicans as severely as the first volume had been by the monarchists. I may add, however, that these criticisms were of what may be called a Platonic kind. Taine lost nothing by it, as republicans as well as monarchists well knew that his 'Origines' could never become a popular work, that its influence, if it had any, could be felt only in the most cultivated class of the nation, and, even in that cultivated class, by a select few, having leisure and imbued with the most disinterested love of truth.

The fifth volume scandalized the admirers of Napoleon as much as the preceding ones had scandalized the partisans of the monarchy or of the republic. Following his usual analytical method and his theories of the influence of the medium on the development of character, Taine saw chiefly in the Emperor Napoleon the Corsican, the Italian; he described him as one of the petty tyrants of the Italian cities of the Renaissance, as the "Prince" of Machiavel transported by circumstances to a higher sphere, and allowed to control the affairs of the world. Napoleon was, in his eyes, as selfish, as unmerciful, as cruel, as devoid of morality as a Borgia or a Malatesta. The portrait drawn by Taine has some truth, has even much truth; but it is too systematic and, on the whole, gives but an imperfect and fragmentary reproduction of the original. It is made up of small facts, of small details; the ensemble is not satisfactory. There is something in genius which cannot be analyzed. The popular and legendary view of Napoleon is not absolutely exact; but it is more exact, on the whole, than the documentary and analytic view taken by Taine. It cannot be wondered at if his criticism had no influence on the popular mind. No better proof could be found of this affirmation than the Napoleonic revival we are now witnessing. Is it not extraordinary that, so few years (comparatively speaking) after Sedan and the fall of the Second Empire, French literature should suddenly be so completely imbued and saturated with Napoleon and Napoleonic memories?

If many objections can be made to the portrait of Napoleon drawn by Taine, there are few or none to be made to his appreciation of the administrative work of the Emperor. The whole machinery of the French administration remains about the same as Napoleon left it. French centralization was, at first, the work of the Revolution, but it was still very imperfect and very rudimentary when Napoleon became First Consul. It was during his Consulate that Napoleon astonished all the members of his Council of State by the clearness of his perception, his immense power of work; he introduced order into everything—finance, legislation, the organization of the army, all departments of the administration. Taine, after his usual method, studied not only the voluminous correspondence of Napoleon, he made himself acquainted with the reports of the councillors of state in commission at the end of 1801, with the correspondence of the prefects under the Consulate and the Empire. He had proved that the administrative machine of the old régime could work no longer; he studied every part of the new machine, which was begun by the Constituent Assembly and brought to perfection by the Consulate and the Empire. The substitution of the departments for the old provinces destroyed all remains of the old provincial life; the prefects were the successors of the intendants; they became as powerful as the ancient proconsuls of Rome. Nothing was left of the old parlements; the judicial power was completely separated from the executive power. A department, with its prefect and sub-prefects, its consuls-general,

its municipal councils, its courts of justice, resembles every other department; it is a unit, and all these units depend on the central government. This prefect centralization suited the despotism of Napoleon; it has not yet been found incompatible with parliamentary government; the ministers change, the prefects do not change with them—that is to say, they do not necessarily change: the machinery of the administration is constantly in motion, and so far the instability of the ministries has not had its immediate and direct reflection in the administration.

There is, however, now in our political and administrative life a new element: you will find in each department electoral committees, which are formed of the politicians of the department; they are the wire-pullers in the elections. These committees are self-constituted bodies without any responsibility; the Deputies and Senators are in great fear of them, and the prefects are obliged to count with them. Taine has described with his customary force the advantages as well as the defects of French centralization; on the whole, he cannot be said to be a great admirer of it; he considers it destructive of individualism. In his opinion, to sum up in few words, the isolation of individuals has rendered them incapable of associating themselves; the power of the State has paralyzed the individual. The consequences of it are an exaggeration of egotism, especially in the provinces, great political incapacity, a slow commercial and industrial development. He dwells at length on the consequences of the Civil Code (which is the written law of the Revolution) on the French family. The family is the first group, the fundamental association, in a society. Its mission is to perpetuate itself, to prolong its own life. "The wholesome ideal," says Taine, "for a young man is to create a family, a house of indefinite duration—to create and to govern." The French Revolution was not content with abolishing the right of primogeniture, it also regulated testamentary liberty and the right of entail; it aimed at equality in all things, and one of the consequences of the Code Napoléon has been a continuous subdivision of the land and of property, which has acted as a bar to early marriages. The birth-rate of France is continually decreasing. Statistics are very instructive in this respect. The system of universal military service introduced in France since the war of 1870 will certainly contribute to diminish this ratio even more; our young men are obliged to serve in the ranks, and can be called at any moment between the age of twenty and the age of forty-five; the number of marriages, especially of early marriages, will therefore become relatively smaller than ever.

The social consequences of the new régime are alarming. Marriage, instead of being the great object of life, the great ambition of youth, becomes too often a mere end, the last chapter in the drama of life instead of the first. Not only in the diminution of the birth-rate does Taine discern a great danger for France; his philosophical mind finds other reasons for disquietude. What he says on the development of science, of popular and vulgarized science, is perhaps too pessimistic. He believes that science cannot be learned by halves, and that scientific notions spread by the press among an ignorant public may do more harm than good. First of all, he considers that science has substituted for the time-honored notion of the universe

"a new conception, which is coherent and logical in the higher minds, but which becomes disturbed and deformed as it goes slowly down among the masses. . . . The new ideas spread as a beneficent or a pernicious dogma according to the nature of the brains in which they establish themselves; they are capable of arming men and of throwing them like savages into a work of pure destruction if they are not wholly understood, as well as of organizing them in a novel manner if their real meaning is grasped."

A Catholic orator, some time ago, speaking of Catholic dogmas and the socialist movement, was explaining the progress of socialism by the decrease of religion. "You have," said he, "taken Heaven away from the workingmen; they ask you now for the Earth." Popular science has done much towards weakening the religious feeling. In so far, Taine holds it responsible for the increase of materialism in the masses and of pessimism in the most cultured classes. The applications of science have greatly enhanced the comforts of the rich; but increase of comfort does not increase happiness, and the ancients knew already that it was possible "propter vitam vivendi perdere causas." The literature of almost all European countries, France not excepted, is at present inspired by and saturated with a curious pessimism, which is largely owing to the unconscious apprehension of great social dangers and the dread of new wars and revolutions.

Taine's work is singularly interesting for the political philosopher. History seems to have been in his eyes nothing but a conflict of ideas. He is never dramatic, he does not give new life to the past. He does not view it, as most historians do, as a mere battlefield; the past appears to him like a crucible; he is waiting, like a chemist, to see what reaction will next take place. Strangely enough, nobody has said more to prove the influence of the medium on the development of man, and nobody has been more free from its influence. No political party, no philosophical school, can claim him; he preserved during too short a lifetime a most extraordinary intellectual independence and moral serenity. He was among us, but not of us.

# Correspondence.

## MR. CONWAY AND THE VIRGINIA HISTORICAL MAGAZINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following sentences occur in the *Nation* of November 16:

"It is refreshing to see the editor of the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* bringing all the wealth of his antiquarian knowledge to dispel those old and widespread notions of his countrymen that the early Virginians were for the most part Cavaliers, that they lived in superb mansions, and that they engaged in frequent duels. Mr. Moncure D. Conway, in his 'Barons of the Potomac and Rappahannock,' recently published, has given additional currency to these antiquated views, etc."

Your justice will, I trust, allow me space to state that I have written no book with the above title; that my 'Barons of the Potomack and the Rappahannock,' though printed, has not been published, and that it contains no such statements about the early Virginians as are ascribed to me. I cannot find in the article referred to ascription to me of such nonsense, but, as you have commended it to your readers, to many of whom my book may be inaccessible, your fairness will no doubt permit my further statement that the attack on my volume, in the *Virginia Historical Magazine*, is a tissue of misrepresentations and misquotations. It could not have been written by any Virginian, for it misspells several old family names of that region; and it could not have been written by any one with the book before him, as, after making two mistakes in its title, it repeatedly gives wrong page references, and has a dozen other errata evidently due to a copyist's blunders or bad writing. "He who has one enemy will meet him everywhere."

Moncure D. Conway.

London, November 30, 1893.

[Mr. Conway convicts us of copying with the greatest exactitude the insignificantly inexact title given by his reviewer in the *Virginia Magazine* to Mr. Conway's "unpublished" book, which was not before us. We did not ascribe the "notions" in question, as formulated, to Mr. Conway, but said that his work had "given additional currency to them." This is true if the reviewer be not a forger, for he cites from Mr. Conway (p. 94) "that ancient mansion of the Fauntleroys, . . . that superb mansion," as a text for a general denial that there were ever "any 'superb mansions' in Colonial Virginia"; and quotes from the same passage Mr. Conway's calling Moore Fauntleroy a "great cavalier," in order both to deny that this emigrant's politics were known, and to discourse on the common ill-informed talk about "Virginia Cavaliers"; and finally quotes from page 123, "'Duels about sweethearts were not infrequent' [in Colonial Virginia]," for the sake of a similar denial and discourse.

We have, we trust, shifted the burden of Mr. Conway's complaint where it belongs. In the absence of any signature to the review, we inferred the editorial hand. If so, the writer can speak for himself as to whether he is a Virginian, and whether he has the distinction of being Mr. Conway's ubiquitous enemy.—Ed. Nation.]

## GERMAN PONDEROUSNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of December 7 there is an incidental reference to a subject which we often find mentioned nowadays in connection with German thoroughness in matters of science, namely, "ponderousness," used in a sense opposed to lucidity. Thus, in the paragraph devoted to the memory of Tyndall, the *Nation* speaks of the union of German thoroughness with French lucidity, and later of the ponderous scientific learning of the Germans.

Now, I beg leave to say that I have often been vividly impressed with the feeling that the charge of want of clearness was due in great part to the critic's insufficient knowledge of idiomatic German. It is true, let me premise, that a few German writers, whose works have been eagerly studied abroad, deserve the reproach to the fullest extent, foremost among them Hegel; and Hegel alone has perhaps contributed as much as all other writers together to the ill-repute. Attempts have been made to translate Hegel, but who can translate an author who at every turn invents his own terminology and uses his new terms

without previous definition? So confusing is the study of Hegel that the anecdote told of his dying hour seems altogether credible: "One man only," said he, "understood me" (meaning Massmann), "and," he added after a pause, "*he* misunderstood me." And here I am tempted to remark parenthetically (and in lighter vein) that if Hegel could look down from the better world upon ours, and could see what effect his writings have produced here in St. Louis upon minds not muddled by nature, his serenity would be seriously dis turbed.

Lotze, it seems to me, is an excellent example of an author whose writings must appear ponderous and wanting in clearness and simplicity to all but those intimately acquainted with idiomatic German, and these only can appreciate the beauty of his diction and, I may add, its loftiness. Lotze is by no means easy to translate. His fine periods, often longer and more involved than is compatible with good English, do not lend themselves readily to translation, and unless the translator possesses the talent of rendering the precise meaning in classical English, much is lost; the text will appear more or less clumsy. This remark applies especially to the works of Lotze intended for readers not strictly scientific, such as his 'Mikrokosmus.' Read the introduction to this work, and you will be impressed with its candor, its beauty, its inspiration. But, I pray you, read it in the original.

But German philosophical writers do not usually, as Lotze did in his 'Mikrokosmus,' endeavor to write with artistic beauty. Clearness of exposition, on the contrary, ever since Schopenhauer's unmeasured tirades against Hegel and Hegelians, seems now the chief aim; and Schopenhauer himself surely is a model of clearness and simplicity. Who could excel Hartmann in lucidity and ease? Indeed, the great and immediate success of his 'Philosophy of the Unconscious' was due in great part to the fact that his meaning is always clear and set forth in simplest terms. Again, to name a few more of the great lights, who could find fault with Wundt or Paulsen?

Turning now to the great masters in natural science, can any one be more clear than Helmholtz, both in his purely scientific writings and in his lectures before larger audiences? Among the great masters thus excelling I would especially mention Ostwald. It is not my aim to give a long list of illustrious names in connection with our subject; but I wish to repeat what has often been said, that the student of science and philosophy must not depend upon translations, but should read the works in the original.—Respectfully,

WERNER A. STILLE.

ST. LOUIS, December 11, 1893.

## PRIMARY ELECTION AND REGISTRATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Why can we not push to adoption the recent very happy thought of one of the Philadelphia papers, which seems to me one of the best and brightest, while yet one of the simplest ideas in recent practical politics, and one which would set us forward with a great stride in the direction of political reform? I refer to the proposal that *the occasion of registration shall be availed of for primary elections also;* the latter, like the former, being under State regulation.

We are constantly saying, and truthfully enough, that it is *at the polls* that reform must strike the enemy; but what if at the polls I must either make Hobson's choice of candidates or throw my vote away? We must have good men offered us on *some* ticket, or our righteous indignation at the polls will burn fruitlessly away. But, for all our preaching, men will not, before every election, go three times out of their way—for the primary ballot, for registration, and for the election, or will do it only when they have some axe to grind; and we all know the frequent results when they do go, as things are at present arranged. But now if, when we go to register, we could also designate the men whom we should wish to represent our side of the question at issue, and to receive the suffrages of the people in behalf of that side, then the final visit to the polls would mean something, and the candidates be more nearly the nominees of their party.—Respectfully yours,

H. D. C.

EASTPORT, ME., December 12, 1893.

## A LYNCHING CANARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read with some surprise your recent comments on a lynching purporting to have taken place at Whitehall, only twelve miles from my home; and, not having heard of the affair before, I made inquiry and soon found out that nothing of the kind had ever been heard of at Whitehall. At or near Winchester, in Scott County (Whitehall is in Greene County), Mr. Morrison, the piano-tuner, was set upon by two men, brothers of a girl who claimed (?) Morrison had insulted her, but doing him little if any damage, as he is and has been attending to business ever since.

Who could have invented the story, and despatched it to the *Herald*, is more than I have been able to learn. A SUBSCRIBER.

GREENFIELD, ILL., December 11.

# Notes.

COPELAND & DAY, Boston, announce 'The House of Life,' by Dante Gabriel Rossetti, with restoration of the original readings in the edition of 1871 and with the lyrics which formed part of the original sequence. Initial letters and borders designed by Bertram Grosvenor Goodhue, and clear black type, promise a very handsome work, which the University Press (Cambridge, Mass.) will manufacture.

Elizur Wright's still unsurpassed version of Lafontaine is to be brought out once more by Estes & Lauriat, in two volumes, with thirteen etchings by Le Rat.

Fleming H. Revell Co. will publish directly 'The Ideal of Humanity in Old Times and New,' by Prof. John Stuart Blackie, and 'None Like It,' a defence of the older school of Biblical criticism, by the Rev. Dr. Joseph Parker.

Macmillan & Co. issue at once 'The Lovers' Lexicon,' by Frederick Greenwood.

The *Electrical Engineer* will issue 'The Inventions, Researches, and Writings of Nikola Tesla,' a Servian electrical investigator now domiciled among us. The work has been prepared by T. C. Martin, editor of the periodical just named.

That the third volume of the illustrated edition of Green's 'Short History of the English People' (Harpers) is not the last will prove a trial to many in this Christmas time; but happily one can give promises as well as volumes, and the fourth and last cannot be far off. The third deals with Puritan England, the Civil War, the Revolution—the period which possesses the greatest interest for Americans. Almost every page has its illustration, and each illustration is fully described in a note at the front of the volume. Mrs. Green and Miss Norgate show no falling-off in their aptitude for selecting designs, views, portraits, caricatures, facsimiles, which embody the spirit of the age. There is a fine view, the earliest, of London Bridge in 1600, in color, folded; there are two portraits of young Milton; and specially noteworthy is the portrait of Elizabeth Steward, Cromwell's mother, a strong face. The narrative ends with 1679.

It is hard to make out what class of readers will be benefited by Frances Minto Elliot's showy and expensive 'Old Court Life in Spain' (2 vols., Scribners). The scholar will learn nothing from a writer about Spain who mentions among her authorities the Romancieros (*sic*) and the Ballads of Bernardo da Carpio (*sic*), calls the brother of Pedro el Cruel persistently Don Fadique, writes Castila (*sic*) as often as Castilla, and allows an innocent word like *jefe* to masquerade now as *jefé* and now as *jeffe*. On the other hand, even the romantic reader is likely to find two volumes of sentiment and ejaculations a trifle wearisome. The author's original idea was, however, not a bad one—*i. e.*, to render in a popular manner for the English public those episodes in the lives of the Spanish kings and queens up to Ferdinand and Isabella which touched the imagination of the people and were sung in the ever fresh and interesting Spanish ballads.

In perfect keeping with the 'Cranford' illustrated by Hugh Thomson, is Miss Mitford's 'Our Village,' which the same artist has adorned, and the same publishers, Macmillan, issued. Mrs. Anne Thackeray Ritchie furnishes by way of introduction an easygoing biography of Miss Mitford. The popularity of this charming edition is assured. So is that of Dent's faultless three-volume edition of Frances Burney's 'Cecilia' in the Jane Austen style, long since approved of amateurs and of the public (Macmillan). Canon Ainger easily finds a bridge from Lamb to Hood in the preface to Macmillan's holiday edition of the 'Humorous Poems' of the latter, and Charles E. Brock contributes an ample number of designs not irresistibly comic, but always graceful, and much in the vein of Hugh Thomson. This volume, too, must be heartily commended. From the same house we receive the revised edition of Miss Swanwick's translation of the first part of Goethe's 'Faust' (London: George Bell & Sons), to which, as if to emphasize the age of this version, more than forty years, Retzsch's outline illustrations have been added; and neither will be found quite out of date. From A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, we have two dainty volumes in the "Elizabethan Library" of Elliot Stock, 'Thoughts that Breathe,' from Bacon, and 'A Bower of Delights,' from Nicholas Breton, both selected by A. B. Grosart, with indications of the sources and with occasional annotations. They are both, in form and contents, most companionable.

'Paragraph-Writing' (Boston: Allyn & Bacon) is an enlarged and improved edition of an excellent little pamphlet published a few years ago by Profs. Scott and Denney. Until very recently the word and the sentence were the only units assumed in the study of composition, and text-books on rhetoric thought their duty done when they had treated the uses of words and the various forms of sentence structure. Of late years, however, it has been cus-

tomary to recognize the importance of the paragraph, and even of larger units of structure. Falling in with this theory, and relegating to the background discussion as to proper and improper uses of words, the authors of the present work aim "to make the paragraph the basis of a method of composition, and to present all the important facts of rhetoric in their application to the paragraph." More than half of the book is devoted to exercises of various kinds, or to lists of subjects or topics which the student may treat.

Some weeks ago we called attention to Mr. G. P. Baker's 'Specimen Briefs,' as admirably designed for use in teaching argumentative composition, a rhetorical exercise of great practical value to which many colleges are beginning to give special attention. The same author has now compiled and edited a little volume of 'Specimens of Argumentation' (Henry Holt & Co.). The specimens are some half-a-dozen in number and consist mostly of political speeches, beginning with Lord Chatham on removing his Majesty's troops from Boston, and ending with Henry Ward Beecher's defence of the North at Liverpool in 1863. All will be found valuable for illustration of logical and argumentative principles and as a basis for exercises in constructing briefs. In a second edition we suggest that it would be well to insert a table of contents, and, as the book is one of a uniform series, to letter it on the back as well as on the side.

Mr. W. S. Jackman of the Cook County, Ill., Normal School has published a little book, entitled 'Number Work in Nature Study,' in which he develops a method whereby the scholar is led to prepare his own arithmetical examples, on the basis of elementary scientific observation. In this way, while the scholar becomes expert in matters of ratios, percentages, and so on, his interest is properly directed to the results that he gains rather than to the method of obtaining them. For example, an exercise adapted to the early months of the school year is in part as follows: Of one hundred leaves examined, how many have not been injured or used in any way by animals? How many have been in part devoured? How many have been used in making nests or cocoons? Of a hundred leaves from the oak, from the maple, the elm, etc., which has the greatest number of leaves injured? Then, what part of the entire number of leaves has been stung by insects in laying their eggs? What is the ratio of those injured to those uninjured? What percentage of the whole number has been more or less eaten? And so on, with many different exercises, arranged for successive autumnal months.

A number of publications of the United States Geological Survey have been distributed during the past season. Chief among these is the Eleventh Annual Report of the Director, long delayed, and less interesting than its predecessors from lack of variety in its essays. It is in two volumes, of which the second treats of irrigation, a subject which no longer touches the duties of the Survey; but a bibliography of irrigation in this volume will be of permanent value. The volume on geology has nearly two hundred pages of administrative reports, and the rest of the book is taken up with McGee's monographic essay on Northeastern Iowa, nearly four hundred pages, and with Phinney's briefer report on natural gas in Indiana. The chief lesson of the latter is the same as is taught by all students of this new fuel, namely, the wastefulness of its use under high pressure and for rough purposes, and the certainty that the wells now in use will be exhausted faster than they are supplied by the production of gas within the earth.

In the second edition of his charming book entitled 'Nos Adieux à la Vieille Sorbonne,' M. Gréard adds a note describing his discovery, on September 30 last, of a tablet commemorating the rebuilding of the Sorbonne by Richelieu in 1627. The tablet is of copper, 51 cm. broad and 60 cm. high. The inscription is well preserved, and is reproduced in full by M. Gréard. The importance of the tablet is that it establishes the fact, hitherto suspected by M. Gréard, that the old Sorbonne had an *aula magna* or *major*, in which large gatherings were held, as well as the *aula minor*, still known as the "Salle de Robert Sorbon," which is the only one mentioned by the historians of this building.

The Calendar of the Imperial University of Japan for 1892–'93 shows the steady development and healthy growth of that institution, and of the colleges of law, medicine, engineering, literature, science, and agriculture which compose it. While most of the instructors are Japanese graduates of foreign universities, there is yet a goodly number of Europeans and Americans associated with them. A map accompanies the book, showing how the spacious enclosure known as the Kaga Yashiki, and once occupied by the retainers of one of the richest and most powerful of the feudal daimios, is now full of substantial structures devoted to science, instruction, and residence of the professors. Of the full graduates, reckoning from 1876, 1,785 are now living, most of them in active public or private service. Their average age is twenty-five. The length of the curricula in the college of law is now four years. On the 18th of August, 1892, the new and imposing library buildings were completed. The papers representing the results of original research in the departments of medicine and science are numerous and creditable, but on the page devoted to "contents of the memoirs of the literature college," Prof. Chamberlain's Aino studies stand in lonely majesty. How long can the Japanese allow this disproportion to exist?

Parts 19–23 of the great Atlas of the Civil War, in course of issuance by the War Department, are largely occupied with Virginia, in which State the region about Richmond and Petersburg, and the battlefields of Winchester, Fisher's Hill, and Cedar Creek, are particularly well mapped. Notable, also, are the battlefields of Gettysburg and Chickamauga, and the military department of New Mexico; Sherman's course from Atlanta to Savannah, with the route pursued by each army corps; the defences of Louisville, Bowling Green, Nashville, Murfreesboro, Chattanooga, Mobile, etc.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, have begun publication of an attractive "monthly repository of literature and miscellaneous information," called the *Literary Era*. Its contents are largely at second-hand, as in the duly acknowledged notices of new books. We notice a timely list of "Napoleana" (as the editor designates the Napoleonic memoirs, new and old), and other similar lists of "Choice Books" are to follow.

Dr. Ellis's long article on "A Non-Sectarian Theological School" is the most valuable in the contents of the current *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*. Historically, as to the original aim of that college to train ministers especially, and as to the origin of the Divinity School, with its absence of tests for students or instructors, it is instructive if not complete in its survey. Without allusion to Parker or Emerson, it makes a just distinction between Unitarianism and Liberal Christianity, intimating the author's sympathy with Channing in his dislike to the denominational name. It casts doubt upon the success of the proposed addition to the Harvard Divinity School of "courses representing different systems of theology," as an absolute novelty. "Schools of theology," says Dr. Ellis, "have always and without exception been identified with and pledged exclusively to some distinctive system in doctrine and belief." Yet, if we understand him, he does except the Divinity School in the intent of its founders and in its organic constitution, which were Liberal Christian and not Unitarian. He seems to attribute the decline of the School to the creeping in of the Unitarian designation and control, and he certainly regrets the failure of his efforts forty years ago to effect a legal separation of the School from the College. Mr. Bolles's skilful summary of the University at the opening of the academic year possesses the usual interest, and will be widely approved for its frank remarks on the duty of the faculty to suppress the remnant of "Bloody Monday" rioting and the scandalous disorders of Commencement Day.

The London *Times* publishes an appeal from Mrs. Agnes S. Lewis to British and American scholars in behalf of the library in the famous convent of St. Katharine on Mt. Sinai. This lady, well known as a Syriac and Greek scholar and the discoverer in this library of apparently the earliest known version of the Four Gospels, says that there is no room in the convent suitable for a library, but that the manuscripts are kept in wooden chests in various small chambers and are suffering from want of light and air. Nor is there any place where they can be conveniently consulted. Plans have been prepared by a competent architect for a separate building, provided with bookcases, tables, etc., for the use of foreign scholars, at a cost of from $15,000 to $20,000. The monastery is now too poor to raise this sum, "its landed property in Russia, Rumania, and Egypt having become depreciated, so that it has barely enough for the frugal sustenance of its thirty-five monks and of the troops of Bedaween who have to be kept by it from starving during the long months when travellers do not want their camels." Mrs. Lewis adds that the monks are not the unlettered men which some travellers have represented them to be, but that they appreciate the value of their library and desire to give every facility to scholars to make use of it.

University Extension has reached the continent of Europe. Courses of instruction of this character have been undertaken under the auspices of the University of Ghent with great success. A similar movement has been started in Brussels, where the society having the work in charge is presided over by the rector of the University. In both cases the lines marked out by the University Extension movement in England are closely followed.

How cheap flag-patriotism is, is shown by the current demonstrations in behalf of the Hawaiian usurpation. Still, as it seemed to need strengthening, a movement was initiated a few years since to supply every public schoolhouse in the country with the stars and stripes, and it has been at least as contagious as tree-planting. A Boston firm of expert engravers, A. W. Elson & Co., have conceived the notion that every school should have a portrait of Washington, at least, and this we take to be a more useful undertaking than the other. Among all the available portraits, they have

wisely chosen the Stuart head in the Boston Athenæum, and have copied it and the Martha Washington in photogravure nearly at scale, and with very striking success. The public will certainly not let these prints be monopolized by the schools. Messrs. Elson propose to popularize the likenesses of other great men in the same manner: as John Jay and Longfellow, to mention those we have seen, Lincoln and Marshall, which are to follow. Of these, too, we may hope the schools will get their share. What the men represented stand for can be shown them or they can learn; what the flag stands for at any given moment is known to how many of us—even to the patriotic author of 'The Man without a Country'?

—There is very little of Washington in Dr. J. M. Toner's latest issue of his series, containing the journal of the Fort Necessity adventure, 1754. The journal is known only through a translation into French, in which the personal "flavor" was lost and the original writing probably garbled. To render the record back into English must have still further diluted this flavor, and left less of the personality of the writer. The French journal ends with the entry of June 27th; Dr. Toner has compiled a continuation, "gathered from sources believed to be reliable," but, of course, not containing a line by Washington as diarist. Upon this material the editor hangs copious notes, and expands the volume to 273 pages. In the absence of the young Virginian, attention may be directed to Dr. Toner's methods. There are the same minute study of detail, the same wide knowledge of men and affairs of Virginia in colonial days, the same love and enthusiasm for his subject, as have marked his other issues of Washington material. For all this the editor is to be praised, and the general accuracy of his comments compensates for their diffuseness. He has drawn largely upon the rolls of the companies, and account-books, letters, and notes, and no student of early Virginian history can pass by these volumes, which contain so much, and are made so convenient for use by a full index (Albany: Munsell).

—Attention must still be called to a certain error of method. No one man can hope ever to master all the lore of Washington's life and character. If Dr. Toner wishes to make his edition the *final* compilation, he should draw freely upon the work of those who have labored in the same field. Sparks, Brock, and other editors are frequently mentioned, but it is strange that, with all his wide reading, Dr. Toner has apparently never met with Ford's 'Writings of Washington,' the latest attempt to give a general survey of the material at hand. Had this work been consulted, the notes of the editor could have been more complete, and his sense of justice would not have permitted him to make the claim of discovering that the MS. of the journal was captured at Fort Necessity, and not at Monongahela, as Sparks asserted. Nor would he have been in such doubt about the date of Washington's commission as a lieutenant-colonel, for Mr. Ford notes that Washington began to draw the pay of a lieutenant-colonel on March 20, 1754, and the pay would naturally begin with the commission. Nor would he have named the cadets taken with Jumonville as he did. Faulty as Mr. Ford's collection may be, there is much of value to complete such a record as Dr. Toner sets out to make. Some other errors have also crept into this volume. Vanbraam could not have been in the "thirtieth" battalion of the Sixtieth Regiment, as no regiment had more than four battalions. He was in the third battalion. The Indian Half-King is sometimes given Tanacharison and sometimes Tenacharison. The old form *anglois* appears as *anglais* in the capitulation, and Peyton is printed Payton.

—In 'Ballads and Poems relating to the Burgoyne Campaign,' Mr. W. L. Stone has brought together well-nigh three-score poems, as various in merit as in length. Some are only couplets or quatrains, others drag their slow length along through fifty pages; but all have a sort of interest, even those inspired in later generations; most of all those struck out in the burden and heat of the day. It is a satisfaction to see these effusions, so fugitive and evanescent, now, thanks to Mr. Stone's steadfast endeavors, committed to the art preservative. The volume figures as No. 20 in Munsell's Historical Series (Albany), is printed on substantial paper, with broad margins, and in large type. Half-a-dozen previous monographs by Mr. Stone concerning divers specialties in Burgoyne's campaign have made him an authority on all minutiæ regarding it. His pains to learn the truth if possible by personal observation, or at least by interviews with witnesses as nearly as possible contemporary, his indefatigable correspondence and research in archives, prove his work to be a labor of love, and leave scanty fragments for any who shall glean after him in his chosen field. In regard to one particular, however, namely, the color of Miss Jenny McCrea's hair (discussed on page 206), which was sometimes described to have been "dark as a raven's wing," we can strengthen Col. Stone's proofs which demonstrate rather thinly that that hair was a blonde or golden brown. The present writer has often heard his grandmother, Hannah Barbara Hufnagel Harris, who in 1777 was a neighbor of Miss McCrea (for she lived about a mile north of Sandy Hill, which lies but two miles from the McCrea home in Fort Edward), say that Miss McCrea's hair was *red*—a blunter term for golden.

—Miss Katherine Lee Bates's 'The English Religious Drama' (Macmillan) shows independent study of the old miracle plays, as well as study of the best and most recent authorities. The four cycles, the Chester, Coventry, Towneley, and York plays—the last after Miss L. T. Smith's complete edition—are treated, and the Digby Mysteries, the Cornish plays, and several isolated miracle plays are also included. The work is written in a popular style, as it consists of "a brief course of lectures delivered in the summer school of Colorado Springs, July, 1893," growing out of which circumstance are occasional bits of "fine writing" that might have been toned down in the revision for publication. The Moralities are treated much more briefly in the last chapter, and the scope of the work seems to exclude Heywood's Interludes, as they are barely mentioned on the last page, but they form a natural appendix to the Moralities and a transition to regular comedy and tragedy. There seems to be an oversight on p. 238: "Ralph Roister Doister" is said to have been played "before 1551," and "Gorboduc" "by the following year." "Gorboduc" was first represented on January 18, 1561 (O. S.), as the title-page of the first edition of 1565 states. Prof. Hales, in a recent number of *Englische Studien*, has endeavored, with much plausibility, to show that "Ralph Roister Doister" was written in 1552. The chief fault we have to find with Prof. Bates's book is the lack of a suitable table of contents and an index. A useful bibliography, based on Prof. Stoddard's "References," is appended. The general reader will find Miss Bates's lectures a handy guide to more serious study of the subject.

—M. Gabriel Compayré, the well-known psychologist and writer on educational subjects, devoted the whole of his address as rector of the Academy of Poitiers, delivered at the recent *Rentrée des Facultés*, to his impressions of America received while in this country as a delegate to the educational congresses at Chicago last summer. M. Compayré was duly impressed with the fact that "universities" in this country are on as large a scale as the country itself, and not a little perplexed by their great variety in standard. "What first struck me," he says, "was the considerable number of distinct buildings that occupy the college campus. An American university is a world by itself, and perhaps a little mixed up with schools of a widely different character. The American university comprises not only the four or five traditional faculties of the Old World, but it maintains, in imitation of the universities of the Middle Ages, a college where secondary instruction is given. It stretches out towards intellectual activity of every kind, and does not disdain to enrich its domain by adding to the search for theoretical truth the study of the practical applications of all forms of knowledge." M. Compayré regards with justifiable surprise the fact that in 1889 we maintained twenty-one schools of law that had less than ten students each. At Yale he was astounded to learn that the method of instruction in law was by memorizing the pages of a text-book, and evidently is restrained by a feeling of courtesy towards his hosts from expressing himself on this point as strongly as he feels. This sentence, too, should not be overlooked: "It must not be forgotten," continues M. Compayré, "that the United States have no standing army. I have, it is true, seen colonels; but they were in command of normal schools. I have even seen a general; but he had directed the Bureau of Education before Dr. W. T. Harris, the present Commissioner."

—Barnard's Inn, London, the scene of Paul Verlaine's recent lecture on French poetry, is about to be transformed. For several years now it has been the headquarters of the Art Workers' Guild. In it have William Morris's best speeches been made. Busts of him, of Mr. Crane, of Mr. Brett, and other masters of the Guild stand in a row above the wainscotting. A long bas-relief by Mr. Crane stretches across one side of the hall. Only a year ago Vierge's drawings were hung there, when that artist was first introduced to London. And now it is to go the way of London's other landmarks of earlier and more picturesque days. The Art Workers are to be turned out. The hall, so lovely and impressive with its high-pitched roof, its beautiful panelled walls, its great fireplaces, and its coats of arms, as decorative as those which hang in many an Italian *palazzo pubblico*, is to be altered into a dining-room for the children of one of the city companies' charity schools. With just as hearty an appetite could the children eat in the schoolhouse hastily "run up" by the modern jerry builder. But the hall, once ruined, can never be restored. Already, we learn, the little, quiet, sombre court has been defaced. In a few weeks' or months' time Barnard's Inn will be as sorry a place as Clement's in Fleet Street.

## THE BRONTËS IN IRELAND.

*The Brontës in Ireland;* or, Facts Stranger than Fiction. By Dr. William Wright. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: Appletons. Pp. xx, 308. 1893.

THE extensive and deeply interesting literature relating to the Brontë sisters has hitherto treated of little previous to the period of their father, Patrick Brontë, leaving his home in the county of Down, in 1802, and entering at St. John's College, Cambridge. Dr. Wright has evidently for many years given himself conscientiously to the task of tracing the family history back to its source, and we have now the result of his labors in a volume graphically written, beautifully printed, and profusely illustrated. Yet we cannot say that we rise from its perusal with feelings of unmixed satisfaction. The interest attaching to names brought prominently before the public is of different degrees and kinds, and what we desire to know regarding one is not altogether the same as what we desire to know regarding another. We should welcome the slightest hint of truth, or legend presumably based on truth, relating to Shakspere or Washington. Any author would claim attention and our thanks who threw fresh light upon the relations between Swift and Stella, or between Shelley and Harriet. But it appears to us a mistake to suppose that all that could be told regarding the family antecedents of Charlotte, Emily, and Anne Brontë would be of necessity welcomed. Our interest in them is of a tender if not of a sacred character—sacred almost as should be the hidden details of their private life. The manner in which Mrs. Gaskell realized these undefined limits of interest and reticence is that which, apart from her delightful style, gives such a peculiar charm to her biography of Charlotte Brontë. That book has rendered Haworth sacred ground to thousands. It suggests thoughts of all that is womanly and refined, all that is gentle, much that is sad. That veil of mystery which must and should envelope each human being, is not unduly raised. On the other hand, the book before us gives a certain sense of strain and incongruity—strain in heavy demands upon our credence as fact of much which is evidently only surmise and amplification; incongruity, in connection with the Brontë sisters, in the elaborate recital of incidents such as a prize-fight in which a member of the family came off victorious, and cock-fighting, and the particulars of the somewhat boisterous surroundings of a circle some members of which kept country liquor-stores. We welcome illustrations of old Brontë residences, and maps of the Brontë district; we cannot feel interest in a full-page engraving of a pool simply because it was the scene of a ducking that led to a fight in which a Brontë was one of the combatants.

In truth, all seems shadowy regarding the family until Hugh (father of Patrick and grandfather of Charlotte), an adopted child, brought up by an aunt and her husband (who, also an adopted child, had taken the name of Brontë), appears in the County Down, and, marrying a Catholic girl, Alice McClory, founded the family from whom the occupants of the Haworth parsonage were descended. One-fourth of the volume is devoted to the adventures of Hugh as a child. An impression of exaggeration and want of reality in the narrative is confirmed by the admission (p. 131): "Hugh Brontë seems to have had the rare faculty of believing his own stories, even when they were purely imaginary." And our belief in the excessive brutality of his abductor or guardian, Welsh "Brontë," on which these recitals are based, is shaken by the fact that Hugh gave one of his sons the same name. Dr. Wright has not satisfied us that Brontë was the true family name. Admittedly, the accent was added by the father of the novelists some time after his removal to England, previous to which the name is found entered as Bronte, Brunte, or Bronty. There are, or were lately, Pruntys in other parts of Ireland—so far as we are aware, no Brontes or Brontys. We are still of the opinion of authors before Dr. Wright, that the name was originally Prunty.

He has certainly established the existence in the family of a vein of realistic, often weird, story-telling power. He describes well and truthfully many customs of peasant life once prevalent in Ireland, now so rapidly disappearing. He points many a moral relating to the present and late agitations. Hugh Brontë, the grandfather of the young Yorkshire novelists, was evidently an original, remarkable man. Dr. Wright says (p. 152): "The doctrine of common honesty enunciated by Hugh Brontë has lately received the approval of Liberal and Conservative governments in what is known as 'tenant-right' or the 'Ulster custom.'" But, we must be permitted to add, to find the origins of the Ulster tenant-right custom we must search much further back than the teachings of Hugh Brontë or any other village Hampden of the middle of the last century. The following quotation refers to Hugh Brontë's family (p. 165):

"We had never seen men like the Irish Brontës, and we had never heard language like theirs. The quaint conceptions, glowing thoughts, and ferocious epithets that struggled for utterance at their unlettered lips revealed the original quarry from which the vicar's daughters chiselled the stones for their artistic castle-building, and disclosed the original fountain from which they drew their pathos and passion. Similar fierce originality and power are felt to be present in everything produced by the English Brontës; but in their case the intensity of energy is held in check by the Bramwell temperament and kept under restraint by education and culture."

The family genius was certainly not characteristically Irish. The almost grim earnestness and absence of humor remind us of the Scotch nature, to which, indeed, that of the northern Irish is more akin than to the temperament of their fellow-countrymen in the south of Ireland. The Yorkshire Brontës were evidently not proud of their connection with their father's birthplace. Charlotte's most intimate friend and frequent visitor never heard any reference from the family to their Irish history or the Irish relatives with whom they were in constant communication. The only Irish character depicted by Charlotte Brontë is the reverse of admirable, and the only allusion to Ireland in her novels is by no means flattering.

Of Patrick Brontë, the future vicar of Haworth, in his Cambridge days, we read (p. 265): "As the handsome youth and distinguished scholar drilled shoulder to shoulder with Lord Palmerston and with the late Duke of Devonshire, few could have suspected his humble origin in Emdale, or the titanic struggle by which he had gained a foothold at the University." Perhaps to many readers the most interesting passages in the book are those in which are described the reception in the district of 'Jane Eyre' and sister volumes. The uncles, aunts, and cousins of the authoresses were incapable of appreciating them.

"The Irish Brontës had never seen a book like 'Jane Eyre' before—three volumes of babble that would have taken a whole winter to read. They laid down the work in despair; but, after a little, Hugh resolved to show it to Mr. McKee [the minister]. . . . He tied up the three volumes in a red handkerchief, and called with them at the manse. . . . Hugh Brontë began, in a low, mysterious whisper and with a regretful air, to unfold his sad tale to Mr. McKee, as if his niece had been guilty of some serious indiscretion. Mr. McKee comforted him by suggesting that the book might not have been written by his niece at all. At this point Hugh Brontë was prevailed upon to draw up to the table and partake of the abundant tea that had been prepared for Mr. McKee, while the latter proceeded to examine the book. Both gentlemen devoted themselves to the task in hand. . . . The afternoon wore on. . . . When the servant went in to remove the tea-things and light the candles, both men were sitting silent in the gloaming. Mr. McKee, roused from his state of abstraction, observed Brontë sitting by the *débris* and empty plates. 'Hughey,' he said, breaking silence, 'the book bears the Brontë stamp on every sentence and idea, and it is the grandest novel that has been produced in my time.'"

The account of the visit of this uncle to London, carrying a carefully prepared blackthorn shillalah, in order to wreak vengeance on the anonymous *Quarterly* Reviewer of his niece's book, is striking if not overstrained. The surmises as to the authorship of the review are probably correct. We are glad to have our conception as to the severity of the Rev. Patrick Brontë's character modified by the fact that he regularly allowed his mother £20 per annum from his narrow stipend.

## ASHLEY'S ENGLISH ECONOMIC HISTORY.

*An Introduction to English Economic History and Theory.* Volume II.: The End of the Middle Ages. By W. J. Ashley. London: Longmans; New York: Putnams. 1893.

THE first volume of this treatise was published in 1888, and has recently been reprinted. The second volume, which is much larger and also exhibits more originality than the first, is entitled "The End of the Middle Ages." The reader does not ascertain, until after the perusal of many pages of the book, that the period covered is approximately from 1350 to 1550. The work really consists of six disconnected essays on the towns, the crafts, the woollen industry, the agrarian revolution, poor-relief, and the canonist doctrine. To some critics this method of treatment may appear desultory, but it has certain advantages, and the author has succeeded in giving the reader a clear idea of the general economic development of England from 1350 to 1550.

The first two chapters, entitled respectively "The Supremacy of the Towns" and "The Crafts," are perhaps the most valuable parts of the book. Prof. Ashley may now, in fact, be regarded as the best authority on the subject of crafts and craft fraternities. The sections on municipal granaries (§28), journeymen's societies (§35), the disendowment of religion, and the continuity of craft life (§§38, 39) are particularly interesting, and contain much new matter. On the other hand, his treatment of the decay of municipalities (§§29, 30) is open to some criticism. He does not explain away the clear statement of the statute 3 Henry VIII., that "the most part of all the cities, boroughs, and towns corporate within this realm be fallen in ruin and decay." And he speaks as though this were the only important proof of the decline of towns. He ignores the testimony of contemporary literature regarding "the grete mysorder of everi cytee," and the evidence of town muniments, which shows that many cities like Winchester were in a

languishing condition. Whether there was an increase in the general volume of wealth or not, there seems to have been a diminution of civic prosperity in many once powerful boroughs.

While the general excellence of chapter ii. must be acknowledged, it contains some conclusions which cannot be accepted without reservation. In the first place, though the author's terminology is in the main correct, he seems to lay too much stress upon the distinction between gilds and misteries or companies. His own citations from various sources (pp. 129, 142, 146, 149, 156, 157) show that the term "gild" continued frequently to be applied to craft societies, and that the word was not exclusively associated with religious fraternities. The author also makes a sharp distinction between gilds of craftsmen existing for religious purposes, and craft organizations having more or less supervision over their industries. He contends, moreover, that in many cases the latter emanated from the former, or that the two might even exist side by side for one and the same occupation (pp. 74, 140, 141, 151). But his evidence in support of these assertions is not convincing. For example, he maintains that various societies of craftsmen in Lincoln and Norwich were at first religious fraternities entirely distinct from the machinery for the supervision of trade and industry, and that this function was a later acquisition. The evidence here presented is that little or nothing is said of industrial control in the regulations of these fraternities printed in Smith's 'English Gilds.' But the regulations may be incomplete. In the statutes of the tailors' gild of Lincoln it is expressly stated that they were "written in very great haste." Probably most craft fraternities had certain religious features, and doubtless some had more than others; but it is very difficult to draw the line between religious gilds of craftsmen, on the one hand, and craft societies with industrial functions, on the other.

A more serious defect in the author's history of the crafts is his account of their relations to municipal government (see especially §26). He speaks of their extensive administrative and political functions, but does not clearly indicate what these functions were. He intimates on p. 7 that, as a rule, the crafts were represented in the town council; we should be glad to know "the many instances" in which "the town council itself was wholly or in part composed of the elected representatives of the companies" (p. 23). The sources seem to indicate that this was rarely the case. One might infer from Prof. Ashley's account of the crafts that the tendency since 1350 was towards the democratization of municipalities, towards allowing the craftsmen greater participation in the government of boroughs. But it is certain that the drift after 1350 was decidedly towards the formation of aristocratic "select bodies," which monopolized political power and the control of government in many boroughs. Prof. Ashley does not take this aristocratic tendency sufficiently into account. He says, indeed, that "the government of the towns had by this time [early in the sixteenth century] fallen into the hands of select bodies" (p. 48); but this development does not square with his theory that in the fifteenth century the misteries had a large share in the government of the town, that thenceforth they were represented in the civic council, that they were political organs of local administration, and only their members could take part in municipal government (pp. 25, 26).

Our author does not attempt to reconcile these two opposite tendencies, one of which was democratic, the other aristocratic. His position is all the more difficult to understand owing to his opinion (strongly expressed in volume i.) that in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the government of English towns was aristocratic. If that was the case, how came the crafts to participate in borough government? What factors or forces caused "the exclusive privileges of a small governing class" to vanish? When did the transition from conflict to harmony between the crafts and the municipal authorities occur? What evidence is there of such a transition? These are questions which Prof. Ashley leaves unanswered. The transformation from the one régime to the other should be accounted for, especially in a book which lays such great stress upon continuity of social development. On p. 209 we are informed that the exclusive privileges of the old oligarchy had passed away in the two centuries following the reign of Henry II., but on p. 129 we are told that the struggle "between the organized misteries and the classes that had previously ruled" was still raging at the close of the fourteenth century. The only evidence of this struggle produced by the author is a conflict in Norwich, which, however, seems clearly to have been a contest of the commons of Norwich, not with an old aristocracy, but with a new "select body." Probably the only important political function which the crafts as such exercised in many boroughs during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries was to act as a medium of citizenship, the freedom of the borough being obtained by entrance into a mistery. But this function of the crafts implied comparatively little political influence or participation in municipal government in towns controlled by a select body, and hence it is misleading to say that "only members of misteries could take part in the government of the town" (p. 26).

The tendency to ascribe to the crafts an undue increase of power in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries has also led Prof. Ashley to underrate the authority and degree of organization which they possessed during the two centuries preceding 1350. He thinks that before the fourteenth century there was no marked desire on the part of the crafts to limit competition by diminishing the influx of new-comers into the town or into the gilds (§32). But the early charters gave the members of each craft fraternity the exclusive right to carry on their particular industry in the town, and to prevent all other persons from intermeddling with their occupation. In the case of the craft fraternity, as in the case of the gild merchant, this meant protection from the competition of new-comers, or what the Germans call *Zunftzwang*. But Prof. Ashley's language implies that this was not the case, that the crafts became "organized communities with exclusive rights" late in the Middle Ages, and that previously there had been no marked "delimitation of the crafts towards the outside world." These conclusions cannot be accepted unless more evidence is produced to support them. The most that the author proves is a tendency during the fifteenth century towards a somewhat narrower and more exclusive spirit among the craftsmen. It is only fair to add that these various strictures touch only a very small portion of the chapter on crafts; the chapter as a whole is scholarly, and adds much to our knowledge of the subject.

Chapters iii. and iv., which deal with the woollen industry and the agrarian revolution respectively, require little comment, as they are revised editions of papers published some time ago. Among the sources we miss Höhlbaum's 'Hansisches Urkundenbuch,' which contains material illustrating the history of the woollen industry and other phases of English economic development. In his chapter on the agrarian revolution, *i. e.*, the substitution of pasturage or sheep-farming for tillage, the author holds that in the period from 1450 to 1550 "enclosure meant to a large extent the actual dispossession of the customary tenants by manorial lords," and that this often took place "in the form of the violent ousting of the sitting tenant" (§50). Mr. Leadam, in the October number of the *English Historical Review*, presents some strong arguments against this view. Prof. Ashley states that "proofs abound" in support of his position, but he does not produce many of them. Most of his evidence does not directly touch the question of actual dispossession, but bears only on the legal theory regarding the lord's right to oust the villein from his tenement.

The last two chapters are entitled "The Relief of the Poor" and "The Canonist Doctrine." The author has made use of only a small part of the literature relating to the history of English tithes, and does not seem to be acquainted with Hasbach's 'Englisches Arbeiterversicherungswesen,' which deals with the charitable functions of gilds. Both chapters are interesting and valuable, though chapter vi. shows less original investigation than any other in the book, and only a small portion of it directly relates to England; it "is based upon a study and comparison of a number of modern German writers on the history of canon law and of commercial law," whose works are little known to English scholars. In this chapter he shows how men invested their money in the Middle Ages; hence he considers the subjects of usury, rent-charges, the various forms of partnership, and the attitude of the Church towards these different kinds of investment. On p. 437 he says: "The mere fact that statutes were passed against usury from time to time, with the usual pessimistic preamble, no more proves that the law was generally broken than the frequent new criminal laws of modern times prove that all men are thieves or murderers." But in another connection, on p. 309, he considers repeated legislation as an argument to show that the law regarding tithes was not being observed.

In conclusion, we venture to add one general criticism on the book as a whole. The author not infrequently exhibits a tendency to generalize from insufficient data. He relies too much upon the records of London and upon Continental analogies. Here and there he seems to be unduly influenced by German writers, and hence is sometimes inclined to identify by analogy the development in England with that on the Continent (pp. 107, 141, 142, 297, 309, 314, 422). Several important generalizations rest wholly or in large part on data derived from the history of London (§§26, 32, 36, 44, also pp. 89, 384, 462). This is a dangerous tendency, for we do not think that "the difference between London and the other towns . . . was one of degree rather than kind, of quantity rather than quality" (p. 11). The mediæval constitution of London was in many respects anomalous when compared with that of other towns, and unless this fact is clearly recognized, little progress will be made in the investigation of the history of English municipalities. But Prof. Ashley has not gone as far astray as most of his predecessors in laying undue stress upon the annals and muniments of London. He makes considerable use of the printed records of other towns. Only

few of these have, however, been published. Hence it is to be regretted that he did not explore the town archives, the British Museum, and the Public Record Office. They are particularly rich in records relating to crafts, and the assertion may be ventured that, during a summer's vacation, Prof. Ashley could easily have doubled his data, at least for the history of crafts. All generalizations on this last-mentioned subject must, in fact, be accepted with reservations until more craft statutes have been published or utilized. The author often complains of the meagreness of the sources, for example in connection with such subjects as journeymen fraternities (p. 124), the growth of livery companies (p. 132), foreign weavers (p. 202), the woollen industry in the fifteenth century (p. 218), monastic almsgiving (p. 314), and the attitude of the Church toward usury and toward business practice (§76). Doubtless there is plenty of material on most of these topics in the central and local archives of England, and probably no considerable search need be made to find much of it.

Those who know what discouraging obstacles the historian has to surmount in the investigation of the social and constitutional history of mediæval England will understand what Prof. Ashley means by the statement in the preface that he has been obliged in a large measure to do his own work of excavation, and they will not feel inclined to exaggerate the few defects which his book contains. The volume before us will add much to the reputation which he already possesses as one of the leading authorities on the economic history of England. We hope that the public will not have to wait long for the appearance of the third volume.

## CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—IV.

THE children, and we are sure there are many of them, who remember Mr. Joseph Jacobs's 'English Fairy Tales' of three years ago, with the bell and cord on the back and the key on the side, will be delighted to know that, after Celtic and Indian Fairy Tales, Mr. Jacobs has come back this Christmas to his first love, and given them 'More English Fairy Tales' (Putnams), with illustrations by John D. Batten. Stories and pictures are, if possible, better than those in the former collection, and although there are no surprises for folk-lore students in the notes, the volume is of equal interest, to the old as well as to the young. The editor disarms criticism by the frank avowal of his method of compiling his collection. In the dearth of English fairy tales, which have disappeared to a greater extent than in any other country in Europe, Mr. Jacobs has gleaned in Australia and America, and has pressed into his service ballads (sometimes reduced to prose and sometimes left in their original shape) and tales from across the border. As before, he has largely rewritten the stories as he fancies they should be told, and introduced changes here and there in the interest of his juvenile readers. The result is a charming book even if it is not an authority on English folk-tales. The stories represent every class except the legend, and some are variants of those in the earlier collection. One of these, "The Wee Bannock," is a variant of "Johnny-cake." In a note to the former Mr. Jacobs supposes that johnny-cake is a corruption for journey-cake. This etymology is unsupported by Webster or the Century Dictionary, and we must wait for Dr. Murray to catch up with it. To the notes on No. lxiii, "The Pedlar of Swaffham," Mr. Jacobs might have added the interesting lecture by Jacob Grimm, "Der Traum von dem Schatz auf der Brücke" ('Kleinere Schriften,' iii, 414), where the Oriental origin of the story was first pointed out.

While Mr. Jacobs is continuing his series of fairy tales, Mr. Andrew Lang, although he has not exhausted the colors of the rainbow which he has employed to designate his annual collection, has reluctantly turned his hand to true stories and given us 'The True Story-Book' (Longmans), twenty-four tales of adventure, only one of which, "The Spartan Three Hundred," is borrowed from ancient history. The others are more or less modern, "The Tale of Isandhlwana and Rorke's Drift" (contributed by Mr. Rider Haggard) being of yesterday, so to speak, and just as heroic as the story from Herodotus. There are escapes from prison and captivity (Casanova, Baron Trenck, Cervantes, and Cæsar Borgia), tales of pirates, the story of Kaspar Hauser, Grace Darling, etc. The adventures of the Young Pretender and his followers after the battle of Culloden are told at considerable length; but the largest space is devoted to "The Conquest of Montezuma's Empire," reduced by Miss Wright from Prescott's history. Mr. Lang says of it: "That is a very long story, but, to the author's taste, it is simply the best true story in the world, the most unlikely, and the most romantic." There are but two stories from North American history, "A Boy Among the Red Indians" (from Tanner's 'Captivity,' 1830), and "The Shannon and the Chesapeake" (in which Commodore Bainbridge is incorrectly called Bairbridge). In case the American boy does not relish the latter story, the editor has made his peace by observing at the end, "As a rule, however, this good fortune did not attend our arms in the conflict with the American marine." Mr. Lang has made an attractive book, but we think his young readers will echo the sentiment expressed in the dedication—

> "For Fairyland's the land of joy,
> And this the world of pain,
> So back to Fairyland, my boy,
> We'll journey once again."

Mr. Stanley tells us that, during his second expedition (that described in 'Through the Dark Continent') in 1875, it became the custom to gather at night about the camp-fire and listen to stories told by the natives. Some of these have already been published in the great explorer's books of travel or in the magazines, "but a considerable number of the choicest and most curious of those related during seventeen years" remained, and these Mr. Stanley has now given to the public in the volume 'My Dark Companions and Their Strange Stories' (Scribners), with numerous illustrations. The first story is "The Creation of Man," a curious legend repeated by a Basoko. The first living creature was a toad, the origin of which is not known; "it is suspected, however, that the water brought him forth out of some virtue that was in it." The Moon proposed making a man and woman, but the toad pleaded so hard to be allowed himself to create them that the Moon consented, but declared that the toad and his creation should be mortal. The other stories have for actors the various African animals; the rabbit and terrapin playing the part of weakness and cunning triumphant over strength and stupidity. While there are no parallels to the stories in the collections of Harris, Jones, and Owens, the resemblance is striking, and confirms the hypothesis of the African origin of our own negro tales. The stories are well told and are extremely interesting. Mr. Stanley appears in the new light of an accomplished collector of tales, and his book will be welcomed by all.

We are inclined to view askance the artificial fairy tale, manufactured to order, and not the product of organic evolution. The volume before us by George MacDonald, 'The Light Princess, and Other Fairy Tales' (Putnams), shows how difficult a task it is to write a fairy tale with malice prepense. In one story, "The Giant's Heart," the author has simply rewritten the theme of "The Giant who has no Heart in his Body," and it is easy to see how inferior the result is to the tale in Dasent or to "Punchkin" in 'Old Deccan Days.' In the other stories, which are original, Mr. MacDonald displays a delicate fancy, which frequently reminds us of that best of modern fairy tales, 'The Water Babies.' Many of the stories, too, deal with the water and recall in this way Kingsley's classic book. One of the tales, "The Shadows," is very powerful, but was surely written for very old children. The author has been ably seconded by Miss Maud Humphrey, whose illustrations are very pretty, and the book is tastefully bound.

## A FOURIERITE APOSTLE.

*Albert Brisbane:* A Mental Biography, with a Character Study. By his wife, Redelia Brisbane. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 1893.

THE editor of this volume and the author of its "character study" married Mr. Brisbane in his old age, when he was already much broken with chronic dyspepsia and epilepsy. Presumably his children to whom the book is dedicated were the product of a former marriage, of which nothing is said, an omission only one of many touching matters of which we would gladly have been informed. From beginning to end the book is nothing if not vague, but the wife's part is much vaguer than the husband's. It abounds in phrases of exaggerated admiration, with here and there a genuine perception, as, for example, where it is written:

"His very mental constitution rendered it impossible for him to attain to a commonplace, common-sense appreciation of the matter-of-fact world; and he never dealt successfully with either men or matter. This was why he made so many mistakes in his practical efforts, why he overestimated the element with which he attempted to deal; why his imagination projected an ideal transcending all possible realization—at that time, or even at the present time, for that matter."

The autobiography which follows the introductory sketch was not written by Mr. Brisbane, but dictated by him at odd times and intervals, and has the loose and desultory character to be expected from such a method. It is but fair to him to say that he was not satisfied with it, and that, as it stands, much in the form and order is from the editorial hand. He would have had the document "an exposition of principles and laws, and the experience of the individual objective life illustrative of them." He would have had it a history of his intellectual life, "a mental biography"; but it is continually running out into concrete details—sketches of individuals and events—and the value of the performance lies in these to a much greater extent than in the account of his own mental progress. In truth, there was no real progress. There was only a frequent exchange of one notion or set of notions for another. A mind more notional, more visionary, it would be hard to single out. He is always talking about science and imagines

himself its rigid devotee. But there was seldom anything more scientific in his processes than in the lucubrations of the esoteric Buddhists and that kind in general. An ardent disciple of Fourier, like his master he was impatient of the bounds of science, and was ever eager to be soaring into the infinities and immensities, so that from sociology he passed quickly to cosmology, and from the reconstruction of society to the construction of the universe, on which he dilated with the loftiest disdain for the plodding methods of such fellows as Newton and Darwin. He was "soon satisfied that Darwin's theory was one of those superficial creations which the human mind evolves when dealing with universal subjects without the aid of adequate laws to guide it"—meaning by "laws" a framework of subjective notions into which the facts of our experience should be made to fit.

For a life so vague, so shiftless, that of a mere intellectual and moral tramp, Albert Brisbane had all possible furtherance in the circumstances of his parentage and material condition. He inherited from his mother his liberal self-estimation, for it was her opinion that "if she had followed a career of her own, she should have made millions." He inherited from his father his persuasion that whatever is is wrong. When, in 1843, a Millerite asked the elder Brisbane, "Do you know that the world is coming to an end to-morrow?" the answer he got was, "Damned glad of it, sir! Damned glad of it! This experiment of the human race is a total failure." The son also inherited from the father the fortune which permitted him to do nothing for a livelihood, and afforded him indefinite opportunity for travel. Once, when he was eating ice-cream in Paris, it suddenly occurred to him to ask who paid for it, and this circumstance is spoken of as marking an epoch in his life; but that he ever attempted to pay for his own ice-cream or any other satisfaction he enjoyed, these pages give no sign.

Seeking an education in New York, he was fortunate in a French teacher, one John Manesca, and, afterwards studying German in Paris with the once famous Ollendorff, he communicated Manesca's method to the latter, who made it the basis of his well-known system of teaching French and incorporated the exercises which Brisbane lent him bodily in his book. In 1828, being then nineteen, Brisbane went abroad, and, attending the lectures of Cousin, conceived a low opinion of his abilities, in harmony with the general verdict of the more recent students of philosophy. Guizot he barely met. Going to Berlin, he attended the lectures of Hegel and got nothing out of them. His account of the man is very interesting, but his account of his teaching is absurdly vague and thin. He visited Goethe in Weimar, as did Thackeray about the same time, but the Englishman wrote about Goethe much more feelingly than the American. Certainly Brisbane was extremely fortunate in the personal contacts of his life. He saw much of Felix Mendelssohn in Berlin and afterwards in Rome; was intimate with the Meyerbeers, in whose house he had frequent observation of Hegel's social side; also with the Varnhagens and the Arnims, including the celebrated Bettina, and he speaks of Goethe's "Correspondence" with that marvellous child as if it had never been regarded as mendacious. In Vienna, where he saw Napoleon II., with nothing of his father's genius in his face, only his mother's weakness, he assumed the title of count to get into the best society, and succeeded with the trick. From Austria he went to Turkey and Greece, where his experiences were sufficiently romantic. Dallying here and there in Italy, he at length worked round to Paris, where his usual good luck in such things made him acquainted with Heine, not so famed as now. He saw a good deal of the St.-Simonians, but had for their doctrine only a qualified admiration.

After further travels in Great Britain, Ireland, and Holland, he went again to Berlin, and there for the first time read one of Fourier's books and was swept away by it in a torrent of unqualified approval and delight. The book contained Fourier's exposition of "Attractive Industry," and perhaps it was because Mr. Brisbane had heretofore found all industry so little attractive that Fourier's views delighted him so much. He became intimate with Fourier and engaged him to coach him in his theories. The account of them here given is miserably inadequate. It is fullest on the side where they run out into the wildest cosmological vagaries. These had for Mr. Brisbane a more permanent interest than Fourier's reconstruction of society. For the proper comment upon this we must go to Emerson's 'Historic Notes of Life and Letters in New England.' His feeling was "that Fourier had skipped no fact but one, namely, Life." Mr. Brisbane is discreetly silent on that part of the system which elicited Emerson's particular disgust: "The Fourier marriage was a calculation how to secure the greatest amount of kissing that the infirmity of human constitution admitted."

Returning to the United States, Mr. Brisbane was not wholly taken up with the propagation of Fourier's doctrine. He was deeply interested in a scheme of currency which fell into the ground and died, but afterwards bore much fruit in the doctrines of the greenback party. His only popular distinction heretofore has been that of the chief apostle of Fourier in this country, but it is precisely on this point that he is most general and brief. About his relations to the North American Phalanx and to Brook Farm in its degenerate Fourierite state, we have only a few words. George William Curtis is set down as one of the founders of the Brook Farm experiment, when, in fact, he merely went there to board in his seventeenth or eighteenth year. When in 1839 Brisbane was translating Fourier, and Park Benjamin was reading his proofs, the latter suddenly exclaimed, "There is Horace Greeley, just damned fool enough to believe such nonsense." He proved to be so, was active in the North American Phalanx, and opened the columns of the *Tribune* to Brisbane for the propagation of his views. Mr. Brisbane finds the cause of the Fourierites' failures in their lack of scientific completeness. By "scientific" he means mechanical. There are those who think that they died of too much mechanism. Certainly Brook Farm has little charm for us, as it had generally for its best spirits, after the substitution of the Fourierite for the original and less mechanical régime.

There is much more of the autobiography after the collapse of Fourierism in America. Mr. Brisbane again went to Europe, and participated in the revolutions of '48 in Paris and Berlin and Vienna and Rome. To the long list of his notorious acquaintances he now added Karl Marx and Proudhon. Many incidents of the narrative are interesting. There is a long episode on French wines, with a plea for the use of wines as a substitute for more alcoholic drinks and as a prevention of intemperance, with a theory of the harmlessness of the alcohol in wines, which, like many others that he cherished, lacks verification. At the end, the book escapes into a region of wild-cat speculation in the fancy stocks of pseudo-scientific theory and imagination. The final and the general impression which it makes on the reader is a sad one. It is that of a life naturally gifted, and with great opportunities for culture and observation, through some defect of training or inherent fault afflicted with a remarkable sterility, and producing little or nothing in the way of help for us in the solution of any of the problems pressing upon our ethical and social mind.

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*Scotland's Free Church:* An Historical Retrospect and Memorial of the Disruption. By George Buchanan Ryley. With a summary of Free Church progress and finance 1843–1893, by John M. McCandlish, F.R.S.E., late President of the Faculty of Actuaries. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1893.

THIS handsome volume is a timely incident of the fiftieth anniversary of a great ecclesiastical event—the separation of the Free Kirk from the Established Church of Scotland. For frontispiece there is a beautiful etching after a portrait of Dr. Chalmers, and this is as it should be, for no one was more prominent than he in the disruption, or in the initiation of that "Sustentation Fund" which, if it did not make the Free Kirk possible, saved its ministers from many a hardship which otherwise they would have had to undergo. The origin and growth of this fund are set forth separately and with much more elaboration than any other part of the history. Some sixty pages are given to this and other financial aspects of the Free Church's history, and only a few more to the disruption and the events which preceded it and followed it. It is a showing which does credit both to the generosity and the shrewdness of a great body of people, and is in refreshing contrast with the average business management of individual churches in the United States. At the same time there is something preëminently Scottish in the prominence which is given to it relatively to the general account of the origin and progress of the Free Kirk.

If the proportion of sixty pages to three hundred and fifteen seems meagre for the author's exhibition of his special theme, it is only partly because he set out with too large a plan—nothing short, in fact, of a complete history of Scottish Christianity from the earliest times; for this, down to the disruption of 1843, could hardly be treated more compactly than it is, and for a treatment so compact the interest of the narrative is well sustained. First we have three chapters on the monastic period, "The Rule of the Monastery," illustrious with the great names of Sts. Ninian and Columba and Cæda, and then eight chapters on "The Rule of the Palace," the subjection of the Church to the control of kings and bishops. Here, among many interesting incidents, we have the Macbeth to whom Shakspere has given such a questionable shape, figuring as particularly friendly to the Church, and going as far as Rome upon her errands. A high moral character must not too hastily be inferred, for when civilization was much more advanced, we find James IV. making a bishop of his bastard at the age of sixteen, and if James had not been a good churchman this would not have been allowed. The narrative increases somewhat in fulness and interest when we come to Reformation times, and such dramatic charac-

ters as Knox and Mary Stuart appear upon the scene. From these times forward the recital of events has a distinct bearing on the secession of 1843. It makes clear that the controversy which resulted in that secession had its beginnings centuries before:

"The great point of the controversy was not the question of the establishment of a church, nor even the patronage of church livings, in itself. But it was what the existence of the establishment had made a bitter necessity, and what the exercise of patronage had driven to the forefront and key-position of a battle that had been fought at intervals for generations, viz., the protection of spiritual authority from interference and domination of a majority of lawyers [in a civil court] and of a nondescript House of Commons and very unreligious House of Lords."

This contention is made wholly good, and, consequently, the corollary, that it was not the Established Church, but the seceders, who were conservative of their traditions and loyal to the principles of their most trusted guides. Chalmers himself was very far from being hostile to an establishment as such; he was much more hostile to pure voluntaryism, and it was to escape from this and a ministry wholly dependent for its support on the good will of a parish that he threw himself with so much energy into the raising of the Sustentation Fund whereby a kind of voluntary establishment was assured. It was conceded that the patron's presentee might have the stipend and the manse; it was insisted that he could never be the minister of a parish without its free consent; and it was the endeavor of the civil courts and Parliament to nullify this principle that resulted in a schism which for unselfish heroism is almost without a parallel in the course of Christian history.

"In May, 1843, four hundred and seventy-four ministers of the Church of Scotland voluntarily, and under the impulse of constraining principle, made an absolute surrender of their whole incomes, their homes, of the churches in which they had conducted the worship of God —in fact, of every privilege and advantage which the ministers of an established and endowed church could possess. One hundred and ninety-one probationers surrendered at the same time all their hopes and expectations of succeeding to these advantages."

When Jeffrey heard of the event, he cried, "I am proud of my country; there is not another country upon earth where such a thing could have been done." But two thousand evicted ministers had done as brave a thing under Charles II., and our historian does not conceal the fact.

Bacon's proverb of the greatest weights upon the smallest wires never had better illustration than in the beginnings of the Free Church of Scotland. Our author's treatment might have been more expansive than it is, and have gained in interest by being so, but if his narrative is meagre, it is in good part because the events which led up to the disruption were few and had no dramatic interest. The attempt to force three or four patrons' presentees upon unwilling parishes was the occasion of the trouble—the occasion, not the cause. *This* was the long-standing principle of opposition to the intrusion of the patron and the civil power into the settlement of ministers. The act of secession was in itself exceedingly dramatic, and could we follow the fortunes of the seceding ministers into the sandpits and homelier places where they gathered their people together, and into the details of their domestic misery and want, they would, no doubt, abound in the pathetic and the picturesque. Nevertheless, it was a significant fact that in the hall where the 470 seceders convened to organize the Free Kirk, a service of Communion plate was displayed upon a table before the desk. It contained no sacramental bread and wine, but was an advertisement of an article that could be furnished the new churches at a stated price, and it was an amusing symbol of the extremely business-like and matter-of-fact character of the men who organized the Free Church of Scotland and of the work which they performed.

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*In the Track of the Sun:* Readings from the Diary of a Globe-trotter. By Frederick Diodati Thompson. With many illustrations by Mr. Harry Fenn and from photographs. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

Mr. Thompson's volume must have been intended for a holiday book, and it is an ideal of its class. Purple and gold or orange without, and within of ivory lustre, leaves expanding freely and broadly, and more pictures than pages—what more could be desired? As the eye catches in an instant what the ear cannot learn in an hour, no one who glances at the multitudinous cuts will fail to learn something. When we pass to the letterpress, we trace in a terse but minute detail the author's movements during seven months, within which, leaving New York in October, 1891, he went westward round the globe. Some rough weather was encountered on the Pacific, the Gulf of Manaar, and the Syrian coast, and some earthquake shocks in Japan; but no serious accident clouded the sunshine of the wayfarer in the track of the sun. Mr. Thompson's narrative of what he saw will make his readers wish that his experience might be theirs also, and hence it may lead many of them to follow him round the great circle. His specifications of all the steamers and hotels with which he had to do are so precise that even a timid tourist would dare go alone on the path he pursued. It might even be fancied that Mr. Thompson was sent round the world by transportation companies as a decoy agent to lure after him a troop of globe-trotters.

His eye was so inevitable, and his pencil so sure to note what he saw, that travellers who have passed before him on his route will confess that he has detected much that had escaped their observation. But his movements were manifestly too rapid. He who learned so much in seven months, how much more he would have learned, and that with fuller comprehension, in seventeen. The steady celerity of his progress would have been a physical impossibility unless for a man of exceptional vigor. Then, as to mental impressions, he reminds us of ramblers through the Columbian Fair who trusted that they could swallow it all, and, behold, it swallowed them. He was climbing an infinite series of stairs with no landing-place for looking before and after. No sooner had he cried hail to a cityful of wonders than his farewell must follow at once. Such was his usual course, but preëminently on his visit to China. His arrival at the wharf in Canton was at 6:30 A. M. He breakfasted on board the steamer, and "soon after" started in a sedan to see the temple of Buddhas, a butcher's shop, the place of execution, the examination cells, a pagoda, the temple of Confucius, and a prison—only this and nothing more. At five the same evening he sailed away. Yet with pictures and padding of various qualities he fills twenty ample pages, entitling one chapter a "Visit to China." Since Mr. Thompson's travels were a forced march all through, he rode or drove everywhere, and scarcely beheld any scene with the eyes of a pedestrian. Worse than that—he discovered nothing, but all things were shown to him. Always and everywhere he was bound hand and foot and delivered over to what he calls "that necessary evil —a local guide." The true traveller, if it be by any means possible, will journey not as a passive recipient, but as an active seeker.

In looking at Mr. Thompson's pictures one must sometimes turn to his text to learn what they mean, but in many instances that text furnishes no explanation whatever, nor even allusions. Some pictures, as of hotels, steamers, etc., originally produced for advertising purposes—or for books where they really illustrated the letterpress, as in Caine's 'Picturesque India'—are scattered along in Mr. Thompson's gallery "to make up a show" and amuse those who do not care to read. Readers would gladly exchange a dozen of them for sectional maps.

Disregard of the maxim, "Make haste slowly," led our traveller into inaccuracies which mar pages we should be glad to see immaculate. We read, p. 197, "It was from Jericho that the prophet Elijah went forth with Elisha and witnessed the translation of the *latter* in a chariot of fire, carried by a whirlwind up to heaven." Many Sabbath-school scholars will get Mr. Thompson's book as a Christmas gift. Some of them will lose faith in a writer who thinks that Elisha was translated. Others of them will discover in Mr. Thompson a faith that moves mountains. As he was going down to Jericho he saw Mount Hermon beyond the mouth of the Jordan (p. 196). Again, when he had journeyed north beyond the source of the Jordan, which was 120 miles as the crow flies—and further than from Dan to Beersheba—he beheld "Mount Hermon overlooking the city of Damascus" (p. 210). Our great American traveller was swift, but Hermon outstripped him. The children will read that "Beyroot is much superior to the ordinary Turkish cities —a fact which is the result of the American mission schools" (p. 206). Then they will wonder that Mr. Thompson, while "going to and fro in the earth and walking up and down in it," never visited a single one of the thousand missions which belt the globe more truthfully than the British drum-beat.

The more beautiful a book, the more do misprints disfigure it. Knas for Khas, Horis for Horus, and Ledia for Sedia will exasperate scholars. Others are worse. Martinière is a memorial name of an educational foundation by Martin, an Indian Rockefeller. But its significance is hid in the Thompsonian form, which is Maitinière. Edwin Arnold's rhapsody on Queen Mumtaz over whom the Taj was reared is quoted in full, but her name is misprinted Munataz. We can notice but few of the mistakes which cannot be charged to printers. Parsees are said to lay their dead on the *top* of the Tower of Silence (p. 155). Its shape is that of a wash-tub, and so it has no top, and the dead are laid on its floor. The Colosseum is said to cover nearly as much ground as the Great Pyramid (p. 222). Its actual area is less than half as great. It is said of Trichinopoly, "the sojourner may spend a night at railroad refreshment-rooms, but the next day he must move on. It is not permitted to him to remain longer" (p. 109). But the present writer lodged two successive nights at the station rooms next to those in Trichinopoly just before the date of Mr. Thompson's tour, and was welcome. Only one other blunder can be noticed, and that more surprising than any other, in a writer who from first to last makes railroad matters a specialty. We read (p. 108), "The South In-

dian railway is fenced for its whole distance with a hedge of cactus." Can Mr. Thompson have mistaken the century-plant for cactus? It is of the century-plant, and of little else, that that hedge, and most others on railroads and off them in India are formed. Gaps in the hedge (and usually only gaps) are filled with cactus. Who that has seen them can forget the interminable files of flower-stalks rising like masts or contorted like trunks of elephants, because truncated in order that the interlocking leaves may spread sturdy as rails?

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*Inigo Jones and Wren;* or, The Rise and Fall of Modern Architecture in England. By W. J. Loftie. Macmillan. 1893.

Mr. Loftie has made an entertaining book out of Inigo Jones and Wren. It is essentially a plea for return to what is commonly called Italian architecture, but what he rechristens Palladian. His plea is seasoned by truculent and persistent scoring of modern English Gothic and all the architects who have practised it, and by no indulgent treatment of those who have followed them with "Queen Anne." His quarrel with them is that they have no care or sense for proportion, and are lost in detail. He finds not one modern Gothic building worthy of praise, nor one architect of the style to whom he allows merit, unless it be Barry, who practised it against his will, and with less success than others.

"Ignorance of the fundamental rules of proportion, as they were understood by Inigo Jones and Wren," says Mr. Loftie, "is the great fault of the modern architect. His Gothic training has turned his attention to detail only. He thinks beautiful or well-imitated parts must produce a beautiful whole. He flounders about among small features, and is surprised to find that the wildest combination will not result in picturesqueness, just as pressing down the whole keyboard of the piano will not give harmony. Until proportion is again acknowledged, and sought for as the most needful thing in architecture, and as something which may be reduced to mathematical rules like those which govern the sister art of music, we may have buildings, but we cannot have architecture."

He writes, he tells us, not for architects, but for their employers, to whom he looks to constrain them to better things; and he expects that architects will accuse him of flippancy and ignorance. His ignorance, he says, is his own concern; yet when a writer comes forward, uncalled, to instruct the public, his ignorance becomes the concern of the public. We will not call him ignorant, but it appears that there are things which he does not know, and others, probably, which he does not consider.

Doubtless, no one element is more indispensable to good architecture than proportion. But architecture is not so simple a thing as to depend on one element alone. Proportion is essential to architecture for the sake of harmony, which—call it by what name you will, unity, ensemble, breadth, or what not—is the ever underlying excellence of every work of art as art. Other elements than proportion enter into it, of which the chief is, architecturally, that undefined but perfectly recognized thing which we call style. The English Gothicists failed first of all in style—in the beginning because they did not understand the style they tried to work in; afterwards because they deformed it with an eclecticism that they had not skill to reduce to harmony. Their leaders, Scott and Waterhouse, for instance, introduced many forms foreign to English Gothic, which they never succeeded in making at home. The most successful were those who, like Street and Sedding, held most closely to the forms they were born to. There is no knowing what they might have attained, but the architects tired of the style, and flung it away before they had mastered it.

There is truth in Mr. Loftie's complaint that the Gothicists failed in proportion, but he neglects to consider what proportion is. Proportion is as present and as essential in little things as in great, in detail as in mass, in a capital as in a façade. But men are so made that some have a keen sense of it in small things and cannot apply it to great, while others are alive to it in masses but incapable or impatient of it in detail. Scott, for instance, whom Mr. Loftie vilipends with gusto, had a very nice sense for proportion in detail, but was curiously helpless in his grasp of great masses; and here he justifies Mr. Loftie's criticism. But the thing which it is hard for an Englishman to discover is that this defect is characteristically English—that it belongs not to the style of architecture, but to the race. It is their native tendency to do things piecemeal, to look at details rather than wholes; and the foreigner can see that this limitation belongs to their polity, their literature, and their art. It is offset and neutralized in their polity by practical sagacity, sobriety, and administrative force, but it infects all their art, which for this reason lacks the large qualities of form. Mr. Loftie's readers may discover that it affects their criticism also. Doubtless the Gothic style, by the fulness and variety of its detail, offers temptation to this tendency of the English, but it also offers scope for their inventiveness, their vivacity, and their picturesqueness. Here history is our witness. An outside observer can hardly fail to see that the English have succeeded according to the freedom of the style in which they have worked; that their Gothic work has on the whole been superior to their classic. The Englishman, in fact, is very sensitive to restraint, and stiffens under it. In a dress suit and under a stovepipe hat he is a much more rigid person than a Frenchman or an Italian, as much as he is freer and easier in the saddle. The others have worn the restraints of the classic styles with freedom, have worked spontaneously and gracefully under them; the Englishman seems cramped and benumbed by them: his work loses its charm, becomes bald, jejune, and stiff. It is safe to say that, except perhaps in America and the Low Countries, and leaving out the work of two or three exceptional men, the architecture of no civilized country is duller, less interesting, and less beautiful than the work of English architects in the classic vein, from Elizabeth's day to ours.

In truth, the battle of the styles is as idle and futile as a mediæval tourney to decide between the charms of blonde and brunette. One style may better than another suit a particular temperament, but no change of style will turn bad architects into good ones. Moreover, any system of mathematical proportions is as inert a nostrum for the cure of bad design as moral excellence or constructional frankness. Accurate measurement will, of course, procure accurate repetition, and arithmetical ratios will furnish a few simple forms that every one may use in every style; but the subtleties of fine proportion, although they may be registered by arithmetic, are not to be acquired by it any more than color. They depend on an educated sensibility, which is reached by no royal road.

We have said that Mr. Loftie's book is entertaining; it is more. Being the work of a clever and practised writer, it is well done, and it contains much historical information of value. But its point of view is too one-sided and its visual angle too narrow to make its criticism safe.

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*The British Seas.* Picturesque Notes. By W. Clark Russell and Other Writers. With many illustrations. Macmillan. 1893.

In early days, when England's claim of jurisdiction and special sovereignty was wide-reaching, the "British or Four Seas" began where the sixty-third parallel touched the coast of Norway at a point near Christiansand, then, stretching southward along the western coast of Europe to Cape Finisterre, extended west in the latitude of that cape to the twenty-third meridian, and thence northward along this meridian to the sixty-third parallel again. But in the now current acceptation of the term the British Seas are much more contracted, and the area covered by the descriptions of the authors of the interesting volume before us is smaller still, being confined to the coast waters of the most important island in the world, viz., that containing the former kingdoms of England and Scotland and the principality of Wales.

The conditions past and present of the British Isles have been such as to create a maritime people. The country is no longer capable of sustaining its population, and a large proportion of the food supply is sea-borne; the native material for shipbuilding is abundant; the prevalence of stormy weather and the dangers of the coasts and currents exact of the mariner both skill and endurance; his safety and commercial enterprise are provided for by harbors which offer shelter for vessels of all kinds and at all times. Add to these conditions a great producing capacity beyond the country's own needs, from raw materials in part brought by sea. The waters, coasts, and harbors of Great Britain are, then, naturally rich in matters of interest; and, with their bold and rugged scenery, peculiar coastwise population, fisheries and multifarious sea craft, furnish many opportunities for the picturesque, which have been drawn upon largely by the writers and artists of this book.

Of the writers, Clark Russell easily leads the rest, both in graphic ability, in sustained interest, and in realism. Six of the eleven chapters of the book are from his pen, the first two chapters treating of the Downs. The Downs, properly so called, is the great roadstead between the famous Goodwin sands and the main land, south of the Thames entrance, at and about Deal; but the name is sometimes employed to cover all the water area between the North and South Forelands. This anchorage has been used from the very earliest times. Russell well says of it:

"Here were adventured most of the attacks of the foreign foe against the country; up yonder bight, called Pegwell Bay, floated Saint Augustine to as high as Ebb's fleet; a little further along, Julius Cæsar is supposed to have landed. Enough yet remains of old Sandown Castle to bring Col. Hutchinson to the memory, and to fire the imagination with thoughts of deeds done here while it was yet such another fortress as the grim-looking castle of Deal, and the one beyond it at Walmer, where Nelson left a card upon Billy Pitt on finding him in bed, and where the old Iron Duke fetched his last breath. The history of these waters is a panorama of splendor, a gorgeous arras into which is woven very much indeed of what has gone to the making of Britannia. Just past the Goodwin Sands yonder, the ships of the great Armada were chased by those lions of the deep, Frobisher and Fenton and Drake and the others of them. Abreast of that cold height of South Foreland, Blake curled his

whiskers and let fly a throttled and sulphurous intimation to Tromp to lower his flag; in other words, to pull off his hat to Britannia's sea-sovereignty."

After describing the towns within the Forelands—Ramsgate, Broadstairs, Sandwich, and "cold and windy" Deal—the writer takes us northwards to the estuary of the Thames, and up the river to the bridges. This he does briefly, and then, returning to the sea, gives a running description of the coast through the Straits and down the Channel by Dover and Folkestone, Lydd and Hastings, Eastbourne and Brighton, all well known to us as seaside places, and familiar as household words to English ears. Coming to the Isle of Wight, historic waters are again entered in those of Spithead and the Solent, with their tributary waters and harbors of Portsmouth, Cowes, and Southampton. Those who have seen regatta week at Cowes know what a spectacle it is when the "butterflies of the deep" congregate from the Continent and even from across the Atlantic. But Spithead and Portsmouth near by have weightier associations. Here is England's greatest naval port and dockyard, established first in the days of King John. Here kings came to be wedded to queens from beyond the sea; here Admiral Byng was shot, "pour encourager les autres"; here the *Royal George* capsized; here Nelson hoisted his flag upon the *Victory* for the last time. These waters, above all others of England, are linked with its naval history and with its great sea heroes, Anson, Hawke, Rodney, Howe, St. Vincent, and Nelson. Here, also, have been gathered in modern times the greatest and most powerful fleets the world has ever seen under a single flag. From here we are carried on to Bournemouth, called the best wintering-place on the coast, to Torquay, "a crowd of villages on hilly ground exquisitely vivid with perennial growth," to Plymouth, another great naval port, to Falmouth, with its mild climate and Quaker element, to Penzance, with its quaintness and beauty, and then, rounding Land's End, to Bristol Channel, and finally to the docks of Cardiff on the Welsh coast.

We now fall into the hands of a more prosaic writer, who continues on, through St. George's Channel, the Straits of Menai, and finally to Liverpool and the coast of Scotland. On the west coast of Scotland we follow both the inner and outer coast lines, more barren and more rugged than those we have passed. We cruise among the famous islands off the Highland Coast, the scenes of Black's novels, the home of the Princess of Thule. The coast-line becomes more rocky and wild until, reaching the extreme end of Scotland, we round Cape Wrath with its massive rocks looking out into the Northern seas. Turning then southward along the east coast of Scotland, with its fishing-villages and fisher-folk, we reach the busy waters of the Firth of Forth, where again the fertility of the soil allows the ploughers of the sea to meet the ploughers of the land, and the ship to change her tack close to where the plough turns at the end of the furrow. Coming again to England, on the North Sea coast, Clark Russell once more takes the helm, and conducts us along this industrial east coast to Newcastle-on-Tyne, to Sunderland and Middlesbrough, until the old Whitby of whaling days is reached, then Scarborough, and at last the Thames, when the circuit is complete.

The illustrations of this volume are many and various in quality. Those of Colin Hunter are the best, while, of the others, those of Hook, Wells, and Barlow Moore seem to suffer least in the reproduction. We can heartily commend this work as one of general interest, having an especial value for those who sail in the British Seas described or spend any time in the seaside places of England.

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*The Silva of North America.* By Charles S. Sargent. Vol. V. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

THE fifth volume of this important work completes the Polypetaleæ, and makes a beginning with the Gamopetaleæ, describing twenty trees of the former division and twenty-five of the latter. Eleven of the trees described are found east of the Alleghanies and north of Virginia, three belong to the Pacific coast, four are natives of the far southwest, and twenty-seven are peculiarly southern, mostly West Indian species which extend their range into Florida or along the Gulf coast, though two or three follow up the Mississippi valley into Illinois. The eleven northeastern trees are *Hamamelis Virginiana*, the witch-hazel; *Liquidambar Styraciflua*, the sweet-gum; *Aralia spinosa*, Hercules's club; *Cornus florida* and *C. paniculata*, two species of dogwood; *Nyssa sylvatica*, the tupelo; *Viburnum Lentago* and *V. prunifolium*, sheep-berry and black-haw; *Oxydendrum arboreum*, sour-wood or sorrel-tree; *Kalmia latifolia*, the mountain-laurel, and *Rhododendron maximum*, the great laurel or rose-bay.

Of these eleven the sweet-gum and the tupelo are the only trees which grow to a great size, both of them sometimes having trunks four or five feet in diameter, and both reaching the height of 100 feet, the sweet gum alone sometimes far exceeding this stature. In New England the sweet-gum has not been found native outside of Fairfield County in Connecticut; it is not rare on Manhattan Island, and is very common on Staten Island, and from there southward to Florida and westward to Missouri and Texas, reappearing in southern Mexico and in Guatemala. A second species is found in Asia Minor, and a third in China. Other species existed in North America and in Europe during the Tertiary epoch, one of them even in Greenland. Our species forms usually an erect trunk, rising many feet to the first permanent branch, the leaves are almost regularly star-shaped, and turn to a brilliant crimson in autumn; the twigs bear commonly curious ridges of cork, so as to be fairly winged with them, and the fruits are gathered into a hard, round, burr-like body, an inch or more in diameter. This tree is a fine object in parks or on lawns, and deserves far more attention than it has yet received in New England. The tupelo, commonly called pepperidge in the Middle States, is native as far north as Maine. It has a higher polish on its leaves than any other Northern tree, and they turn to an even brighter scarlet than the leaves of the red maple. Mr. Emerson has described one tree of this species at Cohasset, and notes particularly that its "enormous horizontal branches push out as boldly seaward as in any other direction, though the northeast wind sweeps from the bay in this quarter with a violence which has bent almost every other tree towards the land."

Among the other Northern trees are three which have especial beauty when in flower, the flowering dogwood and the two so-called laurels, though neither of them has the slightest relationship to the laurel of southern Europe. The great white flowers of the dogwood shine on our northern hillsides in early spring, and are profusely gathered for home decoration at that season. Botanically they are almost an anomaly in vegetation, for the four large white involucral leaves of each apparent blossom are really the four winter bud-scales expanded and become petal-like. The same thing occurs in the low bunch-berry, and in the dogwood of the Pacific States (*Cornus Nuttallii*), well described in the present volume. It is also seen in two nearly related Asiatic trees. A variety with pinkish, or even red, involucre is now advertised by nurserymen. The mountain-laurel was named *Kalmia latifolia* by Linnæus in honor of his friend Peter Kalm, who travelled in North America from 1748 to 1751, and brought back to Europe the first knowledge of many of our native plants. In the Northern States it is only a very crooked shrub, which grows a few feet high on dry hillsides, but forms high and almost impenetrable thickets in the lowlands, as every one knows who has tried to carry a trout-rod through a laurel-swamp. The clusters of white or rosy blossoms are very showy in early summer, and are then gathered in great quantities, while the evergreen foliage is our chief reliance for decorating churches at Christmas. The peculiar adaptation of the flower to insect-aid in cross-fertilization is now very well known. The great laurel, or rose-bay, has its range from Nova Scotia to the mountains of Georgia. It was abundant thirty years ago in a swamp on the western side of the Hackensack Valley in New Jersey, and may, perhaps, still be found there. Some single plants formed hemispherical masses fifteen feet in diameter, and, when in full bloom, early in July, were unsurpassed in magnificence by any shrub known to the North American flora.

The strangest of the trees of the Arizona region is the *Cereus giganteus*, or candelabrum cactus, for which the native name of Suwarro or Saguero is here adopted, both these words being apparently Spanish corruptions of the names of other trees. The trunk forms a grooved column thirty to fifty, or even sixty, feet high, and one or two feet thick, slightly tapering both ways from near the middle. The branches, but little slenderer than the trunk, come out horizontally, but presently curve upward, and rise to nearly the height of the trunk, parallel to it; so that the trees have much the appearance of colossal candelabra. Mr. Faxon's plate represents only the flowers, fruit, and spines; but a good portrait of a tree is seen in Engelmann's 'Cactaceæ of the Boundary.' The Madroña of California (*Arbutus Menziesii*) is a lofty tree with fine evergreen foliage. The author justly remarks that it "is the noblest of all its race; no other inhabitant of the North American forests with persistent leaves and petalous flowers equals it in size; and among our evergreen trees only the great magnolia of the Southern Atlantic States, the kalmia, and the rhododendron, produce more beautiful flowers."

The twenty-seven Southern trees include the mangrove and several kinds of gum-trees (*Nyssa*) which bear larger berries than our Northern tupelo: the berries of *Nyssa Ogeche* are the Ogeechee limes, which are used for a very delicious acid conserve by the housekeepers of southeastern Georgia. *Eugenia*, a myrtaceous genus, is represented by four species in Florida, mostly rather small trees with entire leaves, and red or black barely edible berries. *Chrysophyllum oliviforme* is a Florida tree for which no English name is given, though the West Indian name, wild star-apple, was ready to hand in Grisebach's Flora. Its chief beauty is in the leaves, which are three or four inches long, pointed oval in

shape, smooth above, but beneath having a velvety covering which is described by various authors as "brilliant copper-colored," "ferruginous aurate," or "golden-tomentose." The handsome, dark-purple berries have a "juicy, sweet, mawkishly flavored flesh," and are in this respect no better than many other tropical fruits.

The next volume of the 'Silva' will probably begin with the persimmon and the silver-bell tree, will include the several species of ash and the fringe-tree, the catalpas and our true laurel-like trees, such as the red-bay and the sassafras, and may possibly reach the elms and the buttonwood, all trees of general interest, and some of them of the greatest value in the arts or for ornamental purposes.

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*General Johnston.* By Robert M. Hughes. (Great Commanders Series.) D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 353.

THIS memoir of Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, by his kinsman, is a very acceptable addition to the series of military biographies. It is pleasantly written, and its high appreciation of the great Confederate general does not prevent a candid treatment of the portions of his career which have been the subject of more or less controversy. His relations to Jefferson Davis became unfriendly soon after the first battle of Bull Run, when the Confederate President issued commissions as general to the five senior officers of the army with dates which put Johnston fourth on the list instead of first. Johnston thought this was in direct contravention of a statute passed by the Confederate Congress, and protested. Davis insisted, and the confirmation by the Senate seemed to put redress beyond the general's reach. The relations between the two men were never cordial afterwards, and Johnston felt the effect of the unfriendliness through his whole career. Controversy also arose between him and Beauregard with reference to the actual command at Bull Run; between him and Gustavus W. Smith in regard to the battle of Seven Pines in front of Richmond, and between him and Bragg concerning the Atlanta campaign. All of these disputes seem to have been the cause of deep and permanent feeling, and nearly every depreciatory estimate of Johnston has been traceable to the enmities thus created. The general judgment of the Southern people has coincided with that of intelligent people elsewhere in awarding to Johnston a place as one of the two greatest commanders whom the Confederate army developed. It is only by the results of actual and responsible leadership of great armies that the abilities of a general can be measured. Those who had not this opportunity may be thought by their intimates to have had quite as great talents, but this is mere opinion. The test of actual and continued supreme responsibility is the only one which history can estimate. No second in command can be admitted to the list, nor can the plea be heard that ill-fortune took from any commander the opportunity for a true exhibition of his powers. All such considerations belong to the "might-have-beens."

The controversial part of the biography naturally occupies a considerable space in Mr. Hughes's book; but his tone is so fair and his advocacy so good-tempered that the interest is rather increased than diminished. Certainly much light is thrown upon the springs of personal motive which may affect great affairs, even when the actors are fully persuaded that they are controlled only by highest patriotism. In every way, therefore, the biography will be found to be a valuable as well as an attractive book.

The author's treatment of the national commanders is entirely fair and respectful. Their abilities are recognized and their characteristics are intelligently analyzed. The bias towards the Confederate side is nowhere shown in any exaggerated or offensive form. The one question on which agreement between representatives of the contestants seems most difficult, is that of relative numbers of soldiers in the opposing armies. It is here that the most fair-minded writers find their prejudices running away with them, and we fear Mr. Hughes can hardly claim to be an exception. We have tried hard and on repeated occasions to bring out clearly the fact that the Northern and Southern soldiers use the words "effectives" and "effective force" with distinctly different meaning. In the statistical returns of the Confederate forces, officially made, there is a column of figures marked "effective," from which all commissioned officers and the non-commissioned staff are excluded. There is no such column and no such use of the word in the statistical returns of the national army. In the national return the total "present for duty" includes all officers and non-commissioned officers from the general downward. When such a writer as Gen. Sherman uses the phrase "effective strength" in reference to his army, he does so to distinguish the "present for duty" from the "aggregate present." The latter includes those present who are sick, or are doing some duty which takes them out of the ranks, like clerical work, etc. Yet Mr. Hughes gravely argues that because Gen. Sherman uses the phrase "effective strength," he is justified in assuming that it means the same as in the Confederate returns. If he had examined the original returns in the Archives Office at Washington, or asked for a copy of the blank on which they were made up, his mistake would have been evident. He would then have found the officers and non-commissioned officers stated in all totals, and a comparison of the figures would show that Sherman uses the phrase "effective strength" as meaning "officers and men actually present for duty."

Mr. Hughes notices very frankly "a notable article on the subject of Johnston's strength" by Maj. Dawes, in 'Battles and Leaders of the Civil War,' vol. iv., p. 281, and points out what he thinks are errors in it. First, as to artillery, he says that if Johnston's reserve of thirty-six pieces is counted, all that Sherman had "in all his departments" should also be counted. This at first seems plausible, but the plausibility disappears when we state the fact that Sherman had control of organized forces on the Mississippi and elsewhere, as well as in Georgia. These had their separate tasks and their distinct opponents. Johnston had only to meet the army in Georgia, and his reserve artillery was at the front with his infantry. Thomas at Nashville was under Sherman's command when Johnston for the last time confronted him in North Carolina. What would Mr. Hughes say if Thomas's forces were counted as part of the army which Johnston fought at Bentonville?

Second, Mr. Hughes says that Maj. Dawes states at 2,800 the strength of Mercer's brigade which came up from the Gulf to reinforce Johnston, but that the latter says it was 1,400. This is worthy of consideration, but a note appended to Johnston's return for April 30 shows that a single regiment of that brigade had 927 present. The regiments seem to have been in garrison on the Gulf and not to have been reduced by casualties. This makes it probable that Johnston meant only that 1,400 of that brigade arrived at the date he mentions.

Third, Mr. Hughes says that Major Dawes had included one brigade twice in Cantey's division. If he had compared the figures more closely, he would have found that the duplication was carefully avoided.

Lastly, he says Major Dawes puts at 5,000 the Georgia militia which Gov. Brown brought into the field; whereas Gen. Gustavus Smith, who commanded them, puts them at 2,000 prior to July 22, when Johnston turned the army over to Hood. Smith's report says that when they took the field they numbered "a little over 3,000 men." He then adds that somewhat later, but before reaching the Chattahoochee, Gov. Brown called out the "reserve" militia, which numbered "about" 2,000 "effective muskets." These reserves were not the original call, but additional, and when the whole were in Atlanta, Smith again says of them, "The greatest number of effective muskets in the trenches at any one time was about 5,000" (Official Records, vol. xxxviii., part 3, pp. 970, 971). About 5,000 "effective muskets" means about 6,000 officers and men. At Richmond, the militia and reserves with Johnston were estimated in June at 7,000 to 10,000 men (O. R., xxxviii., pt. 4, p. 805).

Detailed criticism of this kind should be heartily welcomed. In this instance it makes more clear the excellent work which Major Dawes did in the paper referred to—work which ought to be imitated in the statistics of every campaign of the war. The result shows that solid ground is fairly attainable, and that the period has come at last when historians must abandon the cry, formerly so often raised in a retreat, "We were fearfully outnumbered."

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*Things Chinese.* By J. Dyer Ball. Charles Scribner's Sons.

FOR such a book as this we are very thankful, even though in title and plan it is a transparent imitation of Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain's work entitled 'Things Japanese,' the first edition of which was issued in 1890. Indeed, so close are the resemblances at many points that a recognition of the fact at which we have glanced would have been highly appropriate in either preface or index to this volume on China. We do not find such a desired expression of courtesy, though we note quotations from Chamberlain of the source of which no hint is given.

Comparison is naturally provoked. The original projector of a handy cyclopædia of things far Oriental (and we trust that 'Things Corean' is soon to see the light) is a cosmopolitan scholar. An Englishman by birth and loyal to his country, language, and ideals, his facile mastery of many tongues and literatures, and familiarity with various countries and races, lend a gloss of style and a touch of sympathy not found in the author of 'Things Chinese' or in his book. The signal abilities of the typical English civil-service officer are no less manifest than his limitations, and the latter occasionally appear in these pages with almost ludicrous effect. For example, when writing of printing in China, he tells us of the "imperial order reproducing the classics in A.D. 952, thus anticipating Caxton's discovery in Europe by about five centuries." The idea of the Englishman's (who learned his noble trade from the Netherlanders) "discovering" printing, compels the suggestion that, possibly, Chinese conceit is contagious. The author's

references to America also seem to show that those sections of the United States not bearing the name of England are sadly deficient in civilization. In his treatment of Chinese subjects, however, the author is candid, judicial-minded, and very far above the average immigrant from the British empire, whether "griffin" or veteran resident. His knowledge of the language and nature of the people fills him with a sympathy, and his volume generously illustrates British fair play, vastly beyond the ordinary.

It would be difficult to point out all the merits of this excellent work, but especially luminous and informing are the articles on the abacus, Buddhism, ancestral worship, dialects, education, food, Mohammedans, Mongols, secret societies, and the status of woman. Of course, it would be easy to point out omissions, yet it is wonderful that one small book has been made to contain so many things known to Mr. Ball. The style is clear, lively, and suggestive, as, for example, in the sentence closing the article on printing: "There is a softness and mellowness about the character (printed on blocks) which is wanting in the clear-cut metallic type"—a sentence which every lover of the richly toned Chinese books heartily appreciates. The foes, ever greater than thieves, or fire, or time, to the preservation of wood blocks, are insects, the white ant leading a great host. In addition to the articles treating of the selected themes, there is appended to each a list of the best books, and articles in periodicals. It is interesting to note that the American S. Wells Williams's book, 'The Middle Kingdom,' leads the long list of those recommended by the author. The essay on bibliography is one of the best in the book. A valuable index completes this interesting work of half a thousand pages. For the general reader, the busy man, the intending tourist who needs a guide through the labyrinth of literature on China, this handy work of reference is without a peer.

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*The Country School in New England.* Text and illustrations by Clifton Johnson. D. Appleton & Co.

He whose mind has no natural and kindly leaning towards the subject of the country school is an exceptional person indeed, and must be sadly destitute of country cousins, old-fashioned relatives, or a fondness for the early biography of worthies of our own land. The writer (and illustrator) of the volume before us starts out with the ancestral cradle of learning as his theme, and with the privilege of treating it at length, from the days of Webster's Speller, plummets, and samplers, to the pedagogically illuminated present. The text is honestly and soberly done, and carries conviction that facts have been duly authenticated, and that whatever is stated is worthy of implicit credence. But the harvest of quaint, picturesque, or instructive items fairly to be expected from the chapters on old-time school days is disappointingly scant, the observation throughout is commonplace and unpenetrative, while a long collection of definitions and compositions by school-children rather lamely and impotently concludes the whole. The illustrations, from photographs chiefly, are what one hardly cares to call amateurish, after the triumphs of the amateur operator and exhibitor. In the absence of artistic qualities they may please by the honest human nature in the faces of the boys and girls who stiffly or diffidently pose before the lens. On the whole, the reader's bill of complaint is more against the second than the first party to the book. Why the publishers should have thought the contents worthy of the dress of a holiday *édition de luxe* is matter for surprise. The gilt edges, full-page process plates, and unpleasantly shiny thick paper give an air of false merit to what might have better passed muster in more modest guise.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Badenoch, L. N. Romance of the Insect World. Macmillan. $1.25.
Beard, W. H. Action in Art. Cassell. $2.
Blum, Hans. Das Deutsche Reich zur Zeit Bismarcks. Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Westermann. $7.50.
Bowring, L. R. Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Bradlee, Rev. C. D. Sermons for the Church. Boston: G. H. Ellis. $1.25.
Cuthell, Edith E. Only a Guardroom Dog. Cassell. $1.25.
Ford, J. L. The Third Alarm: A Story of the New York Fire Department. Brentanos. $1.50.
Grosart, A. B. Thoughts that Breathe, from the Writings of Francis Bacon. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Hall, Gertrude. Allegretto. Illustrated. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Huxley, Prof. T. H. Darwiniana. Appletons. $1.25.
Irving, Henry. The Drama. Tait, Sons & Co.
McKee, Oliver. U. S. "Snap Shots." Boston: L. Barta & Co.
Nicholson, Prof. J. S. A Treatise on Money, and Essays on Monetary Problems. 2d ed. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Pomona. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Putnam, G. H. Authors and their Public in Ancient Times. Putnams. $1.50.
Roberts, W. Printers' Marks. London: George Bell & Sons: New York: Macmillan. $2.75.
Russell, W. C. The Emigrant Ship. Cassell. $1.
Smith, Goldwin. Specimens of Greek Tragedy. 2 vols. Macmillan. $2.50.
Smith, Mrs. May R. Sometime, and Other Poems. Randolph. $1.25.
Some Artists at the Fair. Scribners.
Songs of Adieu. Portland, Me.: T. B. Mosher. $1.
Southworth, Mrs. E. D. E. N. How He Won Her. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Stokes, Prof. Sir G. G. Natural Theology. [Gifford Lectures for 1893.] Macmillan. $1.50.
The Thoughts of the Emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. Long's Translation. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.30.
Uzanne, Octave. The Book-Hunter in Paris. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $5.
Young, Julia D. Thistle-Down Poems. Buffalo: Peter Paul & Bro.


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| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1892, to 31st December, 1892. | | $3,690,250 88 |
| Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1892 | | 1,472,142 48 |
| Total Marine Premiums | | $5,162,393 36 |
| Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1892, to 31st December, 1892 | | $3,759,193 05 |
| Losses paid during the same period | $1,466,178 06 | |
| Returns of Premiums and Expenses | $738,617 09 | |

The Company has the following assets, viz.:

| | |
|---|---|
| United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks | $7,816,455 00 |
| Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise | 2,027,000 00 |
| Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at | 1,029,345 26 |
| Premium Notes and Bills Receivable | 1,336,622 46 |
| Cash in Bank | 276,262 99 |
| Amount | $12,485,685 71 |

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 28, 1893.

## The Week.

THE calm with which Chairman Wilson's proposal to abolish the reciprocity clauses of the McKinley bill has been received, shows how little interest has really been taken in that business. Mr. Wilson properly characterizes it as a scheme of retaliation, and truthfully states that its main effect has been to provoke ill-feeling and diplomatic remonstrances. It was never intended seriously, McKinley and Reed approving it at the time of its passage with their tongues in their cheeks; and it was only the immense unpopularity of the tariff of 1890 that afterwards caused the Republican managers to seize upon reciprocity as a means of diverting attention from what they were really at. There is surely no occasion to keep up the pretence any longer, and it will pass into oblivion along with its twin humbug, the "Bureau of American Republics."

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Some interesting remarks on the new tariff bill by Mr. Arthur T. Lyman, the well-known carpet-manufacturer of Lowell, Mass., appeared in the *American Wool and Cotton Reporter* last week. He considers the bill "on the whole a useful and fair one," and declares that "the rates generally are as high as most manufactures that are well established and in good condition should require." He proceeds:

> "It is admitted by many manufacturers, I think I may say by most manufacturers, that many of the rates under the McKinley bill were far too high, and actually hurt them in their current business, besides creating throughout the whole country a strong and well-founded opposition to the McKinley bill and its enormous rates. The McKinley bill, in fact, was the most effective free-trade argument ever brought forward in this country, and many people consider that the next most effective one would be obstruction and defeat in the Senate of the Wilson bill."

Mr. Lyman does not think that the recent elections can be considered as deliberately reversing the votes of the whole country in 1890 and 1892 "in opposition to the McKinley excesses," and he does not think it would be safe for the protected manufacturers to go before the country on a high-tariff issue at the general elections of 1894 or 1896. These are not the views of a "doctrinaire" or "theorist," but of one of the shrewdest business men in New England.

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It is gratifying to see Republicans recovering their faith in the intelligence of workingmen. After the Presidential election of 1892 it seemed as if that faith was for ever gone, leading Republicans vying with ex-President Harrison in making epigrams about the stupidity and selfishness of the laboring men who voted for Cleveland. But now all that has been changed, and we see Republican newspapers profoundly impressed again with the political capacity and character of workingmen. Why is this? Simply because Republican politicians are getting up mass-meetings of the unemployed to protest against the Wilson bill. The committee on ways and means, we are told with much solemn wagging of newspaper heads, are becoming terribly alarmed at these workingmen's protests, and may yet pause in their mad career. Perhaps they may pause, but if they do, it ought only to be to remark that business is poor and wages are cut down under a tariff which was going to make such things impossible, and which has at least six months more of life in it. They might also remark that mass-meetings in the far West attribute the evil to the stopping of the silver purchases, and that there is just as much reason in one contention as the other. It would be easy to get up mass-meetings of the unemployed and induce them to resolve that the hard times are due to the failure to annex Hawaii. Indeed, Senator Morgan has openly argued that if the United States Government would only guarantee the bonds of the Nicaragua Canal Company, the thousands of the unemployed would at once find work at good wages. With so many nostrums suggested, why should the protection nostrum be given the preference?

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The Knights of Labor do not attract so much notice nowadays as a few years ago, and it is not a matter of so much consequence as formerly what sort of a man the general master-workman is. Nevertheless, it is a satisfaction to find that Powderly's successor has sensible views on the subject of strikes. Although he has been connected with labor organizations for years, he has never been in a strike, and he is "inclined to think their day is over." He says further: "They are the very last extremity to be resorted to, and even then they should be unaccompanied by force, and should be a dignified and peaceful protest on the part of labor against the terms given them. The ballot is much more effective in redressing wrongs than strikes or arbitration." While Powderly was a protectionist, Master Workman Sovereign is "an out-and-out free-trader," and considers so-called protection to American labor "a delusion." He says that "invested capital receives a bonus in the form of protection, and it is then optional with the capitalist to give a share of the bonus to labor in the form of increased wages. But this option is seldom if ever exercised."

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Congressman Boutelle took his place on Thursday among the great army of those who lash themselves into patriotic fury over Hawaiian affairs without stopping to read the evidence. He was suffering terribly about the hauling down of the flag in Honolulu last spring, and was wildly demanding to know by what authority Mr. Blount had caused that act to be done. By the authority, dear Congressman, of the person whom the Constitution declares to be "the commander-in-chief of the army and navy." Doubtless if Boutelle had been in Admiral Skerrett's place, he would have refused to obey the orders, on the ground that the Constitution could not have foreseen that such a dastardly letting go of booty would ever be commanded by a President of the United States; but in that case Boutelle would only have got himself imprisoned or shot, and then we could not have had him in Congress to keep on driving Republicans to the support of the President.

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As a general rule Senator Hoar does not need to be followed seriously, but by his remark that "the President has not a word of disapprobation of the private and public profligacy of the Queen," he has outdone himself as a comic orator. The notion that the President of the United States should discuss in a message to Congress the chastity of foreign potentates must surely have been obtained from an unpublished work of the lamented Offenbach. He should get a chapter on royal profligacy into the next edition of Wheaton. An awful account of the morals of Catharine II. of Russia will be found in Bancroft, but Alexander Hamilton took no notice of them, whereas he ought, according to the luminous Hoar, to have written her long despatches on her weakness and evil behavior.

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With every successive statement ex-Minister Stevens gets farther and farther away from the evidence against him, and may now be dropped out of consideration with great relief to all concerned. The country will take no interest in any more of his essays on "human government in its best form," or in his animosity against George III. and Lord North. To show how reckless he is in his assertions it is only necessary to point out how one of his own friends among the Hawaiian revolutionists gave him the lie on Thursday last. Says Stevens: "My opinions were so privately held that,

both in Honolulu and in California, it was believed that the American minister was averse to annexation." Says Mr. P. C. Jones, a member of President Dole's cabinet: "Of course, I will not contend for a moment that Minister Stevens was not in sympathy with us. Every one knew that he was in favor of annexation." Oh, Stevens, Stevens!

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It was not, perhaps, to be expected that the religious press would read the evidence in the Hawaiian case, and so earn a right to speak upon its legal aspects, but it did not seem a violent supposition that at least some proper appreciation of the morality and high justice of President Cleveland's position might be seen in the professional expounders of religion and morals. It would be quite possible to acknowledge this, one would think, even if the President should be held to be mistaken in the details of his policy. But, alas! the *Independent* has only a sneer for Mr. Cleveland's "moral homily on international justice," and the *Outlook* observes that the President's course appears to be "based on analogies between the nation and the individual which have no sound basis in logic or morals." But it is precisely on such "analogies" that the whole conception of international justice is based, and it ought not to be from a religious paper that men learn the doctrine that what would be wrong for one individual to do to another is right for one nation to do to another. Is this a remnant of the old theological hocus-pocus whereby it used to be said that an act or a sentiment which would properly be called revolting in man, was in the Creator only a peculiarly exalted kind of virtue? However that may be, it is a deplorable and alarming thing that professional moralists should be debating about the sin of dancing or going to the theatre, and tithing the other mint and cummin of morality, and should go helplessly wrong on the question whether the nation should play the bully and highwayman. There is a moral paralysis evidenced by all this in full keeping with the wonderful dictum of McKane's presiding elder, who said, in regard to one of the sins with which that good Methodist is charged, that his contempt of the court which was undertaking to check him in his course of crime was "only a matter of court discipline," and therefore had nothing to do with Christian morality.

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Why the hubbub about Hawaii is still kept up it is hard to see. The Oligarchs may have their independent republic, but have not the least chance of annexation, so why do their friends here not keep quiet and let them go on "developing" the Islands and getting rid of the natives? The Queen has declined to be restored on condition of respecting the persons of the Oligarchs, and without this President Cleveland has distinctly said he cannot and will not help her, in spite of Stevens's misconduct. Congress, even if it were disposed, could not annex without a two-thirds vote, for the President would veto any bill for the purpose; and that a two-thirds vote, or even a majority, could be got for any such purpose, nobody pretends. Therefore, the best thing to be done would seem to be to let the Hawaiian Republic work out its own salvation or destruction. The experiment will be interesting because it will be the smallest independent republic on the globe, much smaller than San Marino, which, besides, can hardly be called independent. The statement that the few hundred foreigners own three-fourths of the property in the Islands, shows that, though few in numbers, they are gifted with no ordinary commercial sagacity. "Think of this," as Blaine said, "in one small island." If they were let loose in Wall Street, stocks would certainly be pretty "lively" for a few days.

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Thursday's despatches from Honolulu reported a "growing sentiment" there that "the formation of a republic is the only way out of the present difficulty." The process is not explained, but we suppose it can only be in accordance with Minister Thurston's declaration that "the royalists must be stamped out." A glance at the material for a republic in Hawaii will show how promising it is, and what a new glory it is likely to bring to representative government. One-fifth of the population is Chinese, and they, of course, cannot vote. A seventh more is Japanese, and it would not do to let them vote either. They and the Chinese would just do to make up the helot class which most republics have to import, but which the lucky Hawaiian republic would find on hand to start with. There are also 8,602 Portuguese; they might be allowed to vote provided they would vote right, and the fact that 6,276 of them cannot read or write makes it highly probable that they would vote right. Then there are 40,622 natives whom it would not be safe to allow to vote, as they do not want a republic at all. This would leave a snug little nucleus of about 15,000 miscellaneous foreigners, something like one-fifth of the total population, who could make —provided they were all of one mind— one of the tightest little republics known to history.

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Admiral Stanton having been restored to his command, or to another "equally as good," after an interval of two months' disgrace or discredit, and, we presume, of diminished salary, with no other charge against him than "a grave error of judgment," we think it fair to ask once more whether Mr. Herbert does not consider this practice of punishing officers of high rank before trial a most unfortunate one for the discipline and reputation of the navy? It has been the custom, both under him and under his predecessor, whenever an officer at a distant post did something which looked bad, or which, if proved, would subject him to punishment, to deprive him of his command by telegram, and fill the newspapers with all sorts of disparaging reports about him, and then inquire into the matter later. This was done in the case of Commanders Whitehead, Reiter, Higginson, and Admiral Stanton. Now it so happens that, under the naval regulations, this operates as a terrible punishment, for not only does it discredit the officer at home and abroad, but it also suddenly cuts down the salary on which, probably, his wife is living in a rented house and educating his children in some city of the Union. In other words, along with disgrace it inflicts a tremendous fine. That it is entirely unnecessary, as well as unjust, we need not say. In Admiral Stanton's case, for instance, it was the easiest thing in the world to disavow the salute of Mello's flag, and then ask Stanton for his explanation. It was very plain from the beginning that the revolt of a navy against its own government in its own harbor was so unusual that it created a situation which made a mistake in the matter of saluting very easy. Peixoto was not such a terrible fellow that we had to go down on our knees to him on the spot. Why not, then, disavow the salute, and ask Admiral Stanton for his report, and wait till he was heard from before condemning him? Why not, in short, give commanding officers of our ships of war the treatment accorded to gentlemen all over the world—that is, ask for an explanation before slapping their faces?

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The President could hardly have made a better selection for the Italian mission than Mr. Wayne MacVeagh; the pity is that he did not think of him sooner. The public does not need to be told who Mr. MacVeagh is, and the papers of all parties of his own city vie with each other in singing his praises. He will be what is rare in our diplomacy, the right man in the right place.

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Senator Proctor introduced a bill in the Senate last week providing for the annexation of Utah to Nevada, and the making of one State out of the two. This is the ideal solution of a problem which otherwise must apparently always remain on our hands. There is no reason to expect that Nevada will ever have a population large enough to fit it for statehood, but the privilege cannot be taken from it without its consent, which cannot be looked for. On the other hand, Nevada and Utah together would make

a State of considerably over 250,000 people to-day, and one which would steadily grow in population, instead of dwindling, as has been the case with Nevada for the past fifteen years. There was a time when Nevada was anxious to secure a slice of Utah, and the Constitution authorizes the addition if it can be brought about. If the whole of Utah could be annexed, all the difficulties of the existing situation would vanish. The office-holders and office-seekers of both will object to the movement, but their opposition ought not to prove effective.

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It would also be a good thing if Arizona and New Mexico could be brought into the Union as a single State. There is grave danger that Arizona will turn out a second Nevada, for, in spite of all the boasting about her rapid growth, the population increased between 1880 and 1890 only from 40,440 to 59,620, and a considerable proportion of these are Indians. Nor is New Mexico growing rapidly. It had 119,565 people in 1880, and only 153,593 in 1890; and the vote cast in 1892 for delegate to Congress was several hundred smaller than in 1890. It would be the grossest sort of an outrage to give two Senators, one Representative, and three votes in the electoral college to the few thousand men who are eligible to the suffrage in Arizona. New Mexico and Arizona together have scarcely as large a population as a State ought to have, and the idea of making two States out of them now is certainly intolerable. We trust the Senate will show more discrimination about these questions than was manifested in the House.

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The Democrats in Congress did a very discreditable thing, just before taking the recess, by the passage of a mileage grab. The law provides for the payment of mileage for each "regular session," of which there are two during the term of each Congress. But when the extra session opened last August, a resolution was adopted making available then the amount provided in one of the regular appropriation bills for the payment of mileage during the session opening in December, 1893, and it was at once drawn by Senators and Representatives. No intimation was given that this was anything more than it appeared on its face—an anticipation for the sake of convenience in the drawing of money which was to be drawn once and might better be drawn in August than in December. But last week a provision was brought forward for the appropriation of $175,000 in the urgent deficiency bill for the payment of mileage a second time, and it went through both branches by an overwhelming majority. There have been a dozen extra sessions of Congress, but never before has mileage been voted for one of them; and it is peculiarly outrageous that a party pledged to "economy and retrenchment" should make such a grab out of the public treasury at a time when the Government must borrow money to pay its necessary expenses.

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The report of the Inter-State Commerce Commission must be unpleasant reading for those who strenuously advocated and still uphold the act to regulate commerce. The greater part of that report is taken up with indirect defences against attacks upon certain sections of the law and with requests for additional legislation. In both cases the failure of the act to accomplish its original purpose is by implication admitted. When Judge Dillon stated that the insolvency of the Union Pacific Road was in part attributable to the inter-state commerce law, he voiced a sentiment common among railroad men and financiers. Against this the commission protests, because "the law operates only to prevent unjust charges and undue partiality"; which merely begs the question. This opinion is further discredited by the next clause in the report, in which a strong argument is made in favor of giving authority to the commission to prescribe minimum as well as maximum rates. If railway insolvency comes only through "unjust charges," then authority to stop the decline would be against public policy. As a matter of fact the spirit and terms of the inter-state act have always been inequitable. The law was framed to operate against the railways, not to be simply just. It is of course true that abuses existed, but it was entirely overlooked that in most cases these were themselves effects rather than causes; so that the law, by forbidding unjust discrimination and at the same time prohibiting agreements as to rates, was contradictory. So high an authority as Judge Cooley declared in effect in one of his first decisions that the act did not contemplate any relief to the carriers, but only to the shippers. And to this day there exists an idea that railway corporations may become bankrupt without injury to the community, provided only that charges continue to decrease. In this spirit the act to regulate commerce was conceived.

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It is not reasonable, perhaps, to blame the commissioners because these gentlemen have carried out the intent of the law. Since its enactment in 1887 a few cases involving questions under the act have been passed upon by the Federal courts, with the result that in nearly every instance the decisions have been adverse to the law or the commission's interpretation of it. Doubtless many objectionable features would be in time thus whittled away, but it would be to the lasting advantage of the public if we could now have railway regulation framed on principles of justice to both parties. For example, the report under review declares the prohibition of a greater charge for a shorter distance to be "nothing more than an extension to places of the rule forbidding unjust discrimination between persons," when the facts show the analogy to be false. Just discriminations between persons are not forbidden by this one-sided law, only unjust ones, but in the short-haul clause no such distinction is made; just and unjust differences between places (as to short-haul charges) are alike condemned.

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The burdens of rulership must seem heavy to Mr. Croker in these days. With between fifty and sixty of his deputy-sub-assistants under indictment and arrest for cheating at the polls; with Dr. Parkhurst in pursuit of the Police Department with such a very sharp stick that all the police captains as well as the police commissioners are kept dancing with uneasiness all the time; with one police captain under indictment and another in danger of a similar fate in the near future; with one police commissioner convicted by the *Times* of having been a defaulter in Buffalo before he was brought here to help Mr. Croker govern us; with another police commissioner pursued by the *World* with most disagreeable evidence as to his suddenly acquired wealth on a small salary; with nearly the entire press of the city in open and increasing hostility to Tammany, seeking for new evidence of its corrupt and criminal character for daily publication—with all these causes for worriment and others too numerous to catalogue, Mr. Croker must sometimes wish that he had retired from rulership after the last election, and devoted the remainder of his days to the peaceful enjoyment of his great riches—an enjoyment, alas, which the impertinent meddling of a legislative investigating committee may soon make for ever unattainable.

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The business and financial troubles of the leading South American countries and of the United States have had a marked effect in checking emigration from Europe during the past two years. From tables lately published by the chief of the Italian statistical bureau, it appears that a decline in emigration is to be seen in its returns from Great Britain and Germany and Italy—that is, the great fountains of emigration. The falling off was greatest of all in Italy, in 1892, and it is no doubt true that the present distress in Italy is intensified by the fact that some 70,000 Italians who, under ordinary circumstances, would have found work abroad, were kept at home to swell the numbers of the unemployed. This is only one of the ways in which the business dependence of one country upon others is shown.

*SECRETARY CARLISLE'S REPORT.*

THE report of the secretary of the treasury has been looked for with eagerness by the business community this year on many accounts. The Treasury is facing a deficit of greater or less magnitude, and has been for a long time postponing all payments that were not pressing. It is necessary that the Government should have more revenue, and it is clear also that new taxes cannot be put in operation soon enough to meet the exigency. Hence some kind of temporary borrowing must be resorted to.

The repeal of the silver-purchase act has opened a new series of financial questions. What shall be the future currency of the nation? How shall it be regulated? What principles shall it rest upon? These are questions properly falling within the purview of the secretary of the treasury, and his opinion ought to be influential with Congress and with the country.

The secretary's views as to the method of laying the new internal-revenue taxes are of great importance and interest, especially when the committee of ways and means appears to be in doubt. Usually the committee makes up its own mind, as it does with reference to tariff details, without much heed to the secretary's opinions, but in the present case it is assumed that his opinions are likely to be controlling, or perhaps have been formed in consultation with the committee.

These are the three points which have insured unusual attention to Mr. Carlisle's report. In regard to a temporary loan, which seems to be unavoidable, the secretary shows that the old laws of 1870 and 1875 are inapplicable, in a financial sense, to present conditions. The bonds authorized bear too high a rate of interest and run too long. It is needless to dwell upon this subject. Argument upon it was exhausted long ago. The secretary recommends in lieu thereof alternative plans. One is the issuance of bonds running five years at 3 per cent. interest, of denominations of $25 and upwards, to be sold through the sub-treasuries and post-offices. The other is a plan for issuing "obligations," presumably Treasury notes, not exceeding $50,000,000 in all, payable one year after date and bearing interest not exceeding 3 per cent. The latter method we consider decidedly preferable. It is very likely, indeed almost certain, that the Government will be able to pay off this temporary debt in the course of two or three years, in which case it ought to have the option of doing so. Moreover, a great many creditors of the Government would gladly receive their pay in these very notes, while all that were not so taken would find a ready market without the payment of any commissions whatever, and probably at 2½ per cent. interest, if not less. They would form a ready investment for "call money." The demand for such an investment is so great at present that a large part of the $50,000,000 might be taken at as low a rate of interest as 2 per cent. Of the two plans for borrowing, the second is therefore the preferable one and likely to be the more popular of the two.

The whole drift of the secretary's report touching the currency is towards the retirement of all kinds of Government paper and the withdrawal of the Treasury from banking business of every description. It is a great pity that Mr. Carlisle, having stepped into this cold brook, did not pass over completely and say: "I recommend that steps be taken to redeem and cancel every scrap of Government circulating notes, of whatever name and nature, and that when they are so redeemed the Treasury confine itself to the collection of its revenues and the payment of the public expenses." This is perhaps the first time since the close of the war when the public mind has been ripe for such a communication from the chief financial officer of the Government. The fact that Mr. Carlisle went as far as he did is evidence of this state of mind. He has deprecated Government paper money and shown that it is unreasonable, unphilosophical, and unfinancial. But instead of saying to Congress, "Reform it altogether," he has thrown out a hint that $55,000,000 more of the same kind of stuff might be issued under the guise of "coining the seigniorage"—that is, putting into the form of silver dollars the imaginary difference between the cost of the silver bullion in the Treasury and what it would have been worth at a former period of the world's history when sixteen ounces of silver was worth one ounce of gold. This is the fly in the secretary's pot of ointment. It is true that he does not recommend coining the seigniorage, but merely says that he has made such preparations that he could coin the whole of it in the course of five years. He speaks of this step as a manufacturer might speak of a plan for keeping his works going, turning out carpets or chairs.

The mint does not exist for the purpose of keeping workmen employed, nor is the coinage of silver dollars necessary to the issue of fiat money. The Government printing-press can furnish all of the latter that is really needed, at lower cost and with greater expedition than all the mints put together. Under the conditions of the single gold standard, which now prevails and which will not be changed, all the "seigniorage" past, present, and to come, as well as all the silver dollars, are "fiat," to all intents and purposes. It is as needless for the secretary to inform Congress that he has the means to coin the seigniorage as that he has facilities for printing more greenbacks.

The secretary's recommendation that the gold reserve be increased is altogether wise. This, however, is only a part of the larger recommendation that the Government be provided with a surplus of revenue over expenditures. When this requirement is realized, the gold reserve will build itself up with very slight attention on the part of the secretary, or perhaps with none at all.

*THE TARIFF REPORTS.*

THE tariff report of Chairman Wilson of the ways and means committee is a very impressive document. It not only goes to the root of the subject argumentatively, but it displays the sort of courage needed for the present crisis. The times are hard, many people are out of employment. All of the Republicans and many Democrats are saying that the trouble is due to expected tariff changes. These changes consist in the removal of unnecessary taxes which have been heaped upon industry from time to time since the beginning of the war, more than thirty years ago. The piling up of these burdens has been continuous. There was no place to stop, so long as the protected classes had any control of the Government, any more than there is for a victim of alcoholism. The more they had, the more they wanted, and the more they wanted, the more they managed in one way and another to secure. But obviously that sort of debauchery could not last for ever. There must come a time when protection would cease to protect. That time really came in 1882, and the chief priests of protection acknowledged that it was so, in the report on the tariff which they made in that year. But the protected classes broke away from their leaders and demanded more of the strong drink to which they were accustomed, and they got it in the tariff of 1883. This lasted only a few years. As soon as the effects had worn off they called for another dram and a stiffer one. This they got in the McKinley bill. But there was no reason to suppose that the McKinley tariff would be a finality any more than its predecessors since the beginning of the war.

During this period of dram-drinking all the ideas upon which the doctrine of protection was founded were overturned and supplanted. The principal one—the theory of giving new industries time to get established—was completely superseded, and its place was taken by the theory that, after the industry is established, the Government must guarantee it a certain rate of profit, and that the persons who are engaged in it must be the only persons to decide what the rate of profit shall be, and whether the method employed will result in producing it. Take wool-growing, for example. It required a great deal of "cheek" to speak of wool-growing as an infant industry or one that needed to be established in this country. So the pretended promoters of

wool-growing omitted that formality, and took the ground that, although they were established, they had as good a right to protection as others which affirmed that they were not yet established. What was more to the purpose, they took the ground that if they didn't get "their share," nobody else should have any. The iron, coal, copper, lead, zinc, salt, lumber, and other indigenous industries took the same ground, and completely subverted the ideas upon which protection was founded. As long as the idea of industrial infancy prevailed, we were told that domestic competition would bring prices down to the proper level as soon as the industries were established. That seemed reasonable, but just as it was on the point of going into effect the Trusts and combines took possession of the field wherever they could do so, and, under shelter of the tariff, kept up their prices to the old level wherever they could do so by destroying competition.

This is the situation in which the country found itself at the last presidential election. The people resolved to turn over a new leaf. They put the Democratic party in power with express orders to reform the tariff. This order has been executed in part by the committee of which Mr. Wilson is chairman. We need not analyze his report in detail. What we especially admire is the courage with which he assails a venerable abuse that is one-half delusion and the other half fraud. It is most unfortunate that the silver panic, and the dislocation of trade which it caused, should have come at this juncture, giving a certain plausibility to the enemies of tariff reform, but this accident is largely offset by the determined character of Mr. Wilson's report, which gives promise not only of unyielding purpose to carry out the promises of the presidential election, but to do so without a moment's unnecessary delay.

Ex-Speaker Reed's report on behalf of the minority of the ways and means committee refers to the Wilson bill as a "tariff-tinkering bill," as though that phrase carried sufficient condemnation of the measure. The meaning of this phrase is not left in doubt by Mr. Reed. He says that it is "only another tariff-tinkering bill, the like of which has disturbed the conditions of business so many times *the last thirty years.*" Mr. Reed has a very discerning mind, as we shall proceed to show. The tariff-tinkering bills that have disturbed the conditions of business the last thirty years are the following:

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| Act of March 2, 1861, | Act of July 14, 1870. |
| Act of August 5, 1861, | Act of May 1, 1872. |
| Act of December 24, 1861, | Act of June 6, 1872, |
| Act of July 14, 1862, | Act of June 22, 1874, |
| Act of March 3, 1863, | Act of February 8, 1875, |
| Act of April 29, 1864, | Act of March 3, 1875, |
| Act of June 30, 1864, | Act of July 1, 1879, |
| Act of March 3, 1865, | Act of June 14, 1880, |
| Act of May 16, 1866, | Act of May 6, 1882, |
| Act of July 28, 1866, | Act of March 3, 1883, |
| Act of March 2, 1867, | Act of May 9, 1890, |
| Act of March 25, 1867, | Act of June 10, 1890, |
| Act of February 24, 1869, | Act of October 1, 1890. |

All of these bills were passed by the Republican party. The first one in the list was the first Morrill tariff, but it was not a war tariff. The war had not begun at that time, and it was not absolutely certain that there would be one. The bill was ostensibly a revenue measure, but was mildly protective, according to the Republican sentiment of that day. It was followed in August by another Morrill tariff which was likewise a revenue measure. The protective features were not increased in this bill or in that of December of the same year, which was a bill to increase the duties on tea, coffee, and sugar. This bill was framed in accordance with the recommendation of the secretary of the treasury. Mr. Morrill, in his remarks on the measure, expressed a doubt whether it would really increase the revenue, but he said that if it did not have that effect, it would "prevent money from going out of the country." This he considered very important under the circumstances, his idea being that we were going to put down the rebellion with money, not with the things which money buys. Tea, coffee, and sugar were certainly as important to the health and vigor of soldiers, as well as of the people who sustained them, as anything else that could be imagined, but the chief authority on tariff legislation at that time and during the last thirty years until McKinley arose, had the idea that keeping money in the country was a good thing *per se* and a worthy object of tariff legislation.

The tariff of July 14, 1862, was a general revision, "increasing *temporarily* the duties on imports." It was under this apologetic phrase that the first decidedly protective tariff, after the beginning of the war, was introduced. It increased the duties on many textile fabrics avowedly for the purpose of protection, but the explanation was made both in debate and in the title of the bill that it was to be temporary only. Two acts were passed in one day, March 3, 1863. These dealt with only a few items. On the 29th of April, 1864, a brief but comprehensive act was passed increasing all duties, except those on printing-paper, 50 per cent. for sixty days.

June 30, 1864, another increase of duties all around was called for. This was likewise a Morrill tariff. The author of it, apparently anticipating by nearly thirty years the objections raised by Mr. Thomas B. Reed to tariff-tinkering bills, said: "While sudden and frequent changes of tax and tariff bills are undesirable because of the shock and revolution they bring upon the trade and commerce of the country, the reasons for some change now are potential and obvious." The principal reason was that the internal-revenue system imposed taxes on manufactures, and it was deemed necessary to increase the tariff on the corresponding articles of domestic production.

Between this act and that of March 2, 1867, the celebrated wool-tariff act, there were a few small "tariff-tinkering measures" passed which do not require much attention. The act of March 2, however, was a very important one, since it introduced a new idea into our system, that of protecting, or rather of giving bounties to, old-established industries. Hitherto the theory of protecting the infants only had been adhered to. Raw wool, which had before paid nominal duties only, was put on the list at about ten cents per pound and eleven per cent. ad valorem, and the duties on woollen goods were increased not merely in a corresponding degree, but much more. The result was an immediate and severe decline in the prices of domestic wool, leading to the slaughter of vast numbers of sheep and such distress and bankruptcy among the woollen manufacturers as has seldom been known in this country. Two years later, February 24, 1869, came the copper tariff, a measure absolutely inexcusable, as we were exporting copper largely at that date. It was shown at the time to be a mere scheme of speculators. The effect of it was to enable the copper-producers on Lake Superior to charge American consumers four cents per pound more than they charged foreigners for the same article, and to close all the copper-smelting works on the Atlantic seaboard which depended upon foreign ores for their raw material.

The internal-revenue tax on manufactures was repealed in 1870, but there was no reduction of the duties which had been enacted in 1864 to compensate for this tax—a circumstance which caused Senator Sherman of Ohio, in a subsequent debate, to bring a severe reproach upon the beneficiaries of the tariff. Tariff-tinkering continued, as the list above published shows. The protected classes, like the daughter of the horse-leech, cried, "Give, give," till McKinley took hold in 1890. Then they got all that they asked for. In fact, they got more, for their shameless demands and the shameless manner in which they were granted produced a reaction in the public mind which upset the Republican party in all branches of the Government simultaneously. Tariff-tinkering during the past thirty years, and especially during the past three, has caused Mr. Wilson, and not Mr. Reed, to be leader of the House at the present time.

## *WHAT TO DO WITH THE UNEMPLOYED.*

Dr. Stanton Coit has written a letter to the papers complaining of misrepresentation of his utterances about labor and capital. There is no doubt that he has been grossly misrepresented by the *Times*, in making him set the poor on against the rich, and putting other kindred matter in his mouth. But his demand that the city must employ

the poor is likely to produce much misconception and disappointment. The only employment which the city can give the poor, of which we have thus far had any mention, is street-cleaning and the repair of sidewalks. We grant that more men might be employed in street-cleaning, but they can only be so employed by releasing Mr. Andrews from the obligation under which he now lies to clean the streets "thoroughly." For this he has been furnished with abundant means, and if the work is done for him by charity, what is to become of the money? Moreover, cleaning the streets in winter is no child's play. It means great exposure by night and day, for which those of the unemployed—the Jewish tailors, for instance—who are only accustomed to indoor work are utterly unfit, particularly in their present ill-fed and ill-clothed condition. As to the repairing of sidewalks, the Department of Public Works has told the East-side Committee that if they will report to it cases of sidewalks in need of repair, it will make the landlords repair them. Five hundred such cases have, we believe, been reported, and probably double as many could be found. But repairing sidewalks is skilled work, and cannot be done in frost. Moreover, what capacity do the great bulk of the unemployed possess for any such jobs? How many of them could repair a sidewalk, and how is the landlord to be compelled to employ them? What man in his senses who had a sidewalk to repair would get them to do the job?

Dr. Coit's suggestion about the new parks is equally impracticable. Park work cannot be done in winter, and if it could, those who usually do it are all here and want the work. In short, the plain truth is, and it ought to be faced, that all city work is outdoor work of a peculiarly laborious and exposing condition, and in winter the city has no such work to bestow. Moreover, if it had, the bulk of the unemployed are utterly unfit for it. A large body of them are women and girls and tailors, and seamsters of some kind. It is absurd to talk of sending them at this season to clean streets or mend sidewalks or make parks.

Even if these objections did not exist, others equally strong would be found in the character of the city officials. In the expenditure of the city revenues they are tied up by a good many legal rules and regulations and checks. In expending vast sums for charity or for charitable work, they would be under no such restraints, and the result would probably be what reporters call a "carnival of corruption." The jails and gambling houses would be searched for foremen and directors of the work, and the beneficiaries of the charity would be converted into Tammany voters next fall. This is a consideration which cannot be overlooked in this city. When we see the kind of men Tammany puts on the police bench, in the Police Commission, and in the Department of Public Works, we may guess the kind of men to whom they would give the handling of the charity money. Possibly this objection might be overcome by the creation of some sort of commission of outsiders, like the Aqueduct Commission, but something of this kind would be absolutely necessary. All the theories of the state socialists break down ludicrously when "the state" turns up in the persons of Gilroy, Croker, Martin & Co. Furthermore, if any municipal system of relief were set on foot, the rush of paupers and poor persons from the neighboring towns and villages would be immense, and we may be sure city officials would do little to keep them out. And in thinking of throwing any such burden on the city, we have to remember that the bulk of the taxpayers are persons who, at crises like this, are themselves just struggling to keep their heads above water, and need but very little pressure to fall into the pauper crowd.

What, then, is to be done? Well, we think the very first thing to be done—and in this all the charitable associations should unite, and the city officials can render important aid—is to find out what the number of the bona-fide suffering unemployed is. As yet we have had nothing but "estimates," and the estimates vary from 100,000 to 30,000. Surely it is possible in two or three days to find out how many of the real resident poor of this city have lost their work and are in distress. Can employers not be got to say how many people they have discharged? Cannot the district visitors of the Charity Organization Society, of the University Settlement, and of the Society for Improving the Condition of the Poor make returns on this point which would have some approach to accuracy? When this is done, the calculation of the cost of keeping them from starvation, say, till the middle of March, would be easy enough, and our belief is that if the well-to-do of this city knew what it was, they are quite equal, if properly approached, to the task of providing it. But they must know exactly what is expected of them. The conditions under which collections are now made are very discouraging, for no man who gives anything has the least idea of what impression he is making on the total mass of poverty. According to all the accounts we hear, the real unemployed are not grasping or discontented or anarchical; they are resigned and patient to an extraordinary degree, and it ought not to be difficult to keep them afloat until industry revives.

# Correspondence.

## THE EXPLOSION IN PARIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With the feelings of distress and indignation which your article of this week expresses, all your readers will assuredly and justly sympathize. Yet there would seem to be certain considerations, not unworthy of attention, which might have the effect of modifying some of the impressions which the article is likely to produce.

It has indeed been true, in a general way, in regard to particular periods and particular countries, that there was often "no distinction worth mention between the anarchists and the Continental socialists." But as applied to the last few years and to the three great countries Germany, France, and England, such a judgment—though there may still be something to be said for it—would hardly appear to give an adequate impression of the direction in which the movement of thought has really been going. The number of socialists has certainly increased with great rapidity; but at the same time the great socialist bodies, led by their most influential chieftains, have entered upon a policy of "parliamentarism" and legal agitation and piecemeal change—of what the French call "possible-ism"—in marked contrast to their previous revolutionary fervor. The nature and extent of this change of attitude will be found set forth (to mention but one among many accessible authorities) in the new edition (1891) of the 'Contemporary Socialism' of Mr. John Rae, an observer who errs, if at all, from want of sympathy with what he describes. Speaking of the Halle Congress of Socialists in 1891, he gives this account of the speech of Liebknecht, the chief leader of the German socialists:

"People spoke of revolution, he said, but they should remember that roast pigeons don't fly into one's mouth by themselves. It was easy enough to make bitter speeches, and any fool and donkey could throw bombs; but the misadventures of the anarchists showed plainly enough that nothing could be done in that way. The socialists had now 20 per cent. of the population; but what could 20 per cent. do against 80 per cent. by the use of force? No, it was not force, it was reason they must use if they would succeed. . . . 'Well, then,' suggested another old-world [old-time] socialist, 'let us, at any rate, issue a pamphlet describing the glories of this socialist State, and get the people prepared to flock into it'; but this suggestion was also frowned down. 'For,' said Liebknecht, 'who would say what the *Zukunftstaat*—the socialist State of the future—is to be? Who could foresee so much as the development of the existing German State for a single year.'"

And Mr. Rae's conclusion is, that

"the revolutionary ideal seems to be retreating, perhaps insensibly, in the socialistic mind into an eschatological decoration, into a sort of Second Advent which is to come and to be believed in; but the practical concerns of the present must be more and more treated in their own practical way."

Precisely the same tendency is illustrated in France, though in a different manner, by the increasing strength of the municipal socialists who follow Brousse, and the dwindling numbers of the Marxian revolutionists who follow Guesde. In England it is sufficiently indicated by the prominence of the Fabian Society and the disappearance from practical politics of the Social Democratic Federation.

But it can be easily understood how that, while the great body of the socialists has thus been marching in the direction of what we

may conveniently call "moderation," some of the less practical and more fanatical of them should have been disgusted by the new policy, and should have gone off in a rage into anarchism. The effects of this reaction are apparent on almost every page of a collection of anarchist sheets which I have recently had an opportunity of glancing over. Thus, the London *Freedom*, "a Journal of Anarchist Communism," complains (April, 1892) that "it is enough to make the angels weep to see John Burns," who "has over and over again shown his capacity as . . . an apostle of revolutionary truth," "spending his life on the petty details of local government" in the London County Council; and a Brussels journal, *La Misère*, "organe anarchiste," can find nothing worse to say of "le parti ouvrier belge, qui se croit bien pur et bien sérieux," than that "il n'est, au fond, qu'un parti de *possibilistes*" (August 27, 1892). At the Zürich Congress last August there took place a final struggle of strength between the socialist leaders and the anarchist dissidents, ending in the expulsion of the latter. Thus the world sees a strange and apparently inconsistent spectacle: the growth of a moderate socialism and the parallel growth (inconsiderable, however, in comparison) of a rabid anarchism. The latter is very largely a result and an indication of the former.

There is a bit of recent history which may suggest a lesson for to-day. The effect of Bismarck's legislation, which made legal agitation impossible, was to give the party of violence the upper hand in socialist circles in Germany, and to cause the substitution, in the Wyden programme of 1880, of the ominous phrase "by every means" for the previous phrase "by every legal means." The abandonment of the Bismarckian policy of indiscriminate repression has been followed, as we see, by the victory of moderate counsels in the socialist ranks. But there is always some danger of the reverse taking place. The devising, therefore, of legislation to punish and prevent anarchist outrages needs the coolest judgment and the most careful draughtsmanship. Enactments framed in a panic are only too likely to put obstacles in the way of a socialist propaganda—in the proper sense of the term "socialist"—which has evidently as much right to freedom of utterance as the individualist propaganda so ably and usefully conducted by the *Nation*. And such a lumping-together of very different sorts of people in a common condemnation is only too likely to produce a common resistance. Tendencies in this direction are already to be seen in the French Chamber. The *Nation* has itself, on many occasions, pointed out the like effects of an undiscriminating policy of repression in the case of Ireland. And what is true of legislation is true also in a degree, one cannot help fearing, of an undiscriminating public opinion.

Without raising, then, any of the other questions suggested by your vigorous article—about which one might argue at great length without arriving at any conclusion which could be briefly stated—attention may properly be called to a distinction which does seem to be pretty clear *now*, whatever it may have been until recently; a distinction, moreover, which just now it may be of some practical importance to observe.

Yours very respectfully, W. J. Ashley.

Cambridge, Mass., December 16, 1893.

## PROTECTION AND SOCIALISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with great interest from time to time your observations on the socialistic nostrums which, unfortunately, are rapidly spreading among the unprosperous and discontented masses both in the Old World and in the New. But I do not think it fair to lay the blame upon institutions like universal suffrage, or upon the higher intelligence induced by the growth of facilities for learning to read and write.

Is there not a more obvious cause, which, if cut off, would not be regretted by thoughtful people, and which explains more clearly the reasons for the development of ideas contrary to the spirit of liberty and civilization? Is it not true that the sub-treasury scheme of the Farmers' Alliance had its origin in the "American system" of governmental "protection to industry," and that the silver-purchase act took its rise in the same source? Once commit the nation to a policy of disregarding the rights of property, and undertaking the "encouragement" of special interests by abuse of the taxing power, and what wonder that even college professors and clergymen should often be misled into supposing that state socialism is the goal towards which manifest destiny is bearing us? What difference is there between confiscating property by customs officers and taking it with troops? From "fostering enterprise" is it not but a step farther to acquire the "instruments of production," as the socialists urge, and give employment directly? Admitting the doctrine of protection, why is its extension unnatural?

The fact is, that there is a fundamental misconception in the popular mind regarding the proper sphere of government. It is fancied by many that a community has more rights than the individuals composing it, or, in short, that a stream can rise higher than its source. Once establish a theory that the "State" has more rights than the individual, and you practically destroy the sacredness of private property, and there is no telling to what lengths socialistic schemes will go. The cure for them is to revert to the principles of true democracy as expressed in the Constitution: "No person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law." We apprehend that the fundamental purpose of government is to enforce respect for life, liberty, and property, or, in other words, to prevent crime; but if the paternal purpose of the tariffites is conceded to be legitimate, it follows that public education will be stamped with paternalism, thus supplying a favorable soil to germinate the seeds of socialism. T. Wistar Brown, Jr.

Philadelphia, December 18, 1893.

## THE RIGHT OF EXPATRIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is no escape from the logic of the article on "An Abandoned Position," printed in your issue of December 14. To repeal the act of July 27, 1868, however, would either compel us to change our present practices radically or to fall into even greater inconsistencies. The remedy, therefore, would seem to be to amend the act of 1868 so that it shall read: "The right of expatriation is a natural and inherent right of all people *of the Caucasian and negro races*, indispensable to the enjoyment of the rights of life," etc. It is only necessary to make the language of our declared principles fit our practice to render the absurdity apparent. But practical politics is above consistency in either the one or the other.—Very respectfully,

F. W. Gookin.

Chicago, December 18, 1893.

## THE DEFICIT AND THE REMEDY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Almost all the measures recently proposed for the relief of the United States Treasury have been schemes for additional taxation. During the latter part of Mr. Cleveland's last administration he was somewhat bothered with a surplus. The Dependent Pension bill was a Republican afterthought, and was passed for the purpose of showing how easy it was to manage a surplus. As a surplus-extinguisher its success cannot be denied. Have we not now a Cato lurking somewhere who will undertake the repeal of this law? The extraction of an aching tooth no more effectually relieves the pain than would this relieve all brain-racking over the deficit.

W. M. H.

St. Louis, December 18, 1893.

## CIVILIAN PAY IN THE NAVY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You are in error, in the *Nation* of September 28, 1893, concerning the additional rank and pay given to assistant surgeons and assistant paymasters over young men "holding similar positions" in the line of the navy. The motive or intention of the statute in giving such appointees from civil life a "ranking date" of six years prior to their actual appointment, and a slight increase of pay over officers of corresponding rank in the line—that of ensign—is *not* to enable the appointing power to pay political debts or confer personal favors. On examination you will find that the seeming inequality of rank and pay is based on *simple justice*. Men appointed to the medical or pay corps of the navy have attained the age of twenty-one or more years, and, unlike the young men of the line, have not been during those six years (prior) a tax on the public treasury for their education, but have acquired the latter at a considerable personal expense to themselves; hence the meagre measure of compensation, "a ranking date of six years prior."

The slight difference of pay is based on the greater responsibilities attached to the duties of the junior officers of the staff over those of the same rank in the line, together with the provision of larger pay (relatively) for the latter as they advance in rank. The real injury done the service by the last Administration was the appointment of young men to the pay corps of the navy who had been "dropped" from the Naval Academy. Such appointments should be made only from *graduates* of our colleges and universities or the Naval Academy. B.

November 24, 1893.

## A WOMAN'S DOCTORATE AT HEIDELBERG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Friends of the highest education for women will be interested to hear a German university report progress. The Philosophical Faculty of the University of Heidelberg has just determined for the first time to admit a woman to examination for the doctorate. The candidate is the daughter of the famous Pandectist, Professor Bernhard Windscheid of Leipzig, and her major subject lies in the field of Romance Philology. This startling innovation upon settled academic usage, and, what is more, upon the recognized proprieties of life, was not effected without a struggle, in which

the champions of the successful cause were Professors Osthoff, Braune, and Neumann. Professor Osthoff has broken many a lance for various goodly heterodoxies, and it seems to be characteristic of German present-day liberalism that it develops all-round heretics; but still, the World's Congress which brought the professor on a visit to America and incidentally to various universities, will claim some of the credit for this particular outburst of heresy. Those who had opportunity to note the interest shown by the various German professors travelling in the country the past summer in the problems of woman's higher education and in all our accounts of practical experience concerning it, will continue to put their trust in the seed department of the World's Congresses. BENJ. I. WHEELER.

ITHACA, December 18, 1893.

## SICILY AND IRELAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On page 344 of the *Nation* for November 9, 1893, in a letter on the "Unrest in Sicily," by "J. W. M.," it is stated that in Ireland the land question is simply a question between landlord and tenant, whereas "in Sicily it is the question of two-thirds of the population—of the real, actual sole tillers of the soil—that is at stake." The writer of these words is probably quite unaware that they describe almost exactly the position and circumstances of the Irish tenant farmers, the great majority of whom are peasants, tilling with their own hands their small plots of ground, averaging about thirty acres, and in thousands of cases not exceeding four or five acres, in extent; said peasant farmers forming, with their families, not far from two-thirds of the population of Ireland.—Yours truly,

E. HARVEY.

GRANGE, WATERFORD, IRELAND, December 9, 1893.

## VANDALISM OF THE AUTOGRAPH-HUNTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If the preservation of court records intact should hereafter become a matter of importance to litigants, what disappointment and annoyance, not to say injustice, is in store for our posterity! Here and there the mutilation of such documents has been found out, but it may be believed that vastly more of it has not been. For instance, it is doubtful whether a single signature of Abraham Lincoln to a court paper can be found attached thereto. They have been cut out by curiosity-hunters without compunction or regard for possible future complications. I have it from the mouth of an ex-judge, who knew Lincoln, that this is true of several counties. An officer of the present government not long since boasted at an evening party that he had stolen such signatures by connivance with the custodian of the county papers. If similar plundering has been committed in other parts of the country, the records must be in a sorry plight. The descent from autograph-stealing to the pilfering of whole papers is easy, and suggests an ugly state of affairs. M.

## MR. CONWAY AND HIS CRITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There are several expressions in the communication of Mr. Moncure D. Conway, printed in the *Nation* of December 21, which call for some reply from me as the editor of the *Virginia Historical Magazine*, in which was published the review of the 'Barons of the Potomack and the Rappahannock' which has given him so much umbrage. Mr. Conway speaks of this review as an "attack," declares that it is a "tissue of misrepresentations," and, in substance, asserts that it was the work of a lurking enemy. Now I wish to deny most emphatically the correctness of all these imputations. As the person responsible for the admission of the review to the pages of the magazine, I desire to say for myself that I have no personal acquaintance with Mr. Conway, have never had any correspondence with him, and feel only such interest in him as I do in a hundred other living authors who enjoy an equal degree of reputation. In order that he might have the fullest opportunity to defend himself, it has given me sincere pleasure to admit to the pages of the January number of the magazine a reply from him to the original review in detail—a reply which, as soon as it was submitted to me, I accepted unhesitatingly. The reply, accompanied by notes by the writer of the review, is now in print and will appear in the magazine when issued in January.

So far as the writer of the review is concerned, Mr. Conway is entirely mistaken in his surmise. The writer is a Virginian by descent, birth, and education; a young man bearing a name of the highest respectability in Virginia, a resident of the State during the whole of his life, and yielding to no one in his love of Virginia or his interest in all that is promotive of its true fame. With the possible exception of President Lyon G. Tyler of William and Mary College, there is no one in our commonwealth who has the same fund of information relating to the more obscure aspects of its social and economic history in colonial times—an information acquired after long and careful study of the great mass of original manuscripts now in our county courts, our State Library, the archives of our State government, and in private collections.

Like myself, the writer had no personal acquaintance with Mr. Conway and not the smallest desire to be unjust or unfair to him. The tartness of the review arose from the excusable impatience of a thoroughly informed historical student in noting the inflated tone, the inaccurate statements, and the careless methods which the 'Barons of the Potomack and the Rappahannock' exhibits in so marked a degree. The review was not signed, for the same reason that the review of Campbell's 'Puritan in America, Holland, and England,' which appeared in the previous number of the magazine, was not signed—namely, it is not customary under the circumstances. A certain brusqueness in the tone of the review was in a measure due to the fact that I was forced to prune and condense the manuscript in many parts owing to restriction in my space. It is only proper to say that a volume of Mr. Conway's book is in our State library, and was, therefore, a legitimate subject for review.

I not only thought the criticism a fair one, but it seemed to me to be peculiarly appropriate to the character of the new magazine of the Virginia Historical Society, a periodical which begins its existence with a determined purpose to promote in Virginia a more exact, searching, and exhaustive spirit in historical inquiry, by condemning all tendency to foolish overstatement and empty partisanship, and by insisting upon a thorough examination of all the unpublished, as well as the published, documents of our history as the only true means of reaching a correct judgment. It is an unfortunate feature of the situation of the people of our State, rapidly as they are now recovering from the ruin of the war, that the men among us who are most capable of doing the most valuable historical work are compelled to devote their time exclusively to bread-winning. There are, however, many indications of a growing interest among cultivated Virginians in the history of their State, and I have reason to think that with few exceptions they are disposed to agree with me, as well as with the reviewer of Mr. Conway's book, that Virginia has too many substantial claims to the respect of the historian to attach any real value to romantic exaggerations shadowed forth by vague tradition or created by an opulent and irresponsible imagination.

PHILIP A. BRUCE.

VIRGINIA HISTORICAL SOCIETY,
RICHMOND, Va., December 22, 1893.

## SUNDRY "AMERICANISMS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following passage is transcribed from p. 32 of Colonel T. W. Higginson's *Hints on Writing and Speech-making*, which has only just fallen in my way:

"To be sure, the inelegancies with which we are chiefly reproached are not distinctively American: Burke uses 'pretty considerable'; Miss Burney says, 'I trembled a few'; the English Bible says 'reckon'; Locke has 'guess,' and Southey, 'realize,' in the exact sense [*sic*] in which one sometimes hears them [*sic*] used colloquially here. Nevertheless, such improprieties are, of course, to be avoided; but, whatever good Americanisms exist, let us hold to them, by all means."

On the expressions impugned above I purpose to comment briefly.

*Pretty considerable*, found in Fielding, Smollett, and Burke, is countenanced by Hallam also:

"Of *pretty considerable* value." Fielding, *Tom Jones* (1750).

"A *pretty considerable* estate." Smollett, *Sir Launcelot Greaves* (1760).

"The booty was *pretty considerable*." *Id.*, *Humphry Clinker* (1771).

"To the faculty of law was joined a *pretty considerable* proportion of the faculty of medicine." Burke, *Reflections on the Revolution in France* (1790), p. 64 (2nd ed.).

"Divisions soon arose among themselves about the use of the English service, in which a *pretty considerable* party was disposed to make alterations." Hallam, *Constitutional History* (1827), vol. i., p. 168 (ed. 1842).

The quotations from Fielding and Smollett, the references of which are defective, are taken from marginal notes entered, by me, in the first edition of Mr. Bartlett's *Dictionary of Americanisms*, upwards of forty years ago.

Burke's *pretty considerable*—and equally that of Hallam and the rest—there is no good reason to find grave fault with; but, from the general way in which it is spoken of by Col. Higginson, it might be thought that English authority was producible for such blamable locutions as "he is *pretty considerable* of an orator" and "*pretty considerable* disappointed," familiar in some parts of the United States.

Not irrelevant, in connexion with *pretty considerable*, are these quotations:

"I attempted to fatten two middle-sized bacon-hogs with carrots; after having been two months, or near the matter, in the sty, I found that, as they were young, they had grown *pretty considerably*, but continued as lean as when I put them up." Burke (1770), *Correspondence* (1844), vol. i., p. 246.

"*Pretty considerable* shocked." Miss C. M. Yonge, *Heir of Redclyffe* (1853), ch. xxv.

"I found myself, on the day after my return,

'*pretty considerably* tired,' to borrow a phrase from our American friends." Mr. J. W. Bowden (1836), in Cardinal Newman's *Letters* (1891), vol. ii., p. 182.

Burke would, certainly, not have done amiss, if only for simplicity, in preferring *a good deal* to *pretty considerably*, and "our American friends" would better have preferred *not a little* to it. For all that, their phrase is passable, except on the view that, irrespectively of circumstances, it is reasonable and seasonable to be rigorously exacting in point of taste.

*A few*, for *a little*, occurs in Miss Burney's *Diary* (1778); and it should have been noted that she clearly intended it as mere slang, just as it is in Murphy's *Citizen* (1761): "Mind me, when I . . . throw my eyes about *a few*." And here may be mentioned, as interesting obsoletisms, Milton's "fit audience find, though *few*"; "a *few* company," which Swift wrote in 1711; and also the Scotch and provincial English "a *few* broth."

*Reckon*, in the sense of 'consider,' 'deem,' of 'make account,' 'count on it,' or of 'surmise,' 'suspect,' is not now very common, as a literary term; and yet no vulgarity attaches to its quaintness. The Bible-revisionists, among whom were Americans, have not dislodged it from *Romans* viii., 18. In conversation, it is quite as current in England as it is in our own country, and is, observedly, in better repute here than there. No judicious British critic, one may be positive, would censure the colloquialism, "I *reckon* he is at home," which, yet, Dr. Webster's editors (1880) proscribe outright. More than this, the *reckon* under discussion has the occasional support of English writers, modern and comparatively modern, of unimpeachable respectability:

"The best editions of ancient authors should be the first things, I *reckon*, in a library." Thomas Gray (1746), *Works* (ed. 1858), vol. iii., p. 13. Gray thus uses *reckon* in three other places.

"They *reckon* they were sacrificed," etc. Sir C. H. Williams (1747), *Works* (1822), vol. ii., p. 232.

"I *reckon* to go next week to Ashbourne." Dr. Johnson (1770), *Letters* (1788), vol. i., p. 26.

"I *reckon* that I shall have a hump-back." Dr. Charles Burney, *Memoirs of Metastasio* (1796), vol. ii., p. 78.

"Since that time, we have both been equally busy, I *reckon*, in gleaning up such little odd tortures, of all sorts, as we had left behind at our general harvest." Rev. James Beresford, *The Miseries of Human Life* (1806), vol. i., p. 281.

"The philosopher who contemns it [glory] has every rogue in his sect, and may *reckon* that it will outlive all others." W. S. Landor, *Imaginary Conversations* (1824), vol. ii., p. 605 (ed. 1826).

"If the Landgrave knew that Michael Klotz was in Klosterheim, I *reckon* that all the ladies in St. Agnes could not beg him a reprieve till to morrow morning." Thomas De Quincey, *Klosterheim* (1832), p. 228.

"We lost no time, after my visit to Cuddeston; for we *reckoned* that we were more likely to have good weather before Christmas than after." Rev. Dr. William Whewell (1847), in *Life* (1881), p. 347.

"You may have more to bear than you *reckon* for, when you find yourself with men of rude minds and vulgar manners." Cardinal Newman, *Loss and Gain* (1848), p. 330.

"But he wasn't likely to do the Ogre much harm, I *reckon*." Sir George W. Dasent, *Popular Tales from the Norse* (1859), p. 131.

"He makes but a tight fit, I *reckon*." "George Eliot," *Middlemarch* (1871-72), vol. ii., p. 59.

A mass of kindred quotations from Samuel Richardson, Foote, and others is, for brevity, omitted.

*Guess*, we are told above, has the sanction of Locke. But, that what is intended, namely, the reprehensible American use of the verb, was anticipated by him, is an assertion which it would be very surprising indeed to see substantiated. For the verb *guess* I find three passages from Locke cited by lexicographers; and, in all of them, it bears its ordinary signification. Mr. J. R. Lowell writes, in the Introduction to the Second Series of the *Biglow Papers:* "I have never seen any passage adduced where *guess* was used as the Yankee uses it." On the other hand, Professor Schele De Vere has the hardihood to say, though independently of anything whatever like proof: "There is no lack of evidence that the word has been used in England, from time immemorial, and by the best writers, in precisely the same sense in which it is now employed by Yankees." Moreover, Dr. Webster's Editors (1880) are so ill informed as to pronounce: "It is a gross vulgarism to use the word *guess*, not in its true and specific sense, but simply for *think* or *believe;* as, I *guess* the mail has arrived; I *guess* he is at home." On the contrary, the expressions given as illustrating "a gross vulgarism" are wholly irreproachable; their *guess* denoting 'incline to think,' 'be disposed to believe.' That, in the quotations about to follow—easily multipliable tenfold, from the literature of the fourteenth century onward—many persons, if they were to read them without being aware of their sources, would condemn the use of *guess* as an Americanism, may be taken for granted:

"And, I *guess*, this is not now ever likely to be done." Bishop Warburton (1744), *Works* (1811), vol. xi., p. 234.

"By all I can pick up from ancient authors, I *guess* he [Pelagius] was both a wise and a holy man." Rev. John Wesley (no date), in Southey's *Life of Wesley* (1820), vol. ii., p. 193, foot-note.

"Well, then, Mr. Trip, you have a pleasant sort of place here, I *guess?*" Sheridan, *School for Scandal* (1777), Act. III., Scene II.

"I should *guess* it to be one of the oldest dwelling-houses in the kingdom." Southey, *Espriella's Letters* (1807), vol. ii., p. 135.

"This, I *guess*, is all one as if you should say, it was hot or cold, white or black, round or square." Rev. Dr. Christopher Wordsworth, *King Charles the First*, etc. (1828), p. 151.

"In what manner Æschylus explained the origin of this connexion we have no means of *guessing*." Bp. Thirlwall, in the *Philological Museum*, vol. ii., p. 149 (1833).

"And, in prospect, it must, of course, have looked more alarming than we can *guess* from our retrospect." Mr. James Spedding, *Evenings with a Reviewer* (1848), vol. i., p. 325 (ed. 1881).

"But the Catholic Church isn't St. Paul quite, I *guess*." Cardinal Newman, *Loss and Gain* (1848), p. 107. This, of course, is ironical.

The true state of the case regarding the verb *guess* in America is, that, while it is employed there, rather than its practical synonyms, much more frequently than in England, it not seldom, especially in the Eastern States, "implies a confident certainty," as Mr. Lowell says. "Are you sure that your statement is correct? Yes, I *guess* I am." "Bein' the mercury is at zero, I *guess* it is pretty cold." "I must start now for Boston, and I *guess* I shall." Here are genuine Americanisms, reminding a dweller in East Anglia of the expletival "That du *fare* to rain right tidy," "How do you *fare* to be, mate?"

*Realize*, as treated by Dr. Worcester, has, for its third definition, "to make certain, to substantiate," on which the lexicographer remarks:

"This word, in the sense of *to make certain or substantial*, has been reputed an Americanism; but Dr. Dunglison says of it that 'it is universal in England in this very sense.'—It is also used in America . . . in the sense of *to feel or bring home to one's mind as a reality*, or *to feel strongly*; and this latter sense is not without English authority," etc.

Which of the senses thus illustrated Colonel Higginson has in mind, where he refers to Southey—whose *realize*, 'gain,' in three places is not, I conceive, arraigned—is not specified; but neither of them is a novelty in Great Britain, and the latter, which seems to be the older, was not unknown a hundred and sixty years ago:

"That God is everywhere present, and we always present to Him, is certain; but, that we should always be able to *realise* His presence is quite another thing." Mrs. Susanna Wesley (1733), in Mrs. Eliza Clarke's *Susanna Wesley* (1886), p. 172.

"It [faith] gives evidence and subsistence to things not seen, and *realises* the great truths of the gospel, so as that they become abiding and living principles of support and direction, while we are passing through this wilderness." Rev. John Newton, Letter VI., in *Forty-one Letters*, etc. (1777 or earlier).

Many more similar quotations, including seven from Cardinal Newman, are at hand; but, instead of copying them, I subjoin three extracts from the *Letters* (1881) of a late very learned prelate, Bishop Thirlwall, to whom the temptation to "speak Yankee" was such that, in order to deliver his mind to his satisfaction, he lost little time in dismissing his scruples about yielding to it:

"How happy it is for us that we are totally unable to *realize* (if I may speak Yankee) such a calamity as the cyclone!" Vol. ii., p. 22 (March 13, 1865).

"I am truly thankful for the sight of the photograph, which enables me perfectly to *realize* the object which presented itself to the eyes," etc. Vol. ii., p. 25 (April 22, 1865).

"I have always been better able to *realize* such stories, since I had my experience," etc. Vol. ii., p. 156 (1868).

Patronage and popular chronology are thus combined in the *Saturday Review:*

"The study of ancient coins may be specially useful in teaching us to *realize*, in modern phrase, the men whose names we read, whose lineaments we scan, on the very pieces of metal which they and their contemporaries handled." Vol. ii., p. 356 (1856).

F. H.

Marlesford, England, Sept 20, 1893.

# Notes.

A work on 'The Constitution of the United States at the End of the First Century' has been prepared by ex-Gov. George S. Boutwell of Massachusetts, and will be published at an early date by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

A complete edition of the works of Turgeneff, in ten or twelve volumes, newly translated by Mrs. Garnett, is the gratifying announcement of the London publisher, William Heinemann.

The first issue of the "Bulletin of the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the Department of State" (Washington) is welcome, as evidence of a desire on the part of the custodians of the historical treasures in that department to make them of use to the public. The old system of mystery, secrecy, and exclusion was defensible only on the ground that the manuscripts were not in a condition to be handled; and so rapidly has the labor of repairing, properly mounting, binding, and cataloguing the various collections progressed as to make that system no longer of avail. It is now intended to issue lists of the more important papers in the historical collections, and this Bulletin is the beginning of a plan for which we have nothing but praise. The type is clear, the margins generous, and the proof-reading generally accurate. The general titles of the volumes of records of the Continental Congress are given,

and a portion of what appear to be miscellaneous letters and papers in those records. It is well to exhibit the general character of the deposits at the start, and follow it up with more detailed and particular "calendars" of each collection. As an appendix, the appointments of delegates to the Convention of 1787 are printed from the original notifications to Congress. The Bulletin promises to be of special interest to students of American history.

After a long suspension, the "Mermaid Series," containing "the best plays of the old dramatists," has been resumed with "Ben Jonson, Vol. I.," edited by Brinsley Nicholson, M.D., with an introduction by C. H. Herford (London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). This volume contains "Every Man in his Humour," "Every Man out of his Humour," and "The Poetaster," and will be followed by two others completing the selections from Ben Jonson. The series is useful in rendering these plays accessible in cheap form to the general reader. In the change of publishers the make-up of the volumes has decidedly deteriorated. This volume is inferior to the preceding in paper, printing, and binding, and the proof-reading seems to have been left to anybody who would do it. There are numerous errors of the press, and the impression is sometimes badly blurred. The scholarlarly introduction of Mr. Herford will not make up for these deficiencies, and if (as an advertisement informs us) the price of each volume is to be raised, after January 1, from $1.00 to $1.25, an accurate and clean text, good paper, and strong binding should be assured.

"The Ethical Library" is the title chosen for a new "series" to be edited by J. H. Muirhead, and to deal with questions of the inner and the outer life in a constructive way and from the standpoint of science and philosophy. The first volume, 'The Civilization of Christianity, and Other Studies,' by Bernard Bosanquet (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan) conforms to the prospectus in the absence of the polemic spirit, and in the unpretending, but thoughtful and analytic, fashion with which it deals with various matters of religious and humanitarian theory and practice. We would single out as especially fitted for reading by people who feel the unusual temptation, just now, to indiscriminate charity, the paper on "Right and Wrong in Feeling," wherein giving for the sake of pleasing the giver is carefully kept apart from giving for the sake of benefiting the recipient. The promise of future volumes by Prof. Sidgwick, Leslie Stephen, and others has an enticing sound.

'Socialism: Its Growth and Outcome,' by William Morris and E. Belfort Bax (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners), contains an unwavering exposition of the socialistic creed, based upon what the authors consider to be the testimony of history. It might be said that if the future of society is conceived with no more verisimilitude than the past is described, our knowledge is not greatly increased; but few will deny the sincerity of these writers.

It is hardly necessary to do more than refer to 'Outlines of Economics,' by Prof. Richard T. Ely (Hunt & Eaton), as this writer has so frequently laid his views before the public. Although this book scarcely rises to the level of a scientific treatise, it may be read in places with entertainment and not without profit, but it can hardly be recommended for use in colleges where the works of Peter Parley and John S. C. Abbott are not included in the historical curriculum.

Alexander Black's 'Photography In-doors and Out' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) bears for sub-title "a book for amateurs," and is, on the whole, calculated to be of use to that ever-increasing class. A brief review of the history of photography, containing interesting information, precedes the manual proper, in which instruction is given clearly and succinctly. In this part a good deal of sound advice is tendered, which, if followed, will certainly enable the amateur to obtain satisfactory results instead of the abortions too frequently exhibited to friends. But there are some shortcomings: the acid fixing bath, one of the most valuable of recent improvements, is barely touched upon; there is no mention of the cold process in platinum printing, or of the hypo process in bromide work, while carbon printing should either have been fully treated of or not mentioned at all. There are many excellent diagrams and capital half-tone prints by way of illustrations.

M. Octave Uzanne's 'The Book-hunter in Paris' has been brought out in English dress by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. The book, which, as we noticed a year ago, tells in pleasant, gossipy fashion of the bookstalls on the Paris quays, of the keepers and especially of the frequenters of the stalls, makes very good reading for leisure moments. It is well translated and well got up.

Tait, Sons & Co. issue a large-paper edition of Mr. Henry Irving's interesting volume of addresses on 'The Drama,' limited to 300 copies, all signed by the author and all adorned with a photogravure of Mr. Whistler's portrait of Mr. Irving—a portrait far more characteristic of the artist than of the actor.

Mr. E. G. Browne, to whom we are indebted for the translation of the 'Traveller's Narrative,' or 'The Episode of the Bab' (1891) now follows this up with the 'Tarikh-i-Jadid,' or 'New History of the Bab' (Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan). The difference between the two works is this, that while the former is written in the interests of Beha (the later leader of the movement, who died at Acre last year), the latter takes us back to an earlier period, dealing with the original Bab and his apostles and martyrs. Mr. Browne has added a long outline of Mirza Jani's still earlier history (the original text of which, it is hoped, may be published) and the Persian text of a short account of the movement by Subh-i-Ezel (the Babist leader living in Cyprus). The materials for the estimation of this strange and problematical religious movement are thus increasing in quantity, and our thanks are due to Mr. Browne and to the Syndics of the University Press for collecting and bringing out manuscripts of so important a nature.

Under the title, 'The Mummy' (Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan), Mr. E. A. Wallis Budge of the British Museum furnishes an excellent handbook for persons interested in Egyptian antiquities. The funereal archæology is full, and the author has added a descriptive list of the gods, an outline of the history, and a long and interesting account of the Rosetta stone. The illustrations are numerous and good, and the book in all respects well executed.

For the guidance of young students Prof. M. R. Vincent's 'Student's New Testament Handbook' (Charles Scribner's Sons) may be heartily commended. It contains a digested list of books bearing on the various lines of New Testament study. We miss references to Paul de Lagarde and the Oxford *Studia Biblica*.

While the French have been for years occupying themselves with the Arabic dialect of Algiers, the English have heretofore done nothing for modern Arabic, confining themselves in India to the languages proper of that land. Now, however, their occupation of Egypt has borne fruit in the 'Practical Arabic Grammar' of Major A. O. Green, the third edition of which has just been completed by the issue of Part II. (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). This Part contains a key to Part I., reading selections, vocabularies, and forms. Admirably printed, it cannot fail to be useful to the army officers for whom it was prepared. It gives, however, the modern literary, not the vulgar speech.

Prof. Max Müller, in a letter to the London *Times*, says that the King of Siam, "a Pali scholar and a student of Buddhist literature," has offered to give "a sufficient sum for the continuance of the translations of the sacred books of the East." This series, consisting of forty-nine volumes, had been closed for want of funds. It is proposed to apply the King's gift to the publication of the remaining portions of the 'Tripitaka,' "in order to enable a larger public to appreciate the truth and beauty, if not of esoteric, at least of real and historical Buddhism, of that Buddhism which teaches all men to bear affliction with a hopeful spirit, and not to return hatred by hatred, but to overcome evil by good."

M. Émile Faguet has added to his series of excellent studies on the great French writers of the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries an equally valuable volume on the principal writers of the sixteenth century (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.). The accurate judgment and great didactic powers of M. Faguet are as conspicuous in the present volume as in his former ones; dull indeed would the student be who, after reading these pages, failed to have a clear understanding of the genius or talent of each of the writers treated of. M. Faguet knows exactly what points should be brought out and how much or how little they should be dwelt on, and he excels in making his meaning absolutely clear. As he thoroughly understands his author, he makes the reader also understand him. Eight writers—Commynes, Marot, Rabelais, Calvin, Ronsard, Du Bellay, D'Aubigné, and Montaigne—form the subjects of as many studies, which are in every way "literary studies." That on Calvin is particularly lucid, that on Ronsard appreciative, and as for that on Montaigne, it is as delightful as one of the "Essais" themselves.

Amblard & Meyer frères have brought out in the "Collection Lemerre illustrée" four additional volumes: Theuriet's 'L'Abbé Daniel,' Musset's 'Frédéric et Bernerette,' 'Le Fils du Titien' with 'Croisilles,' and Stendhal's 'L'Abbesse de Castro.' They are most convenient for the pocket and taking to the eye, except as regards the necessarily rather fine print.

A Russian poetess, Olga de Bézobrazoff, is the author of two volumes of French verse, 'Poussière d'étoiles' (Paris: Savine), in which the influence of Victor Hugo seems to mingle with a trace of the symbolism of these latter days. The verse is not always verse—frequently it is but rhymed prose, and hard to grasp at that; yet the poet's object, as stated in the introduction and confirmed by the dedication to Leconte de Lisle, is to unite beauty and truth, science and poetry. There are occasional fine passages, but, on the whole, the meaning of the poems is not clear, the language is vague and frequently stilted, and the inspiration slight.

Westermann & Co. send us the two great world's annuals of government and of learning

for 1894, viz., the *Almanach de Gotha* in its 131st year and *Minerva* in its third. The chief novelty in the ever self-renewing *Almanach* is to be found in the genealogical tables relating to princely non-ruling houses. In order to show (or to provide a clue to) the ramifications of the greater families, every title of prince or duke borne by any member of the class in question is inserted in its alphabetical place with a reference to the more distinguished family, as, "Civitella-Cesi, v. Torlonia," "Ayen, v. Noailles"; and again there is a reference from the patronymic name to the title, as "(Cavendish), v. Devonshire," "(Leveson-Gower), v. Sutherland," "(Lévis-Mirepoix), v. San Fernando Luis." Among the four portraits figure the new Duke and Duchess of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, in place of the late Duke Ernest and his consort.

*Minerva* omits some introductory matter in favor of greater amplification of its essential function to exhibit the character, personnel, etc., of the universities, institutes, libraries, etc., of civilized nations; it has overhauled its transliteration of Russian names on a uniform system, in which it is refreshing at least to see the *v* expel the alien *w;* and it gives for the first time a geographical index to its contents. The invaluable personal index of officers, instructors, etc., though enlarged one-tenth, continues to be in a plain round letter which makes consultation easy. The American portion presents great difficulties from the vastness of the field, but the enlargement goes on, as may be seen under Hanover, and doubtless we shall some day see the University of Nebraska noticed as well as that of Kansas, and other Southern universities besides those now included. The frontispiece portrait, last year of Mommsen, is this year of Pasteur, in honor of his seventieth birthday.

The tenth Bulletin of the Weather Bureau is an elaborate discussion of the "Climate of Chicago," by H. A. Hazen. The lake breeze is among the most notable local features; it prevails in the wind averages for afternoon hours during the warmer months. An interesting consequence of the difference of temperature between the prairies and the lake is seen in the statement that cumulus clouds, approaching the lake from the west or southwest, may increase in size until the lake is reached; then they soon dissolve away. Day after day in the summer time, these clouds stand like giants over the land, while the sky is free from them over the lake. The Bulletin contains numerous tables and diagrams of various climatic elements, with an explanatory text.

Among the many interesting essays published by the Verein zur Verbreitung naturwissenschaftlicher Kenntnisse in Vienna, mention may be made of one by Dr. August Böhm of the technical school in that city, on the landsculpturing action of the glacial period. Dr. Böhm maintains with well-directed argument the view that the marginal lakes of the Alps and nearly all the smaller lakes among the mountains are of glacial origin. He gives a remarkable account of the disappearance of lakes by filling up basins and cutting down outlets, since the disappearance of the ancient glaciers. In the Tyrol alone, one hundred and eighteen lakes represented on the maps of the last century no longer exist, being now replaced by peat bogs and meadows. In Norway, Dr. Böhm thinks the rivers, which are hardly more than strings of lakes, represent a less advanced stage of recovery from glacial action; while in the Alps, where the old glaciers presumably retreated sooner than from Norway, a further return towards continuous river flow has been reached.

The October Library Bulletin of Cornell University describes with some detail the three remarkable gifts to the library during the current year, viz., the Moak (law) library, the Zarncke (philological and German literary) library, and Prof. Willard Fiske's Dante collection. Of these we have already spoken. They add about 27,000 volumes to the library, which now numbers very nearly 150,000.

In his Providence *Book-Notes* for December 16 Mr. S. S. Rider pieces together some recent bits of evidence touching the date of Roger Williams's death, and fixes it between March 17 and April 25, 1684.

An admirable addition to the well-known portrait gallery of F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, is his imperial photograph of the late John Tyndall. The strongly-marked face is a frank index of character, as well as of racial affinity, and the likeness is a fortunate souvenir of Tyndall's visit to this country.

—At the last annual meeting of the Wisconsin Historical Society (December 14), 7,500 books and pamphlets were reported as added to the library during the year. A new department had been added to the museum by the purchase of 250 specimens of prehistoric pottery from graves in Missouri and Arkansas. A monograph was read concerning a curious financial feature during French domination on the Mississippi which seems to have escaped the research of Mr. Parkman. His only remark regarding French fiat money thus far discovered, is, that "the Mississippi Company within two years changed the value of the currency to the amount of 80 per cent." ('Half-Century of Conflict,' ii., p. 306). The paper, by Dr. Devron of New Orleans, first touched upon pasteboard money under Louis XIV., and his edict that a coin passing for fifteen sols in France should be current at twenty in the colonies. This was an echo of Jack Cade's decree, "There shall be in England seven halfpenny loaves sold for a penny, and the three-hooped pot shall have ten hoops." But the main ordinances were framed in the reign of Louis XV., onward from his second year. They appeared in the King's name, but were doubtless drawn up according to the caprices of the Mississippi Company, which had unlimited powers. In 1722 that corporation, having minted 200 pounds of copper, sent it to America, with orders that it pass as a legal tender for all debts, even those previously contracted. Little of it, however, was forced into circulation, and that slowly. By way of illustrating this fact, a letter from the first curate of New Orleans was cited. He wrote: "There are few offerings for masses, etc., and those are in copper coin which is valued so low that when, in my sickness, I sent everywhere to get a couple of eggs, I could not find them, though I offered several sous apiece. Those who sold reported that they could do nothing with our copper, and that if we had white money to give them, they had eggs to sell us." Then in 1724 the King—that is, the Company—issued an order that the nine-denier piece should henceforth pass for six. "This reduction," says Dr. Devron, "was of no effect in New Orleans, which to this day has never taken any fancy to any copper currency; the copper cents of the United States being used only to make payments or change at the post-office or custom-house, the nickel being now the only base-metal piece used even among the poorest residents of New Orleans in any trade." The Company still persisted, and on October 31, 1726, decreed that copper should for all purposes be equal to Spanish dollars—for instance, that holders of letters of exchange should not demand payment in anything but copper at the value stamped upon it—notwithstanding any clauses which might be inserted in said letters—under a penalty of 300 livres as a fine, payable one-half to the informer and the other half to the hospital, and under the further penalty of the confiscation of his exchange, as well as of his being himself flogged and branded by the hand of the public executioner.

—At a special general meeting of the Hellenic Society held on November 27, in London, Mr. Arthur J. Evans described a remarkable acquisition recently made by the British Museum. This is nothing less than one of the most interesting groups of Mycenæan objects ever discovered—doubly noteworthy, indeed, as having been found not at Mycenæ but on the island of Ægina. To discover "Mycenæan" pottery in various parts of the Mediterranean basin is no new experience, and gold objects like those of Mycenæ have been found in unexpected places, such as the Danube Valley and the Crimea; but the present Æginetan find is the most considerable and important since Schliemann's. Among the more remarkable objects of the treasure are "a gold cup with returning spiral and rosette ornament; an openwork gold pendant representing a kind of Egyptian figure in a lotos-tipped boat holding two water-birds, traceable to a familiar subject of Egyptian frescoes in which the fowler is seen standing in a Nile boat holding the trophies of his chase; four gold openwork ornaments with dogs and apes and pendant disks and owls; a jewel with a lion's head and pendant ducks, apparently suggested by a so-called Egyptian 'ægis' with the head of the lion-headed goddess Sekhet; a crescent-shaped gold plate with terminals in the shape of sphinx-like heads; a series of necklaces of gold, carnelian, and amethyst beads with amulet pendants; fifty-four repoussé gold plates for sewing on the dress, gold diadems, bracelets, ring-money—representing a unit of 135 grains—and finger-rings, which, like some of the other jewels, had been set mosaic fashion with a glass-paste imitation of lapis-lazuli." A variety of concordant data led Mr. Evans to fix 800 B. C. as the approximate date of the deposit, and a very important fact brought to light by the ring-money of the find was that there already existed in Ægina at the time of this deposit a pre-Pheidonian standard answering to the Euboic-Attic. This was in fact the old Mycenæan standard—probably derived from the Egyptian Kat—and could be traced in rings, etc., from the earlier shaft graves of Mycenæ. In closing, Mr. Evans made public announcement of the interesting fact that he has now discovered, chiefly upon prism-shaped gems, some sixty hieroglyphic characters belonging to an alphabet used in Mycenæan days. The area where it is found goes southward as far as Crete, and it is possible that these signs may prove to be of kin with the hitherto undecipherable Cypriote alphabet.

—The title 'Rome of To-day and Yesterday' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat) is rather misleading, for the book hardly deals at all with the modern but only with the ancient side of the city. It is a guide to the antiquities, but entirely without the dryness and brevity of the guide-book. And the writer, clearly well-read and cultivated, spares us the endless arguments on disputed questions, and the dissertations on little matters, which must necessarily beset the pages of more professed scholars. He loves rather to

linger over things which, though they may be of yesterday, yet are of all time because they speak to the heart. The figures of the worthies of old, the houses where they lived, the streets where they walked, the forum and the senate-house where they won their triumphs, the temples of their worship, and the monuments of their generosity or their ambition—we see them all and hear of each the story so familiar, yet ever welcome when well told. The book bears the sub-title of the "Pagan Centuries," and brings us down only to the middle of the fourth century of our era. "Mr. John Dennie" chats along in a familiar conversational style, and knows his subject so well and unfolds it so simply and so pleasantly that one finds it very hard to lay the book down.

—Such an outgiving as that of Prof. Ferrero, in last month's *New Review*, on "Woman's Sphere in Art," would call for no notice were not the title of professor prefixed to his name, and a preliminary scientific flourish (in which the words Darwin and *Amblyornis inornata* strike the eye) prefixed to the thoroughly unscientific pronouncement which constitutes the article. We shall not, on our side, pronounce that Prof. Ferrero is wrong in saying that because "the amatory instinct is feebler in woman than in man" it follows that women "lack the creative power in art, and, furthermore, do not even understand physical beauty"; though we do submit that a well-regulated mind ought to require some semblance of proof for such a proposition. Indeed, it is not for the purpose of noticing any of his positions in particular that we make mention of his article, but precisely to point out that it and its kind are unworthy of any more attention than the random speculations of any clever newspaper man. Even in the opening sentences, Ferrero finds room to exhibit his want of grasp of Darwinism; and in the rest of the article, not only is there a lack of even a superficial indication of scientific thinking, but the statements of fact are irresponsible in the extreme. We are told, among other things, that "Mrs. Wheeler and Miss Revere Johnson have decorated the interiors of nearly all the public buildings in the United States"! It seems like gilding refined gold to try to make this statement out to be worse than it is on its face; it becomes so, however, when, on looking up the authority on which it is based, we find it to have grown out of the following innocent remark of Mrs. Carter's: "Many interiors of dwellings and public buildings show that women decorators have worked successfully. The names of Mrs. Wheeler and Miss Revere Johnson are well known." There is, however, a test whose application, though less striking, is more truly indicative of the absence of sound thinking in the Ferreros and Lombrosos than are their errors in particular matters of fact. As soon as quantitative considerations have a bearing on the subject, they are as helpless as infants. Is it not amazing that a man of intelligence, after admitting the "great power" of several women—Sappho, George Eliot, etc.—should have the fatuity to say that "if it is impossible to find a Shakspere among women, the fact is due to the greater rarity of the higher intellectual powers among them than among men"? How many Shaksperes have there been among men? And how many Shaksperes has Holland produced, for instance? Is it necessary to explain, by essential inferiority, the fact that among the infinitesimal proportion of women whose lives have opened to them such stimulus and opportunity as is open to most men, none has reached that eminence which has been attained at most by four or five of the countless millions of men?

## LOWELL'S LETTERS.

*Letters of James Russell Lowell.* Edited by Charles Eliot Norton. 2 vols. Harper & Brothers. 1893.

Mr. Leslie Stephen, writing of the art of biography in the *New Review*, says that "letters, in the main, are the one essential to a thoroughly satisfactory Life." Certainly they are a desideratum, yet the life of a man of action is rarely revealed much through his letters; and in the life of any very busy man his "epistolary correspondence," as our maiden aunts used to call it, represents only his odds and ends of time. Thoreau's remark about keeping a diary, that "we never can write in a diary what most interests us, because writing in the diary is not what interests us," is true of correspondence also. Then there is the drawback that the most vital and essential letters of a man's whole life—those representing the very crises of emotion or purpose—are often, for that very reason, unsuited to publication, and are rightly withheld. This very consideration, for instance, has deprived the volumes now before us of the most intimate and important letters which Lowell ever wrote—those to his first wife at the most formative and momentous period of his whole career. All these considerations show that a limit is to be set to that value which Mr. Stephen attributes to private letters as an element of biography. Nevertheless, it may truly be said that, so far as Mr. Norton's volumes represent Mr. Lowell, they represent him most delightfully and yet most fairly, and that there has not, on the whole, been a collection of English letters of such rich and varied quality since those of John Keats.

It is safe to say, also, that few collections of letters have ever had discreeter editorial handling. Prof. Norton is a man of strong convictions, which he sometimes states with such vigor as to seem almost defiant; but he has before now proved himself to possess a wholesome reticence as to himself, with a judicial quality as commentator. His visible contribution to these two large volumes covers but a few pages, but his careful touch is felt everywhere. In one or two cases he may have been unguarded as to letters referring to persons still living, but this is a thing very hard to avoid. His frank revelation of Lowell's earlier moods—here and there a tinge of morbidness, a shyness masking itself under self-assertion, a glimpse of over-consciousness—is simply admirable. Nothing is extenuated, nothing held up for censure. The marked transition, in Lowell, from an impetuous and aggressive youth to a benign and genial old age makes itself apparent without formal elucidation. It would have been very easy, for instance, to omit the fact that, in the storm-and-stress period of youth, Lowell once put a loaded pistol to his head but had not the courage to discharge it (ii., 375). Yet how important this fact in the biography of Lowell, nay, in the history of youth itself! Doubtless many a young man, just on the threshold of mature life, has toyed with just such a wayward impulse. The newspapers remind us from year to year that the temptation is not always resisted; and what a lesson is given in the fact that a career so brilliant and useful as Lowell's had been preceded by just such a morbid mood. With equal frankness is given the brief letter (i.,51) announcing the fact, to him more momentous than he dreamed, of his first interview with Maria White. Here we see the door by which he escaped from this perilous period of uncertainty, and, like the hero of 'Sartor Resartus,' "immediately began to become a man." His subsequent correspondence with this strong and most attractive woman would further amplify this revelation, if we could have it thrown open before us; and all must respect the unusual dignity and courage of their only daughter in withholding these letters from the insatiable curiosity of the public.

The frankness with which these letters are edited gives us interesting self-revelations by Lowell as to some of his personal criticisms and animosities. In some cases, as in his allusions to what he wrote about Percival, Thoreau, and Masson—all these papers having been a good deal censured at the time for undue vehemence and acrimony—his letters show him quite unconscious of any such intention. The simple fact is, that he grew up under the critical school of Poe, when men practised a good deal of slugging, and thought all fair in the game. His more celebrated criticism on Margaret Fuller, which was perhaps the severest of these instances, receives a good deal of light in successive letters. It was more censured by dispassionate critics than any other of these extreme statements, because it was a mainly personal sarcasm in apparent retaliation for a purely literary criticism. Margaret Fuller had made no personal allusion, but had simply expressed the opinion, in a somewhat offhand and decisive manner, "his verse sounds no depths." The opinion showed want of discernment, though it is to be remembered that Lowell himself finally omitted from his revised works a large part of the poems on which it was founded. It is interesting now to find that Lowell himself demurred at putting her into the pillory of "The Fable for Critics," on the precise ground urged afterwards by others, that it would pass for a bit of retaliation. He writes to his friend Briggs (March 26, 1848): "I think I shall say nothing about Margaret Fuller (though she offer so fair a target), because she has done me an ill-natured turn. I shall revenge myself amply upon her by writing better" (i., 128). Nothing could have been manlier than this last sentence—but, unluckily, he says just after: "However, the temptation may be too strong for me." He yielded to it, but still convinces himself (I. 131), "with her I have been perfectly good-humored"; though he was unfortunately too hard a hitter for any one else to share this opinion. Even for himself, this bit of pleasing self-delusion did not last long, for he writes to Briggs once more (October 4), "If it be not too late, strike out these four verses in 'Miranda':

'There is one thing she owns in her own private right,
It is native and genuine—namely, her spite;
When she acts as a censor, she privately blows
A censer of vanity 'neath her own nose.'"

Unfortunately, it was too late; the verses remained in the volume; nor were they struck out in the later editions, although Lowell afterwards erased most of those relating to Francis Bowen, whose fellow-professor he had meanwhile become. The fact that, after her heroic life and death, he still retained what he wrote about her, revived the discussion which was then dying out; and it is now very interesting to see, by his successive letters, upon how narrow a chance the whole origin of the feud depended.

All the drawbacks to Mr. Lowell's prose style, so laboriously dwelt upon by such critics as Wilkinson and Kirk, may be found in these

letters; the long sentences, the mixed metaphors, the occasional bad taste, the sparkle of trivial puns, are here also. He who could write of Milton, in a printed essay, "A true Attic bee, he *made boot on every lip*," and who would assert that no poet ever got much poetry out of a cataract except Milton, "and that was a cataract in his eye," would not be more guarded in his offhand letters; and what most proves him unconscious of these qualities is that he is sometimes most rollicking and nonsensical to some of the most dignified of his feminine correspondents. Indeed, that side of Lowell's nature, the pure bubble and ecstasy, the champagne quality, has never been so thoroughly exhibited as here: and the saying attributed to one of his Cambridge intimates, that "Lowell was always one bottle of champagne ahead of us all," is abundantly exemplified, in the figurative sense in which it was intended. His animal spirits were always too exuberant to make much demand upon any artificial exhilaration, although the temporary impulse under which he followed his wife into the total-abstinence movement (i., 67) appears soon to have passed away. But it is a curious fact that, with all this insuperable vivacity, there was for many years a certain cumbrousness in his written sentences, traceable, perhaps, to the old English writers whom he loved. This he himself recognizes when he says, "My very style belongs to the last century, and drops too readily into the sententious and elaborately historical manner" (i., 369). He adds: "Believe me, I was lively once and may recover it; but I fear me much I have suffered a professor change that has gone too deep for healing." Here he deceives himself. This was written in 1866; but his style was then far less sententious and elaborate than when he wrote for the *Anti-Slavery Standard* nearly twenty years before; and this quality had been actually a ground of complaint among the readers of that paper. When Dickens established the *Daily News* in 1845 and got Lowell to write for it, there was general disappointment in the long-windedness of his communications. The truth is that he shortened his sword, instead of lengthening it, as time went on; and the probability is that "the professor change" was on the whole a help to him as to the habit of expression. There was certainly a period when his own style tended towards that quality which he calls, in the case of George P. Marsh, "congregational." The crisp and piquant quality was never far distant, but there were long paragraphs throughout which it was kept in abeyance. This was sufficiently visible in his 'Conversations on Some Old Poets' (1845), where there was occasionally a sentence half a page long.

It is a curious fact that a constitutionally shy and modest man often gets the credit of undue self-assertion from the very effort he makes to overcome his natural reluctance. This was signally the case with Lowell; he never likes his own books, constantly belittles his own poems, constantly laments, in later life, his own shortcomings. Yet he was always a great talker, always given to monologue; wherever he sat, there was the head of the table; it was even said of him in youth, among his most intimate circle of friends, that he never was quite easy unless he led the conversation. It is recorded that at the old *Atlantic* dinners which preceded the "Literary Club" in Boston, he and Dr. Holmes sat at the two ends of the table, and did nearly all the talking. Amid all his social popularity in England, there recurred at times this same imputation of excess. In the amusing papers attributed to Mr. George Russell on "Talk and Talkers of To-day" in the first numbers of the *New Review*, Lowell is highly praised for genuine wit and vast knowledge, but charged with "airy omniscience" and a "minute and circumstantial way of laying down the law." There is added a lively account, which has an irresistible verisimilitude for all who knew Lowell, about his gently taking her task out of the hands of the dignified custodian of an English castle, and telling her and the guests more about its history and traditions than she or anybody else knew before. Lowell himself says in one place: "I suppose it was the extreme solitude in which I grew up, and my consequent unconsciousness of any public, that made me so frankly communicative" (ii., 142). It should be remembered that even the love-poems of his youth were censured as unduly open to the public, and that the very letters which his daughter has now destroyed as too confidential were lent freely about, in their day, among a large circle of friends. The key to all this is to be found, no doubt, in the sentence just cited.

No book of our time is so crowded with "fine things said unintentionally," as was said of Shakspere's sonnets by Lowell's favorite, Keats. Such are his casual sketches of persons—Andrew Johnson, "whose worst was that he meant well" (ii., 7); Secretary Chase, "a weak man with an imposing presence, a most unhappy combination" (ii., 7); the poet Gray, who holds his own with "little fuel, but real fire" (ii., 86); Rousseau, "a monstrous liar, but always the first dupe of his own lie" (ii., 424); the "Adams flavor, as unmistakable as that of the Catawba grape" (ii., 431); Dana, who "convinced without persuading" (ii., 432); his cook Mary, who was a cook "merely by a brevet conferred by herself" (ii., 79); the comparison of Wordsworth's poetry to the old baronial housekeeping—"what splendor and what sordidness in one" (ii., 367); the contrast between Parnell and his successor—"McCarthy occupies his throne as the two Kings of Brentford might. The Irish half of him will be always consulting the English half, and there will be no single sharp-edged will as before" (ii., 430). Then there is the delicious characterization of Sibley's 'Lives of Harvard Graduates,' of which he says: "It is the prettiest rescue of prey from oblivion I ever saw. . . . It is the very balm of authorship. No matter how far you may be gone under, if you are a graduate of Harvard College, you are sure of being dredged up again and handsomely buried, with a catalogue of your works to keep you down" (ii., 130).

The closing letters are more pathetic, as becomes a somewhat languid old age, yet the champagne sparkles to the last. The whole book leaves a wholesome and even delightful picture of Lowell at Elmwood, surrounded in his arm-chair by vast piles of books, reading twelve hours a day, in vacation (ii., 64), "one of the last of the great readers" (ii., 154), enjoying the blossoming of his elms, loving every living thing about him, even to the centipedes, for which his gout gave him a peculiar pity (ii., 436), and effervescing all the time with strokes of wit like these. While people assumed that his heart was in England, he was homesick when abroad and happiest at home, with an Americanism so pronounced that it perhaps explains the else insoluble problem why Longfellow should have been translated into all European languages and Lowell into none. It is pleasant that he should give us, from time to time, a glimpse of the deeper philosophy which made him so full of sunshine:

> "The more I learn, . . . the more my confidence in the general good sense and honest intentions of mankind increases. . . . The signs of the times cease to alarm me, and seem as natural as to a mother the teething of her seventh baby. I take great comfort in God. I think that he is considerably amused with us sometimes, but that he likes us, on the whole, and would not let us get at the match-box so carelessly as he does unless he knew that the frame of his Universe was fireproof" (ii., 51).

How many accumulated Bodies of Divinity and Collections of Posthumous Sermons would it take to make up as solid a platform of religious consolation as is condensed into this seeming irreverence?

## EL DORADO.

*The Gilded Man*, and Other Pictures of the Spanish Occupancy of America. By A. F. Bandelier. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. 302. 1893.

In this volume Mr. Bandelier, abandoning the line of research which he has hitherto followed with such marked success, traces to their respective sources the legends of El Dorado and of the Seven Cities of Cibola, and gives an account of the different expeditions that were sent out for the discovery of these semi-mythical regions. According to him, the first of these stories comes from South America, and refers to a people among whom gold was so plentiful that, on certain occasions, their chief was powdered with it, and in that condition was conducted to a lake where he was duly washed, the assembled company meanwhile throwing their gold and jewels into the water. The truth of this story and the consequent derivation of the term "El Dorado" (or, as our author translates it, "the Gilded") has been called in question, though of the fact itself Mr. Bandelier, evidently, has no doubt. Indeed, he even goes so far as to place the scene of the occurrence among the Muyscas who dwelt on the table-land of Bogotá, at or near Lake Guatavita. In this he is probably right. The earliest versions of the story tell us that the country of the *Dorado* was somewhere in that direction; and this fact, taken in connection with the booty found there in 1537, and the recovery from the lake of certain gold ornaments which are supposed to represent the ceremony, certainly favor the view, though they can hardly be said to establish it.

Be this as it may, there can be no doubt of the prevalence of the story or of its influence in stimulating the Spaniards and others in their efforts to discover the ever-shifting region to which it referred. To this end expedition after expedition was fitted out long after the Spaniards had reached the spot; and it is worthy of note that several of them were in the interest of Welser & Co., a German house, to whom a large slice of the northern part of South America had been granted as security for loans made to the Emperor Charles V. With the one exception, however, noted above, all these expeditions were practically barren of pecuniary returns. After incredible hardships the survivors of them, often a mere remnant, found their way back to civilization, bringing with them nothing but their arms and a knowledge, more or less accurate, of the regions they had traversed. This was certainly not the reward which they had expected, but in so far as it led to the settlement of the country it may be accepted as payment in full for all their expenditure of time, money, and human life.

In regard to the Seven Cities of Cibola and the Gran Quivira, which, for our purpose, may be considered as parts of the same legend, we are told that a similar story was known in Europe before the time of Columbus. With the progress, however, of discoveries in the West Indies, the fabulous island of Antilia—the supposed seat of the Seven Cities—disappeared, and but little was heard of them until A. D. 1530, when Nuno de Guzman was told of their existence somewhere in the region north or northeast of Mexico. "When, how, or where he heard" the story is uncertain; but Bandelier is probably not far wrong when he intimates that, so far from being of native origin, it was an adaptation from the whites, just as was the "seven caves," or, as it was soon written, "seven cities" (p. 128), from which the seven Nahuatl tribes are said to have proceeded. In 1536, a few years after Guzman's expedition, Cabeza de Vaca reached Mexico, having crossed the continent in the course of his wanderings. He did not have any gold or jewels, but the accounts he brought of a people who lived in permanent settlements, wore cotton clothes, etc., strengthened the belief of the Spaniards in the existence, somewhere to the north, of a region abounding in the precious metals. To reach this region then became a paramount object, and in 1539 Fray Marcos of Nice was sent out upon a reconnoitring expedition, in the course of which he reached Cibola and looked down upon one of its seven cities, though he did not enter it.

In the report he made of his journey he did not claim to have found either gold or jewels, but he repeated the stories told by the Indians, and although they were not entitled to much credence, yet they inflamed still more the imagination of the Spaniards, and led in the following year to the expedition of Coronado for the conquest of that region. Starting from Culiacan in the spring of 1540, he arrived at Cibola, or, as we now know it, Zuni, and took possession of the seven villages. Disappointed at not finding gold, and attracted by the stories of the New Mexican pueblos, he pushed on to the Rio Grande and wintered at or near where now stands the village of Bernalillo. With the return of spring, he again took up his line of march, and did not halt until he had reached the Quiviras, a wandering tribe who were living at that time in central Kansas, within "seven hundred miles" of the Mississippi. Finding neither gold nor jewels among these savages, and totally disheartened by his want of success, he turned his face homewards, and reached the City of Mexico in July, 1542, having been gone about two years and a half. On the return of this expedition, Cibola ceased to be a centre of attraction, though Gran Quivira was still a name to conjure with. The story, however, underwent a change and now took the shape of buried treasure. Under this form it has come down to our day, and it still lingers, in spite of the fact that Gran Quivira has been identified with the ruined pueblo of Tabira, and that neither Indian nor missionary ever had any treasure to bury.

To any one familiar with Mr. Bandelier's previous publications, it is needless to say that the present volume is quite up to his standard, even though there are portions of it which add but little to the sum total of our knowledge. This is especially true in what relates to Coronado's expedition, for here he works over material which he has already used, though it is proper to say that nowhere has it been collected and arranged in such a way as to emphasize the courage and endurance of the Spaniards, the rapidity with which they overran the country, and the care and accuracy with which, under the most adverse circumstances, they recorded and preserved the details of their hard experience. Besides the investigation of these legends, Mr. Bandelier includes in this volume several other papers, in one of which he deals with the massacre of Cholula, and in another he follows the subsequent career of Jean L'Archévèque, the boy who led La Salle into the ambush in which he was murdered. In the first of these papers he examines the so-called massacre in the light of tradition and of certain Indian paintings preserved at San Juan Cuauhtlanzinco, and finds that it resolves itself into an attack upon the Indians in which Cortes anticipated by a few hours the execution of a plan they had matured for his destruction. In the second we are told that L'Archévèque, after his return from Europe, found his way into New Mexico about the year 1696. Here he married, and under the name of Archibeque his descendants may be found today. At first he is said to have been a soldier, but, abandoning this career, he became a merchant, and if we may judge from the amount of property he left, he was fairly successful. He was also prominent in the affairs of the province, and, having taken the oath of allegiance to Spain, he shared in the expedition sent out in 1720 to check the advance of the French up the Missouri, and was killed. For this curious bit of personal history Mr. Bandelier is indebted to the records of the Franciscans, preserved in the pueblo of Santa Clara. It was published a year or two ago in the *Nation*, and our object in calling attention to it at this time is to insist upon the importance of these and other records to any one engaged in studying the career of the Spaniards in America.

In conclusion we wish to acknowledge our obligation to Mrs. Thomas A. Janvier, upon whom, in the absence of Mr. Bandelier, the duty of editing this volume devolved. As a rule, she has done her work well, though there are times when the dates are somewhat confused. Thus, for example, we are told, p. 137, that Fray Marcos arrived in America in the year 1551, though we know (pp. 138, 139, etc.) that his expedition to Zuni-Cibola was made in A. D. 1539. There are other mistakes of a similar character, but it is unnecessary to refer to them more particularly. They are, fortunately, easy of detection, though they are none the less blemishes upon what is otherwise a good piece of editorial work.

## ENGLISH THEORIES OF PRODUCTION.

*A History of the Theories of Production and Distribution in English Political Economy from 1776 to 1848.* By Edwin Cannan, M.A., Balliol College, Oxford. London: Percival & Co.

THIS is a volume of importance not only to the professional student of political economy, but to all who look for guidance on the perplexing social and economic problems of the day to the writings of the economists of earlier and later fame. It is a history of the development of the essential doctrines set forth by the classic school of political economy; but it is something more than a history. Mr. Cannan is not only an accurate and scholarly historian, but an acute and unflinching critic. His book is by far the best account yet written of the history of economic thought in England from the time of Adam Smith to that of John Stuart Mill; it is also a searching examination of the doctrines of the famous writers of that epoch. Are we still to turn to these writers to find sound principles of political economy, or must we overhaul the whole subject and reconstruct the science anew?

Before considering these questions, and the answers to them which Mr. Cannan's book suggests, we must do justice to the high quality of his historical work. He has gone over his material with scholarly completeness, and gives an unquestionably thorough account of the growth of the various doctrines of production and distribution. The theories of Adam Smith, Ricardo, Malthus, Senior, Mill, and the rest of them are put before us as they really were held and presented by these thinkers, not as they have been construed and revised by their successors. The development of the various doctrines from writer to writer is followed with scrupulous accuracy. No economist can read the book without learning much that he had not before known, and without feeling indebted to Mr. Cannan for new light. We may add that there is an admirable index, a model in conciseness and completeness, which makes it easy to turn at once to Mr. Cannan's discussion of any part of his subject.

It is less important to know what the doctrines of the classic school were, and how they developed, than what is the truth about them: whether they are sound on the whole, or contain so much of error and exaggeration that they must be flung aside once for all. Although Mr. Cannan purports to give merely a history, his criticism is so severe and so unflagging that it is plain that he leans to the latter position. Hardly a doctrine or a writer among those which he takes up escapes without depreciating notice. Sometimes it is an acrid comment by the way; sometimes a long and elaborate refutation. Indeed, merely as a history, there is on its face something lacking in the book. Though the justice of every individual criticism here made should be admitted, it would still seem almost self-evident that there must have been some degree of merit, some progress in knowledge and understanding, in the writings of Adam Smith, Ricardo, Malthus, and Mill. The speculations of the mercantile writers who preceded them have sometimes been described as indeed of little worth in themselves, but as at least a necessary stage, preparatory for something better. Mr. Cannan has not even such scant praise as this for the unfortunate writers who come within his ken. Not a syllable of friendly acknowledgment can be found throughout his four hundred pages, while we have plenty of criticism, bitter comment, and sometimes unpleasant sneer. It requires all the respect to which his ability and scholarship entitle him not to revolt from some of his conclusions simply because of the acid temper in which they are set forth. As to the general significance of the classic doctrines, he states his views in the closing chapter very briefly and unequivocally: they may have done service in their day for England, by promoting the reform of the Poor Laws and the abolition of the Corn Laws, but as explanations of the phenomena of the production and distribution of wealth they are "unscientific and illogical," while as answers to the insistent questions of the socialists they are simply useless.

If a book of this temper had been published twenty or thirty years ago, the chances are that it would have been simply hooted down by the critics. The classic school then had full command of the field. Adam Smith and Ricardo were final authorities, and Mill's 'Political Economy' was accepted as containing what Mill had said in his preface it should

contain—"the latest improvements in the theory of the subject." But the times have changed mightily. First in Germany, then in the English-speaking communities, there was a revolt from the classic rule. Like every reaction, it bade fair at one time to swing too far, and indeed has now given way to a perceptible counter-movement. At present, economists have reached the stage of taking stock, so to speak, after the shock, and looking about to see where they stand, and what is left of the old structure. And here Mr. Cannan's book is helpful; but it might be more helpful. It tells us what we have lost, and where we must repair, but it exaggerates the losses, and does not show where the foundations remain substantially intact. Unquestionably, the ferment in economic discussion which began with the revolt from the "orthodox" domination, has made it certain that the traditional doctrines need a very thorough overhauling. No economist can now lay down the law in the confident tone which runs through Mill's once impeccable volumes, or deny that when the debates of the present have yielded their final outcome, we shall have an exposition of economic doctrines very different from Mill's. But, on the other hand, few would reject the classic doctrines as summarily as does Mr. Cannan, or set their scientific value as low as he does.

These general remarks may be illustrated by considering a specific doctrine, and its treatment at Mr. Cannan's hands. We will select, by way of example, the doctrine of saving as the explanation of interest. Adam Smith had laid it down that capital was created by saving, and had eulogized "parsimony" as the mainspring of all material progress. Senior had added the notion of "abstinence" as the origin of capital and as the sacrifice for which the capitalist got his reward in the form of interest. On Senior Mr. Cannan heaps criticism and ridicule, while "the conduct [abstinence] of which profit is the 'reward' has no name simply because it has no existence."

Now, the proposition that interest is the reward of abstinence, at best awkwardly stated by Senior and his followers, is an easy target for the carping critic; the more so as it has been often confounded with the very different proposition that interest at current rates is a fit and just reward for the abstinence of the individual capitalist. The abstinence of a Rothschild or a Vanderbilt is a favorite subject of ridicule; and Mr. Cannan speaks of "the comical result that a millionaire who saves £30,000 a year and spends £10,000 on himself, is more abstinent than a clerk who saves £10 a year and spends £100 on himself." The truth of the matter is that the mode in which capital is accumulated, and the reason why interest is paid, under a régime of private property, cannot be explained without a reference to this much-abused saving or (to use the term now coming into vogue) waiting. There would be no capital if there were no saving, and there would be no interest if saving were not usually an onerous act. On the other hand, there is nothing in this sort of reasoning to show that the payment of interest is right and just; and moreover there is nothing to indicate what are the terms on which the onerous act gets its reward, or, in other words, what fixes the rate of interest. The defence of capital and interest against the attacks of the socialists must rest, like the whole institution of private property, on a broader basis than that of the praiseworthiness of the capitalist's conduct and the merit of his individual abstinence. And as to the rate at which interest is paid, it is doubtful if much is gained by supposing that it is merely such as to give the owner of capital a sufficient inducement to abstain. The effect of capital in increasing the productiveness of industry, and the mode in which new arts and inventions enable more and more capital to be used with advantage, are the factors chiefly to be considered when we inquire what makes the rate. So far as the classic economists go, they thus laid the foundations (to continue our metaphor), if not in whole, at least in good part, in their discussion of saving and abstinence; and even though we build a structure different from theirs, we may yet accept gratefully the beginning they made, and treat their work in less contemptuous and destructive fashion than does Mr. Cannan.

These are days of currency nonsense and protectionist absurdity, of fantastic reasoning by the followers of Henry George as to the millennium to come from land confiscation, and hopelessly airy proposals for the assumption of any and every industrial function by the Government. The temptation is strong, under such conditions, to hold fast to authority and accepted doctrines, and to refuse to give aid and comfort to the enemy by admitting that the theories of current political economy are not settled and established scientific truths. But, in fact, there are few of them which the criticism of the last quarter of a century has not impugned more or less. The doctrines of exchange, money, international trade, have suffered least, those as to production and distribution most. The latter, it must be admitted, need to be largely recast, and such work as Mr. Cannan's is a contribution of unquestionable value in the process. But when the process is done, we doubt whether the new system will differ so fundamentally from the old as the enthusiastic radicals of the present day expect; and we predict that in it there will be incorporated not only essential doctrines of the classic school, but a grateful recognition of the service which the older writers did in building for their successors.

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*Italian Gardens.* By C. A. Platt. Harper & Bros. 1893.

THE scenery of the earth was made for man, not man for scenery. Civilized man enjoys natural scenery as the savage cannot, and he permanently preserves what he may of it in parks and public forests. Elsewhere he is necessarily a transformer and destroyer of nature. The landscape of civilization is an artificial landscape, and as such it may be either beautiful or ugly—beautiful when it is the blossom of use, convenience, or necessity; ugly when it is the fruit of pompous pride or common carelessness. The gardens of the Renaissance in Italy, France, and England have been thoughtlessly ridiculed in modern days because of their unlikeness to wild nature. As well revile a palace for its unlikeness to a wigwam. The vast extent and the tiresome repetitions of some of the gardens in question may convict them of the sin of vainglorious display, but if they fitly served any human need or pleasure, their unnaturalness was no sin. Likeness or unlikeness to wild nature is no criterion of merit. Farmsteads, country roads, villages, city streets, and world's fairs are all more or less removed from nature and naturalness, yet even the last-named may be beautiful, as we have lately seen. Fitness for purpose is the safe foundation of the art of designing land and landscape for the use and enjoyment of men.

That the gardens of the classic world and the Italian Renaissance fitly served a worthy purpose there can be no doubt. In the Italian climate, halls and drawing-rooms out of doors were even more to be desired than parlors indoors. Groves, parterres, terraces, and approaches were designed conjointly with the house or palace to form one composition—the so-called "villa." The boundary of the villa was a sharp line separating it from the hills of Tivoli or the plains of the Campagna. Inside the boundary was the formality which befits stately living; outside, yet in view from the terraces, was the informality and picturesqueness of the natural world.

Rightly thinking that these villas of Italy may teach lessons of value to the America of to-day, Mr. Platt has published in the book before us forty full-page pictures of their buildings, pavilions, terraces, water-basins, and gardens, with many smaller drawings and photographs of architectural details. He has made an uncommonly charming yet truthful picture-book. We are compelled to wish he had done more. The text of the book is very handsomely printed with wide margins, but it consists of the briefest of notes. Even if it be "taken purely as supplementary to the illustrations," as we are asked to take it, it is very unsatisfying. For the fairly-to-be-expected elucidation of the plates, plans (as well as fuller notes) are sadly needed, yet only one is provided. On the first page mention is made of the great book of Percier and Fontaine, and it is stated that there exists no other "work of any great latitude" treating of Italian gardens. Evidently our author is not acquainted with W. P. Tuckermann's 'Die Gartenkunst der Italienischen Renaissance-Zeit,' published in Berlin in 1884, and containing, besides twenty-one plates and numerous other cuts, some twenty ground-plans and cross-sections of Renaissance villas.

In the grassless regions of our South and Southwest, in the necessarily rectilinear public squares of our cities, in connection with stately buildings in all parts of our country, be they public offices in Washington or hotels by Lake George, the formal lines of the Italian villa will always be acceptable because they will always be fitting. Our public has still to learn that only by designing buildings and their surroundings as one harmonious composition can a happy result be secured in either the formal or the picturesque style. The recent World's Fair taught this lesson very clearly. Mr. Platt's delightful pictures teach it also. If those whom these pictures interest will turn from them to the works of Tuckermann, Repton, and the other professional writers on landscape architecture, and then will practise what they learn therefrom, Mr. Platt will have accomplished a good work for America.

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*My Arctic Journal;* A Year among Icefields and Eskimos. By Josephine Diebitsch Peary. With an account of the Great White Journey across Greenland, by Robert E. Peary, C.E., U. S. A. Philadelphia: Contemporary Publishing Co. 1893. 8vo, 240 pp., illustrated.

IN taking up this volume one is naturally moved not only by the interest which attaches to any account of travel in inhospitable regions, or to arctic exploration as such, but by a curiosity born of the circumstances which led to the experiences recorded. In brief, the question arises in the mind of every reader, "What justification shall we find in it for the experiment of taking a well bred, plucky woman away from her normal sur-

roundings and leaving her for months practically alone on the shores of the Arctic Sea?" Secondarily, explorers are likely to ask themselves, "Given the results here offered, are they such as will tend to make such experiments customary?" No question of personal heroism arises here; no one can be so blind to history as to doubt the possibility of courage and devotion of the highest order in woman. The problem is of a much more practical and less romantic kind. It will not be disputed that women feel more keenly than men the absence of those refinements and appliances of civilization upon which modern comfort depends, and suffer more from anxieties connected with the safety and success of those they love; or at least have less philosophy with which to meet such cares and privations than the average man. It is certain that the torment of women is not necessary to arctic exploration, or similar work, and in fact decreases the efficiency of a party in so far as they may be sympathetically affected by partaking of her trials, anxious for her safety, or obliged to waste time and strength over conventionalities disregarded by men among themselves under such circumstances.

Descending from the general to the special, in the present instance what advantages appear to have been gained by the presence of a lady in the Peary camp other than those personal to the two individuals most concerned? We turn for an answer to Mrs. Peary's account of her experiences. The party left New York on the steamer *Kite* June 6, 1891. On the 11th of July Mr. Peary was so unfortunate as to sustain a fracture of the leg due to a stroke from the iron tiller driven by a sudden movement of the ice. On the 26th of July it was decided to erect winter quarters on the shore of McCormick Bay; the party were landed, and on the 30th the *Kite* departed southward. The house being completed, preliminary excursions to examine the borders of the inland ice, hunting parties for deer and walrus, and negotiations with the Eskimo of the region, occupied the time. In the course of the season a number of the latter people, the "arctic highlanders" of earlier writers, made their home in the vicinity of "Redcliff House," as the building was named, and seem to have been very useful to the party, especially in preparing winter clothing. Winter set in about the end of October, and by about the middle of November Mr. Peary had entirely recovered from his injury. Daily exercise, the ordinary domestic duties, and the preparation of clothing and equipment for the expedition upon the inland ice absorbed the energies of the party, in all of which Mrs. Peary seems to have done her fair proportion without especial suffering or inconvenience, unless when attempting to sew at a temperature of only 44 degrees. Between her and the Eskimo, odors and parasites seem to have erected an impassable wall, and her account of the daily clean-up with corrosive sublimate after the departure of a native sempstress is amusing and almost pathetic. Of those mysteries of feminine life among the natives to which her sex might have given her access, or stimulated observation unthought of by male explorers, there is not a hint. We are not even told what sort of a thimble the women use. It would seem impossible to live in daily contact with a peculiar people for a year and learn less about them than what is recorded here. Under the circumstances this was not unnatural, but is somewhat disappointing.

In February the sun reappeared and the party began short excursions for various purposes. The anxiety felt by the writer on various occasions of delay or bad weather while such trips were in progress, is vividly depicted, though not unduly dwelt upon. In April the party suffered from a visitation of the grippe. Later, Mrs. Peary accompanied her husband on a short expedition to Inglefield Gulf, and passed a night of horrors in a native igloo where she could not prevail upon herself even so much as to lie down. Thereafter the party built their own snow hut or slept without a shelter. On the 4th of May, Mr. Peary started on his adventurous journey, and for Mrs. Peary began three weary months of waiting. Her anxieties were not diminished by an absurd fancy of the colored cook that their lives were in danger from the natives. On the 25th of July a diversion was created by the arrival of the *Kite*, though this again raises the question of what is to be done if the explorers should not return before the *Kite* is obliged to start south. We will not quote Mrs. Peary's painful reflections. On the 6th of August suspense was ended and all was well; but we think that any one, not totally devoid of sympathy, who reads this journal, will have answered for himself the questions with which this summary was introduced—this, notwithstanding the paragraph with which Mrs. Peary closes her narrative:

"I returned in the best of health, much stronger than when I left sixteen months before. The journey was a thoroughly enjoyable one. There were some drawbacks, it is true, but we meet with them everywhere; and, were it not for the sad loss of Mr. Verhoeff, I should not have a single regret."

A brief chapter on the second journey, that of the present year, written in Greenland, and another by Mr. Peary on his journey over the ice, conclude the volume.

The publishers have issued the book in a most attractive form. Scientifically, except as a contribution to psychology, the numerous excellent illustrations are the most valuable part of it. To those who know little of arctic people or travel the text contains much that will interest, though to the geographer or ethnologist it is an oft-told story. That the present expedition may be no less fortunate than the one she has recorded, will be the earnest hope of all Mrs. Peary's readers.

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*A History of English Dress.* By Georgiana Hill. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 2 vols., 8vo.

ALTHOUGH the name of the American publishers alone appears on the title-pages of these volumes, they come to us from an English press, with the illustrations stamped with the name of the London firm of Richard Bentley & Son. We state these facts partly as another mode of saying that the steel plates are capitally engraved, the margins of the pages liberal, the type and printing a pleasure to the eye, while the surface-finish of the paper is delightfully free from the glaze and gloss that cause one alarming visions of failing sight and visits to the oculist. Nor does the mention of these adventitious merits by any means exhaust all that can be said in praise of the book. It is by far the best popular history of dress that has come under our notice. The author has not been betrayed by the lightness of her subject into flippancy, nor does she ever fall to the level of mere gossip about paint, powder, and pomatum. Common sense is at the bottom of her conception of fashion and its slaves, and a calmly impartial observation of the foibles and weaknesses of both sexes alike characterizes her pages.

As satirists of all times and every shade of wit and delicacy have rung so many changes in verse, prose, and journalese upon the theme of feminine vanities, we prefer to quote Miss Hill on the less threadbare side of the subject. "Because in the present day," she writes, "men have chosen to affect a certain rigour in dress which does not admit of much variation, they are pleased to forget the quality of their toilet in the past, the number and mutability of their fashions, the elaboration and costliness of their attire, which equalled, nay exceeded, that of women." As among the first of the protracted sufferings of the sex in the cause of beauty may be mentioned the wearing of long pointed toes, stuffed with tow and turned up like rams' horns, in the first (Saxon-Norman) of the six periods treated of, and even during the second (Plantagenet) period, while women were still moving about unimpeded "in the simple Græco-Roman dress which was worn under the Normans, and, indeed, earlier." Of the fine gentlemen of the Tudor period an eye-witness is quoted as writing: "Their doublets are so stuffed, bombasted, and sewed, as they can verie hardly eyther stoupe down, or decline themselves to the grounde, so styffe and sturdy they stand about them." The same observer's account of the process of the toilet of a gallant of the period does something towards proving that the intellect of the two sexes has been more on a par in past times than is commonly supposed. Among the milder vanities of the one claiming the greater freedom from them may be mentioned, in the Stuart period, the masses of curled hair, the earring in one ear, and the rose of ribbon fastened around the top of the other ear or in the curls.

The first volume ends with the Stuart period. The second includes two periods only, the eighteenth century and the nineteenth—a change, which strikes one as illogical, being thus introduced into the order of the subdivisions. A more serious charge, however, to be made is the lack of sufficient consecutiveness of thought and treatment. Miss Hill has not confined herself strictly to a discussion of apparel, but touches upon the various changes in the social habits and in the private manners that also go to mark the man, as well as upon trade and industry as affected by costume. But the interest always aroused upon these points is too often frustrated by abrupt and rapid transitions of subject, even without the warning of a change of paragraph. In the chapters dealing with latter-day problems of dress, æsthetic, hygienic, and domestic, no original line of thought is followed out, though the presentment is from the standpoint of plain sense and reasonableness. Such as they are, these volumes may be a valuable addition to the bookshelves of a philosopher upon themes social and conventional, while their value for the less reflective reader is the breadth of outlook they give to a subject whose details, if taken too seriously, occupy an amount of attention out of all proportion to their value. In passing, too, one would like to note that although the revered vowel has not been dropped from words like honour, rigour, and vigour, nor any other enormity of American spelling committed, constructions have been allowed to stand which are to be deprecated on both sides of the water alike.

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*The Masters and Masterpieces of Engraving.* By Willis O. Chapin. Illustrated with sixty engravings and heliogravures. Harper & Bros. 1893.

WITHIN the two hundred and sixty-six pages

of this elegant specimen of book-making are contained the salient features of the entire evolution of the art of engraving. The work is apparently "composed" for readers of little leisure who love art, and are interested in the vicissitudes of the lives which have contributed to its making. Moot questions are settled out of hand, in accordance with the weight of evidence, and only such prominent matters and personalities as are in the line of progress are rounded into completion. For closer study of workmanship and comparison of styles, the nearly autographic reproductions from valuable originals, with which the volume is embellished, serve a better purpose than any amount of description. Plate-engraving and etching are traced through the development of the various schools, which, to some extent interdependent, were nevertheless sufficiently national to be recognized by the names of Germany, Italy, Flanders, France, and England. In regard to the personalities that dominated these schools, the reader's memory is greatly assisted by their arrangement into contemporaneous groups. The character of the illustrations may be gathered from the titles of a few of those which illuminate this portion of the subject: "A Portrait of Rembrandt (Rembrandt appuyé)," etched by himself; "Lucretia," by Marc Antonio, after Raphael; "The Angel of the Annunciation," by Martin Schongauer; "The Nativity," by Albrecht Dürer; and a portion of "David Playing before Saul," by Lucas van Leyden.

The author has included wood-engraving, and traces it from the work of the *Formschneider*, which is fittingly illustrated by the "St. Christopher" of Earl Spencer's collection, the earliest cut with authentic date, and subjects from Dürer and Holbein. Thomas Bewick is assigned his proper niche in the temple of fame, and, among the illustrations of the book, is represented by "The Yellow Bunting" and "The Woodcock," which exhibit his simple mastery as perfectly as an entire copy of 'The British Birds.' A portion of Harvey's engraving of "The Death of Dentatus"—rather an inferior reproduction—is used to display the traits of this famous work. Heliotype reproductions of "Rinaldo and Armida" by Nesbit and "The Cave of Despair" by Branston, works done in rivalry by these English engravers, as here presented, printed on antique paper, with the plate-mark, seem actually to be the copper plates they imitate. W. J. Linton receives his tribute of most honorable mention and a page engraving in his virile free manner. American engravers who receive equal distinction in the display of their work are Johnson, Kingsley, Kruell, and Closson.

Altogether this book is one which is likely to win attention to its subject, too often made repellent by a dry account of methods and catalogues of works.

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*Printers' Marks;* A Chapter in the History of Typography. By W. Roberts, Editor of the *Bookworm*. Broad 12mo, pp. xv., 261. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

THE earliest printed books had no titles or title-pages. The printer's name and place, when not entirely omitted, were to be found only on the last page of the book, in the small type of the text, where they would not be noticed by the careless observer. Properly to assert his claim as the mechanical maker of the book, and to cause the claim to be noted and remembered, the printer had to design and have printed on this last page a conspicuous engraved trade-mark. This bold engraving identified him with his books.

The 'Psalter of 1457,' printed by Fust & Schoeffer, at Maintz, was the first book with a printer's mark. In time other printers followed this example. At the close of the fifteenth century, every reputable printer put his trademark on his books. By general consent its position was transferred from the last page to the first page, and it was usually made the blackest and boldest impression of the volume. It often occupied one-half, sometimes two-thirds, of the entire title-page. The printer's mark is not now regarded as indispensable. Many large publishers have no mark. The few that are used are rather modest as to size, seldom exceeding the dimensions of three square inches. The only notable exception is that of the Kelmscott Press, which is almost as big as that of William Caxton.

In the book before us more than two hundred marks are shown, but those of French, German, and Italian printers are most in number. The marks of the eminent early English printers are reproduced, but the printers of this century do not fare so well; there are relatively few marks of modern printers, and only seven of the printers of America. Many of the marks have been copied by photo-engraving process, and all of them, and the text too, are exceptionally well printed. Mr. Roberts's comments are curt, but exact and instructive. He has made a valuable book of reference, giving much useful information concerning a department of typography that has been hitherto neglected by all writers in English, and is accessible to the student only in French and German books.

A study of these marks does not impress the reader with their artistic value as a whole. Some of the earlier ones, that may have been designed or suggested by artists of the period of Holbein and Dürer, and by the able French designers of the first quarter of the sixteenth century, have real artistic merit, but many of them are crude, fantastic, and inartistic. The domination of the religious sentiment is strongly shown in all designs made during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The cross appears in every variety of distortion. Angels and Biblical characters are very common. With them came heraldic shields with supports of mythological and mediæval monsters, such as satyrs, fauns, tritons, phœnixes, griffins, and unicorns. Then came rebuses, monograms, and far-fetched puns on the name of the printer. English printers especially showed an extraordinary aptitude for this shocking form of illustration. Many printers whose names ended with *-ton* (an abbreviation of town) made use of a great barrel, or tun, as the chief ornament of their device. Nor is the punning device yet out of fashion; it can be found in the marks of several English publishers of this century. Curious and interesting as these marks are, the designs will not bear comparison with the designs or the engraving of the same number of chance-collected *ex-libris*.

In most of the marks is evident an effort to be striking and original at the expense of propriety and even of fair dealing. When a printer failed to invent a new design, he did not hesitate to copy the design of another. The dolphin and anchor of Aldus Manutius have been favorite stock pieces for plunder. Pickering of London appropriated them bodily. Whittingham incorporated them in one of his devices of the Chiswick Press. Bell of London and Joel Munsell of Albany have tagged them on their respective marks.

*Genealogy of the Cutts Family in America.* By Cecil Hampden Cutts Howard. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons. 1892. Pp. 658.

*Life and Times of Henry Burt of Springfield* and Some of his Descendants. By Henry W. Burt and Silas W. Burt. Springfield, Mass.: Clark W. Bryan Co. 1893. Pp. 617.

*The Genealogy of the Mickley Family of America.* By Minnie F. Mickley. Mickleys, Penn. 1893. Pp. 182.

THESE three volumes are, we fear, only average specimens of the work now being done by enthusiasts in the name of genealogy. The Cutts book is large and evidently costly, the printer assisting to make the maximum of pages out of the material. It is not a Cutts genealogy, although a history of that very small, yet distinguished, family might be culled from its pages. It is really a miscellaneous collection of pedigrees of persons having a small portion of Cutts blood through their maternal ancestors. For example, the last name in the line is 5450, W. L. Putnam, traced through Harriet Lowell, Charles R. Lowell, Harriet B. Spence, Mary W. Traill, Mary Whipple, Mary Cutt, and Robert Cutt, jr., to Robert Cutt the emigrant. That is to say, Mr. Putnam was in the seventh generation from a male of the Cutts family, and probably had 127 other progenitors in that generation. Doubtless there are many thousands of persons who share equally in this connection, but the fact is as worthless as it is patent. It is a most serious defect in this book that no attempt is made to assist the reader by suitable typographical aids. There are no cross-references, nothing to show the continuance of families nor the generations. The few real Cuttses are swamped and lost among the female lines. This is a pity, as the males were very noticeable men, prominent in New Hampshire history, and well worth a clear record. Perhaps after this book has answered its purpose, some one will extract from it a Cutts pedigree.

The Burt book is a family magazine, being a mere collection of notices of various families of the name, prepared by different persons, and of widely varying degrees of correctness and fulness. It reports a general family reunion, and is avowedly only a collection of materials. Conformably to its fore-title, "Early Days in New England," much space is given to the early history of Springfield, Mass., Longmeadow, and Northampton, recording matter invaluable in a town history, but which would be entirely out of place in a formal genealogy.

The small Mickley genealogy is really a family history, unpretending in form and covering a small field very well. It begins with John Jacob Mickley, who was born probably in 1697, and who arrived in Philadelphia in 1733. Six generations of his descendants of the name are given, 503 names in all, in the simplest form of record. It seems probable that the emigrant was a brother of Louis Michellet of Metz, great-grandfather of Prof. Charles Louis Michellet of Berlin. If so, the family can be traced five generations in France.

In behalf of the high standard established for American genealogies, we may be excused for insisting that only those who inherit the name by birth belong to a family. Right or wrong, the paternal ancestry is the distinguishing one, and a genealogy is the record of a family from that standpoint. The public may or may not be right in supposing that the male line inherits certain definite traits; but if not, no one can select the line of female ancestry which will prove to dominate. Among

the Cutts descendants James Russell Lowell, B. P. Shillaber ("Mrs. Partington"), Gen. Fitz-John Porter, and Richard C. Shannon; among the Burts, Ezra Stiles, Ethan Allen, Silas Wright, Sylvester Judd, and President Cleveland appear. But there is no trait possessed in common by these gentlemen which is to be considered as due to the Cutts or the Burt influence. They may cast some borrowed lustre upon a less noted stock, and curiosity may be gratified by such fortuitous associations, but the true object of attention is the line selected for research. This principle has been in the main observed in the choice of portrait illustrations for the second work on our list, most of them being of descendants who bear the name of Burt. The Cutts volume is also illustrated.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Almanach de Gotha. 1894. Gotha: Justus Perthes: New York: Westermann.
Bent, J. T. The Sacred City of the Ethiopians. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Chatfield Taylor, H. C. An American Princess. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Dupriez, Prof. L. Les Ministres dans les Principaux Pays d'Europe et d'Amérique. 2 vols. Paris: J. Rothschild.
Ebers, Georg. Kleopatra: Historischer Roman. Zweite Auflage. Leipzig: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt.
Frith, Henry. The Romance of Navigation and Maritime Discovery. Ward, Lock & Bowden.


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### *ERRATA.*

Page 27, col. ii., line 40. For "August" read "September."

Page 30, col. iii., line 13. Omit "After that of January 1, 1863."

Page 64, col. i, line 31 from bottom. For "Garrett" read "Garrott," and for "That" read "This."

Page 161, col. i., line 13 from bottom. For "corab" read "carab." Col. ii., line 2. For "Mr." read "Mrs."; line 10, for "headsman" read "headman."

Page 179, col. i., line 3. For "Regenaburg" read "Ermeland."

Page 190, col iii., line 27 from bottom. For "Gesuiti" read "Gesuati."

Page 215, col. ii, line 14 from bottom. For "72" read "73."

Page 229, col. ii., line 24. For "*practicien*" read "*praticien*."

Page 256, col. iii., lines 2 and 4. For "Breton" read "Brehon."

Page 414, col. ii., line 18. For "Krishna" read "Irishna."

Page 415, col. iii., lines 37, 38. For "on the breaking out of the war" read "in 1863."

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